

**AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF LEADERSHIP,
JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT: A STUDY OF COMMUNITY
HOSPITALS IN CENTRAL THAILAND**

Samita Muadtong

**A Dissertation Submitted in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy (Development Administration)
School of Public Administration
National Institute of Development Administration
2011**

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ABSTRACT

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In order to deliver prompt responses and quality service in a cost-effective manner, organizational commitment has been perceived as a major driving force which reveals employees' willingness and contribution to goal attainment, especially in light of the tumultuous settings of globalization. Organizational commitment is a concept that assumes a predominant role in human resource management. The concept can be described as an attitude or a force that binds employees with organizations. Employees are considered committed if they associate themselves with their organizations and devote a great deal of effort to pursuing the organization's mission. By being committed, they remain motivated and dedicated to achieving predefined goals. Organizational commitment consequently has remained a topic of interest in public administration, management and organizational behavior research. This research aims to identify the causal relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and to answer the research questions. The objectives laid down for the research conduct were: 1) to explore the relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and 2) to provide policy recommendations for enhancing organizational commitment within the context of community hospitals in Thailand. In order to achieve these objectives, the concepts of organizational commitment, leadership styles, and job satisfaction were integrated into the proposed research model. The styles of leadership explored here are transformational, transactional, servant, and laissez-faire leadership. In order to eliminate the possibility of intervening variables, the present study also takes into account the characteristics which, according to previous literature, have been revealed to have an impact on organizational commitment. These include years of service, which refers to the number of years one works in his/her current organization, and

limitation of career alternatives, which is the perception of personal career alternatives in relation to others. These are brought into the analysis as control variables.

The present study relies on a non-probability research design, in which the entire population of 139 community hospitals in central Thailand represents the unit of analysis at the organizational level. With 2 hospitals involved in questionnaire pre-testing, the number of hospitals examined in the survey remained at 137. The quantitative analysis method was used employing three main statistical techniques: factor analysis, Pearson correlation, and regression in order to enhance the understanding of these research findings.

The statistical results of the research indicate a high correlation between transformational and servant leadership in accordance with the literature, supporting the largely overlapping attributes of the two concepts. Since servant leadership was reviewed to extend transformational elements, it was selected for further analysis of the relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The relationship explored in the path model was of two types. The first is a direct relationship, examining how the variables in consideration influence organizational commitment. Servant leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, years of service, and job satisfaction positively and significantly affected commitment. Only limitation of alternatives did not have an impact. Job satisfaction exerted the highest degree of direct influence, while the least was attributed to transactional leadership. Second, there was an indirect relationship. Only two variables, including servant leadership and limitation of alternatives, positively and significantly affected commitment through job satisfaction. Transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and years of service did not have an indirect impact. A servant leadership style produced a much greater influence on job satisfaction than limitation of alternatives did. To summarize, all variables had an effect on commitment. Most of them had only a direct influence. In terms of total causal relationships, servant leadership yielded the highest effect, suggesting that servant as well as transformational styles brought about commitment among employees. Job satisfaction produced the second highest effect based on its direct relationship with commitment.

All in all, the researcher examines organizational commitment in a health-related context, addresses the problems of public and non-western organizations and identifies the leadership styles that help foster organizational commitment in community hospitals in central Thailand.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Changes in the twenty-first century constitute a fundamental shift in political, economic, and social aspects. “Today’s organizations have to face a turbulent environment, where change seems the only constant” (Castka, Bamber, Sharp, and Belohoubek, 2001: 123). Access to information, technological advances, and online communication channels has highlighted the significance of responsiveness, customer-oriented strategies, and flexibility. The introduction of new public management poses the urgent need for systematic reform among governmental units. In order to deliver prompt responses and quality service in a cost-effective manner, organizational commitment has been perceived as a major driving force which reveals employees’ willingness and contribution to goal attainment, especially in light of tumultuous settings. Globalization can be translated into mobility, an erosion of long-term relationships, and decreasing face-to-face correspondence. The matter has been discussed as to whether these changes reduce the tie between employees and organizations (Supamas Trivisavavet, 2004: 3). According to the theory of input management, there is the 4Ms theory, factors of production regarded as an input for every organization consisting of man, money, material, and management. Hence, a path leading to performance effectiveness and goal accomplishment requires the presence of man or, in other words, human resources that make a contribution to organizational purposes. As Drucker (1954) pointed out, capital, physical, and human resources are the components that define productive capacity (Nissada Wedchayanon, 2000: 7). Organizations are likely to place an emphasis on recruitment, selection, training, and capacity building so as to maximize the employees’ potentiality.

In securing rare, valuable, inimitable, and non-substitutable people, managers thus focus on cultivating commitment and engagement. Knowledge and expertise are not the only factors that remain salient in enhancing intellectual capital however (Jiraprapa Akaraborworn, 2006: 2). In other words, organizations rather take into account employee retention through creating and increasing the level of commitment. Organizational commitment is a concept that assumes a predominant role in human resource management. The concept can be described as an attitude or a force that binds employees with organizations. Employees are considered committed if they associate themselves with their organizations and devote a great deal of effort to pursuing organizational goals (Mowday, 1998: 387-388). By being committed, they remain motivated and dedicated towards achieving predefined goals (Pavett and Lau, 1983: 170). Commitment is therefore found to reduce absenteeism, turnover, withdrawal, and resistance. Committed employees may originally not possess concentrated skills or experience; however, they seek further knowledge and intensify their qualifications for fulfilling the task requirements. Ulrich (1998) also perceives intellectual capital as being dependent on commitment, as well as competence (Jiraprapa Akaraborworn, 2006: 2).

According to Reichheld and Teal (1996: 1-10), organizations with loyalty to customers, employees, and stakeholders realize growth and profit that establish a competitive advantage. In return, employees exhibit loyalty towards organizations and attempt to satisfy customers' demands through products and services. Committed employees minimize the cost of personnel recruiting and retraining. Commitment is a source of sustainability.

Pfeffer (1998: 15-18) also calls for a culture of high involvement, performance, and commitment practice based on people-centered strategies comprising employment security, selective hiring, self-managed teams and decentralization of decision-making, high compensation contingent on performance, employee training, and reduced status differentials and information sharing.

Organizational commitment consequently remains a topic of interest in public administration, management, and organizational behavior research. Some deal with conceptual development, explication, and measurement, while others examine empirical observations in different settings (Supamas Trivisavavet, 2004: 2). The controversy

over the definition, predictors, and constructs will be presented in the present study. Moreover, “commitment researchers are entering into an ‘international phase’ in which they are attempting to extend and apply theories abroad” (Randall: 1993, 92). Knowledge of management is cultural-oriented. Theories might prove valid in certain contexts, but fail in others. Thus, the researcher deems it expedient to explore organizational commitment from cross-cultural perspectives, and in public agencies and private sectors, as well as to provide rigorous findings that will fulfill theoretical embodiment. Cohen (2003: 98) stipulated that “most of what we know about commitment is based on American theories and findings. These theories clearly need to be tested in other cultures for us to learn whether they are generalizable.” Heuristic value is rooted in generalization and application.

In observing organizational commitment in the community hospitals of central Thailand, the researcher would argue also that leadership style is a factor that influences the level of commitment. Managerial behaviors can have either positive or negative impacts on employee relation, tenure, and turnover. Assuming that commitment is a part of organizational culture, the researcher takes into account the discrepancy between two different stands. The functionalists express that leaders are regarded as architects that construct and reinforce a pattern of culture, while anthropologists argue for the notion of leadership as a part of culture itself. However, a growing body of research supports the former claim, in which leaders are considered proactive actors in reinventing organizational culture (Ostroff, Kinicki and Tamkins, 2003: 593). The role of the leader is to be responsible for stimulating engagement. Through a cultivation of trust, human relationship, knowledge vision, and with a collaborative atmosphere, leaders are able to connect, support, and encourage followers. Apart from the direct impact, leadership influences organizational commitment through job satisfaction, which acts as an intervening variable. Job satisfaction can be roughly defined as the positive attitudes of an individual towards his/her career.

In McNeese-Smith, Yan and Yang’s research (2000: 7), conducted to comparatively examine staff nurses in Seattle, Los Angeles, and Shanghai, behavioral styles of head nurses were found to influence job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The aspects of leaders proposed in the study, referred to as exemplary leadership, consisted of (1) modeling the way, (2) inspiring a shared vision, (3)

challenging the process, (4) enabling others to act, and (5) encouraging the heart. In this regard, leaders are expected to initiate changes, act as opinion leaders, foster employees' willingness, and contribute to job performance. "Clearly, leadership makes a difference to hospital nurses in both countries, particularly in times of rapid change. How managers behavior in leadership roles influences nurses, and probably other employees, to experience more job satisfaction, more productivity and increases in long term commitment to the employing organization" (McNeese-Smith, Yan and Yang, 2000: 15).

Community hospitals in central Thailand were selected as the subject of analysis of the present research due to their significance in providing integrated primary and secondary healthcare services for the district health service system, disease prevention, and health promotion. Each is responsible for the people in its district location and remains in close contact with the specified communities. Employees and their commitment to organizations are therefore essential in providing accessible services regarding diagnosis, treatment, and medical care, along with comprehensive educational and training programs. The present study is aimed to enrich the body of knowledge on the conceptual interconnectedness of leadership styles and commitment, as well as to propose policy recommendations which can be applied in community hospitals that are attempting to promote quality service.

1.2 Significance of the Study

The concept of commitment in the workplace is still one of the most challenging and researched concepts in the fields of management, organizational behavior, and human resources (Weibo, Kaur and Jun, 2010: 12). Apart from that findings yield inconsistent results, organizational commitment has been cited as a predictor of turnover, withdrawal tendency, and organizational effectiveness. "People" are one of the elements that influence the ability of organizations to achieve high performance (De Waal, 2007: 181). The researcher believes that leaders are a principal agent that constitutes to changes and thus are responsible for the level of employees' commitment. According to Pichit Pitaktepsombat (2003: 159), the consequences arising due to a lack of commitment include red tape, irresponsiveness, stress,

emotional breakout, and fatigue. The symptoms as such definitely reduce the satisfaction of clients with government agencies as service providers. While previous studies generally considered traditional transactional and transformational models, the present research discusses differing leadership styles with the inclusion of servant and laissez-faire leadership, as well as determines whether these styles potentially lead to job satisfaction and commitment.

In addition, the significance of the study lies in the very fact that the problem of employee retention is universal; yet, research is rather clustered in western countries (Chaiyanant Panyasiri, 2008: 2). Therefore, the application of a theoretical foundation has to be examined in other locations existing beyond western geographical limits. An exploration of the problem will add force to the ongoing non-western theoretical building process.

The study is thereby purported to fulfill the growing body of organizational research by focusing on the relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in the Thai public healthcare context. The significance of this study is as follows:

- 1) It will provide additional data on leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment
- 2) It examines the influence of leadership styles on job satisfaction and different aspects of organizational commitment
- 3) It contributes to policy recommendations regarding organizational commitment, which will help to improve organizational performance and efficiency in delivering healthcare services.

1.3 Research Questions and Objectives

This study seeks to extend previous research with the following research questions:

- 1) Do leadership styles have an influence on overall organizational commitment?
- 2) Do leadership styles indirectly affect organizational commitment through job satisfaction?

3) Does job satisfaction have an influence on overall organizational commitment?

The researcher aims to identify the causal relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment and to answer the research questions. The objectives laid down for a research conduct are:

1) to explore the relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment

2) to provide policy recommendations for enhancing organizational commitment within the context of community hospitals in Thailand.

1.4 Scope and Limitations

The present study relies on a non-probability research design, in which the entire population of 139 community hospitals in central Thailand represents the unit of analysis at the organizational level. With 2 hospitals involved in questionnaire pre-testing, the number of hospitals examined in the survey remained at 137. The paper focuses on community hospitals and does not explore hospitals in other categories or hospitals located outside the central part of Thailand, which the researcher assumes to have different characteristics than the population investigated here. The respondents in each organization were requested to fill out the questionnaire. The subjects listed consisted of leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and the leadership styles were classified into four types: transformational, transactional, servant, and laissez fair leadership.

Owing to the scope of the study, the findings emanating from the research might not be able to be applied elsewhere, as the research is specific to community hospitals within the central part of Thailand. Hospitals of other types or hospitals situated beyond the geographical limit are likely to have administrative and cultural distinctions that affect the validity of research results. Therefore, the generalization of the findings should be taken with due consideration.

In terms of the variables presented, the researcher posits that leadership and job satisfaction potentially affect organizational commitment. Within the scope of interest, attention is given to the independent variables of four leadership styles;

namely, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, servant leadership, and laissez-faire leadership, as well as job satisfaction level. Although the researcher takes into account control variables of years of service and limitation of employment alternatives, it should be noted that there are yet some other factors lying beyond the scope of the present research that would result in commitment variation. The determinants are likely to involve the organizational level, organizational climate, organizational culture, relationship in the workplace, and organizational politics. Nevertheless, rather than delving into what constitutes commitment or commitment antecedents, the researcher would like to explore, in-depth, leadership and identify the leadership style that brings about effective outcomes in terms of organizational commitment and satisfaction cultivation. Though the study is not intended to deliberately display a model of all of the factors leading to commitment, it does offer benefits regarding the theoretical foundation of leadership and a practical guideline for desirable leadership attributes for executives and supervisors in community hospitals. Future research may be considered to extend the scope and surpass the limitations of the present study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The chapter is aimed at clarifying the key concepts and relationships among organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and leadership styles, which will be explored in the present research. A model of analysis is to be proposed upon a review of previous literature. At this stage, the researcher deemed it expedient to briefly discuss a history of community hospitals and organizational behavior as the context and theoretical foundation of the present study.

2.1 Community Hospitals

According to the Medical Premises Act B.E.2541, a hospital is a healthcare institution that provides facilities and treatment for day-case and overnight patients with at least 30 beds and services consisting of medicine, nursing, pharmacy, and technological medicine. Other common supporting units include dentistry and specific therapeutic disease treatment.

Hospitals are generally classified into 2 categories: general hospitals established to deal with disease and injury in at least four major areas, namely internal medicine, surgery, pediatric and gynecology, and specialized hospitals dealing with specific medical needs.

2.1.1 Definition of Community Hospitals

The Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Public Health defines community hospitals as medical institutions under the Provincial Public Health Office with 150 beds or fewer providing integrated healthcare services and taking part in community development. A community hospital is responsible for the population of approximately

10,000 located within the identifiable district boundary. A community hospital director is the organizational leader (Dujsadee Choptumdee, 2004: 11; Maneerat Sangdouen, 1999: 11).

According to Piyathida Tridech (1997: 18), a community hospital refers to a hospital operated at a district level, under the line of command of the Provincial Public Health Office, having a physician as the director. The number of beds ranges from 10-120 (not over 150). It was originally called a district (Amphur) hospital.

Based on the previous two definitions, Dujsadee Choptumdee (2004: 11) concludes that community hospitals offer medical services at the district level for both inpatients and outpatients, with the number of beds ranging from 10-120, but not over 150.

The present researcher defines a community hospital as a public healthcare organization targeted at providing treatment for community residents, with the number of beds from 10 to 150 at the maximum.

2.1.2 The History of Community Hospitals

At the very beginning, community hospitals were merely health stations (Suksala) with a medical assistant staff (Dujsadee Choptumdee, 2004: 11; Maneerat Sangdouen, 1999: 12). The health stations in 1937 were shifted in administrative status to a level-1 health center. Physicians were assigned to be in charge of full-time staff in certain districts acting as district health officers subordinate to district officers. Later, in order to allow for flexibility in operation, the health centers were transferred to be under the Provincial Public Healthcare Office and subsequently transformed into district hospitals in response to increasing workload and demand for medical services in rural areas. As stipulated in the 5th National Health Development Plan, the name was changed from district (Amphur) hospital to community hospital.

2.1.3 Responsibilities of Community Hospitals

Community hospitals can be categorized into different sizes based on the number of beds: 10-30, 60, 90 and 120 (The National Health Association of Thailand, 1997: 40). According to the name lists of public health centers under the Permanent Secretary, the Ministry of Public Health, the number of community hospitals is 736 in

total, 139 of which are located in the central part of Thailand (Bureau of Health Service System Development, 2010: 1).

The responsibilities and duties of community hospitals are to provide integrated health services, knowledge, and basic healthcare. Serving residents in a specified area, community hospitals are primarily concerned with mother and child care, family planning, nutrition, dentistry and health education, disease control and prevention, autopsy, referral, and community sanitation. The hospitals also arrange educational training for hospital personnel, students, external organizations, volunteers, and the public at large, and conduct academic research on public health education and offer advice to relevant agencies. Community development is another major focus, as the hospitals generally facilitate resources in terms of workforce, supplies, and information to support basic healthcare projects at village, sub-district (Tumbol), and district levels.

2.1.4 Community Hospitals: Nature and Observation

Community hospitals work in line with the universal healthcare policy, stressing equal rights in acquiring standardized public healthcare endorsed in the constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand, B.E. 2540. Under the All for Health and Health for All rationale, health is defined as a holistic integration of physical, mental, social, and spiritual wellbeing. An objective of healthcare service is to promote living quality which encapsulates not only medical treatment, but also health promotion. People are entitled to fair and accessible healthcare service. In order to reflect the philosophy in practice, several schemes have been initiated, including the 30 baht health care scheme wherein service recipients pay 30 baht per visit. Therefore, patients and those using community and public hospital services generally belong to the low or middle to low income range. The scheme has been enacted since 2002 under Prime Minister Thaksin Shinawatra's administration. His Thai Rak Thai (TRT) political party approached the mass a 3-point program comprising an agrarian debt moratorium, a 30 baht healthcare scheme, and a one million baht village fund.

With health reform in Thailand, community hospitals are also directed towards quality accreditation, creation of a supportive environment, life skill development, and community mobilization. Community hospitals take part in strengthening primary

care units, raising awareness of health-related issues so that people in communities can rely on themselves for personal care, and contributing vitally to community development and adopting a proactive strategy that fits community conditions. Thus, a challenge for community hospitals is to stimulate quality service delivery, as well as to recognize community health needs. In order to achieve the expected outcomes, result-based management has been utilized aligning strategic planning with the workforce and with vision. Community hospitals are designed to fulfill each community's healthcare needs in a single service system with integrated healthcare service and at an optimal size. In this regard, it is convenient for people to access healthcare services that are close to them. The job of community hospitals is to reinforce community participation in drafting policy that accommodates local conditions and constraints, establishing health-promoting clubs, as well as delivering opinions for further improvement in hospital administration and evaluation.

2.2 Organizational Behavior

Studies of the organization can be classified into two different categories: organization theory (OT) and organization behavior (OB). Daft (1995: 5-10) characterizes organization theory as a way of thinking about organizations with a primacy given to the whole, rather than an individual. The theories explore the system, structure, interaction between organizations and external environment, as well as interorganizational relationships. His conceptualization is consistent with that of Robbins (1993: 7), who stated that organization theory (OT) is concerned with "the overall organization's ability to adapt and achieve its goals; in other words, OT is the study of organizational structure, processes and outcomes." In this sense, it can be concluded that organization theory offers insight at the macro level into structural arrangement, design, and performance effectiveness. On the other hand, according to Ott (1996: 1), organizational behavior examines the micro level of individuals and groups existing within an organization. Topics of discussion comprise motivation studies, leadership, personality, job satisfaction, and stress. Significant questions have been posed in the field of OB as follows (Borkowski, 2009: 3):

- 1) Why do people behave the way they do when they are in organizations?
- 2) Under what circumstances will people's behavior in organizations change?
- 3) What impacts do organizations have on the behavior of individuals, formal groups (such as departments), and informal groups (such as people from several departments who meet regularly in the company's lunchroom)?
- 4) Why do different groups in the same organization develop different behavior and norms?

Organizational behavior, in this regard, emphasizes individuals and different groups existing formally and informally within organizations, with a designated objective of explaining present acts, predicting future behaviors, and motivating employees to accomplish organizational goals. Individual and group dynamics in an organizational setting is a major focus of OB. A recognition of differences in personal acts, demands, and expectations is vital to gear organizations, as collective units, towards effectiveness. The researcher would argue that the development of organizational behavior is tied to a certain extent with organization theory.

According to Scott (1990: 7-14), organization theory can be classified into different perspectives. Two conflicting perspectives will be discussed here. First, a rational system defines organizations as "collectivities oriented to the pursuit of relatively specific goals. They are purposeful in the sense that the activities and interactions of participants are coordinated to achieve specified goals..." (Scott, 1990: 26). The rational perspective therefore is characterized by goal specificity, and formalized structure and control, so as to reach the utmost efficiency and optimization. Taylor (1960: 65) proposed the concept of scientific management, which argues for one best way in management and administration through a search and development of science to replace the workmen. Another widely discussed topic is administrative theories in which management at all levels and units are subject to universal principles, including division of work, authority which corresponds to the level of responsibility, discipline, unity of command, and unity of direction and line of command. The rational perspective is demonstrated as well in Weber's bureaucratic model, with a clearly-defined division of labor and authority, a hierarchical structure of offices, written guidelines prescribing performance criteria, promotion based on achievement, and authority attached to positions (Robbins, 1993: 131). In a nutshell,

the rational system is grounded upon the assumption that human beings are economic man who advances any action for financial rewards and benefits. Like a machine, organizations are operated within a closed system and follow a standardized procedure, with primary concern for “how to design and manage work in order to increase productivity and help organizations attain maximum efficiency” (Daft, 1995: 24).

The rational system was predominant from 1900-1930. However, its fundamental assumptions have been attacked and rebutted. The Hawthorne studies under the natural system contend that rational theorists are projected to structure and control, but neglect the human dimension or the hearts of organizational members. Natural scholars shed some light on organizational behavior and highlight the notion of goal complexity, within which lies a discrepancy between the stated and real goals of members. An organization contributes its resources to producing a product or services, as well as managing for organizational survival, in light of the different needs and demands of working members. In this regard, formality, rules, and regulations are not the only means to accomplish the goals. The concept that distinguishes the natural system from other theoretical approaches is that of the informal structure prevailing beyond formal authority. To illustrate, power may arise according to individual attributes, including knowledge and expertise, and alliances and social networks. Organizations, as a result, require the behavioral structure dealing with the logic of sentiments (Mayo, 1945: 72). The Hawthorne School reveals that psychological factors have a significant impact on the level of productivity (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1978: 32). Improved working conditions, such as an extension of the rest period, a decrease in work hours, meal provision, and employee consultation, according to the studies during that period, increased the level of productivity. The employees will be motivated as their ego and self-actualization needs are satisfied. Their attitudes stem from their repertoire and social background, in couple with satisfaction derived from work and personal relationships. Moreover, under the natural paradigm is Chester Barnard, who conceptualizes organizations as cooperative systems bringing people together to achieve goals through coordination, cooperation, and communication.

Another development of OB is McGregor’s Theory X and Y. Ott (1996: 28) suggests that the theory “is a cogent articulation of the basic assumptions of the

organizational behavior perspective.” Theory X views employees as lazy, procrastinating, and irresponsible. They require close control, monitoring, and an autocratic style of management. Theory Y, on the other hand, describes people as enthusiastic and creative beings. They are eager to exchange their opinions and empower themselves for self-advancement. Motivation, commitment, and leadership are the subjects of discussion in OB (Borkowski, 2009: 4).

2.3 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is one of the issues of consideration in organization behavior which plays an extensive role in human resource management and development. Commitment is described as “the sense of being bound emotionally or intellectually to some course of action” (Padala, 2011: 18). Organizational commitment is a positive attitude and attachment to an organization. The term is used interchangeably with employee engagement (MacCashland, 1999: 15). According to Surussawadee Suwannavej (2006: 10), commitment has been generally mentioned in academic work prior to 1990. But, later, employee engagement has been adopted instead. The shift from commitment to engagement is well documented by Pichit Pitaktepsombat et al. (2009: 175) and Rittiwat Tangklang (2009: 7), as the research trend focuses on business enterprises emphasizing how to draw employees into tasks and organizational goals. The present researcher concludes that organizational commitment and employee engagement today share similar meanings, although the origin of employee engagement can be traced to Khan (1990: 692), who has argued at the very beginning that the concept is a multidimensional construct designating emotional and cognitive engagement distinguished from commitment and motivation. Commitment will be used in this research to reflect the valence given to organizations in the public sector. Next, the researcher will discuss the role of organizational commitment, definitions, related theories, and conceptual measurement.

2.3.1 Commitment as a Key to Organizations’ Performance

Organizational commitment has remained a matter of academic interest since the early 1950s, with Mary Parker Follett being the first management theorist to

mentioned individuals' loyalty to organizations, stressing the role of human relations, coordination, and employee engagement in decision making in effective management (Chiyanant Panyasiri, 2008: 10-11). Barnard (1938: 80) also proposed an alignment of employees' purposes and organizational goals, which can somewhat be translated into the concept of commitment. An organization is "a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons" in which communication and rewards are expected to satisfy individual needs (Barnard, 1938: 81). Upon this basis, commitment fostering is deemed as an exchange because it is essential for organizations to meet personal demands and obtain a feeling of commitment in return. Philip Selznick, according to Chiyanant Panyasiri (2008: 11), is one of the earliest scholars that referred to the term "commitment" in discussing cooperative systems within the informal structure. Thus, the subject is tightly coupled with the school of human relations, emphasizing relationships and emotional attributes, aside from efficiency and task orientation.

In the twenty-first century, the existence of modern organizations are inextricably linked with rapid changes, mobile arrangement, and decreasing personal contacts. However, organizational commitment is regarded as one of the essences in organizational research, as a manifestation of the concept delivers positive consequences, including a higher retention rate, pro-organizational behaviors for both in-role, and extra-role aspects and employee wellbeing (Supamas Trivisavavet, 2004: 4). Buchanan (1974: 533) argues that a committed employee attaches himself or herself to the organization, contributes to his or her work, and aligns his or her personal goals with organizational values. In the same vein, Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974: 603) propose the significance of organizational commitment in cultivating a willingness to exert considerable effort, accept organizational values, and maintain organizational leadership. Organizational commitment therefore forms a linkage with performance effectiveness, job satisfaction, personal attitudes, as well as responsibility, all of which would potentially lead to organizational effectiveness (Bateman and Strasser, 1984: 97).

Effectiveness and efficiency are the two common terms which have been interchangeably used in organizational contexts. There are, however, certain distinctions. As Haiman and Scott (1970: 429) mentions, effectiveness refers to

performance which encompasses the highest output and quality. In other words, goal attainment with respect to both quality and quantity is a crucial characteristic of effectiveness. Efficiency, in contrast, emphasizes the maximization of resources use. As a result, it is possible that a sole focus on efficiency reduces the extent of effectiveness within an organization. Effectiveness is interpreted as an accomplishment of goals or objectives, rather than taking into account the input and cost concerned. Etzioni (1960: 257) defined effectiveness as the degree of goal achievement, which was more or less congruent with Steer (1991: 302), who expressed the idea that effectiveness is the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements of his position. In explaining the relationship between commitment and organizational effectiveness, Katz (1964: 131) described three types of member behaviors. First, employees are induced to remain and participate. The two others consist of dependent role behaviors prescribed by organizations and spontaneous innovative behaviors derived from creativity beyond mundane operational issues. Yet, organizational effectiveness is multidimensional and dependent on several determinants, such as organizational design, structural prerequisites, and a fit with the external environment (Angle and Perry, 1981: 2).

The role of commitment is explored by Thai scholars as well. Pichit Pitaktepsombat et al. (2009: 158) discuss the notion that organizational commitment is a factor in: (1) predicting turnover rate with a high level representing employee retention, (2) driving individual performance due to an aspiration for collective success, (3) linking personal and organizational goals based on a willingness to comply with a policy, (4) increasing employees' contribution, and (5) explaining organizational effectiveness. Pornranee Mahanon (1986: 97) also describes a connection between personal attributes and organizational effectiveness as a feeling of attachment, implying a compliance with organizational goals, values, activities, and assignments. Employees perceive jobs and task accomplishment as a means to fulfill organizational requirements. They advance their effort to meet and even go beyond performance expectations. Apart from increasing the employees' morale, Wilawan Rapeepisan (2007: 261) mentions that commitment creates a favorable atmosphere of confidence, cooperation, teamwork, and friendliness.

As organizational commitment forms a close linkage with organizational performance and effectiveness, ignoring commitment is costly (Supamas Trivisavavet, 2004: 4). A lack of commitment results in increased absenteeism, turnover rates, job-related stress, and displeasure. The negative consequences can also be found with respect to job performance, adherence to organizational policy, and attendance and employees' morale.

In a survey of more than 50,000 employees in 30 countries, the Corporate Leadership Council assessed organizational commitment level through four sets of questions: rational commitment, emotional commitment, discretionary effort, and intent to stay. The model divided organizational commitment into rational and emotional facets, both having an effect on discretionary effort and intent to stay. Effort and intent result in job performance and retention, respectively.

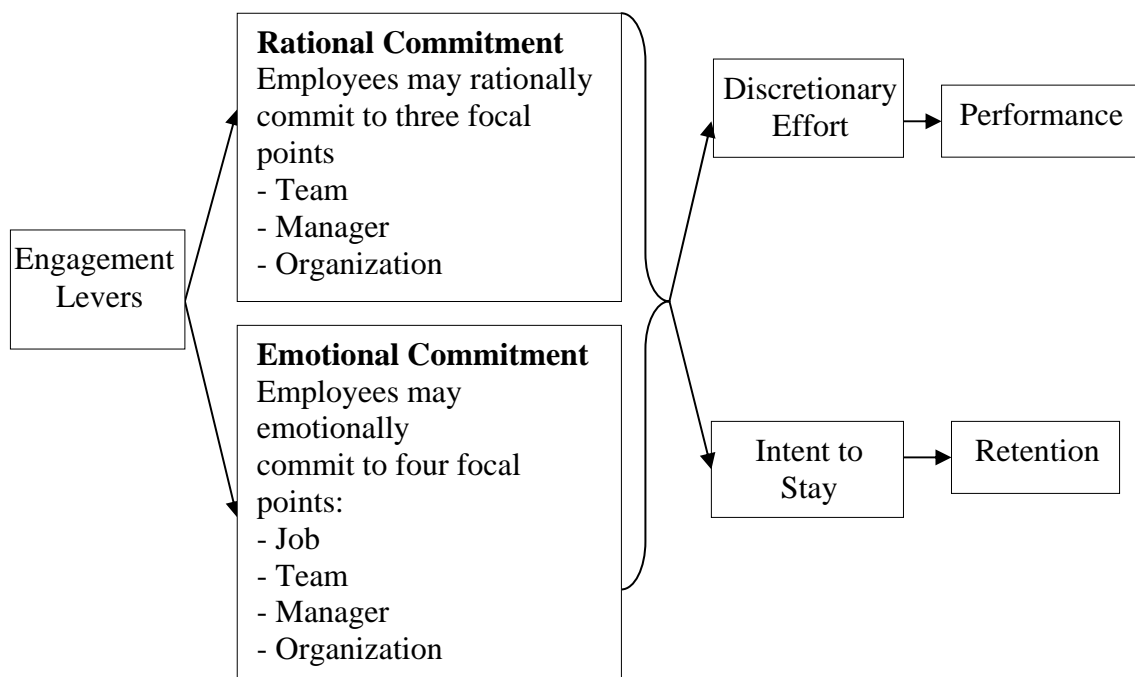


Figure 2.1 Corporate Leadership Council (2004) Model

Source: Corporate Leadership Council, 2004.

Likewise, the Gallup organization as a business consultant constructs the Gallup Path to help its clients visualize an integrated approach to business operation

(Coffman and Gonzalez-Molina, 2002: 229). In the path, there is no particular emphasis on any single stage—all are equally important and shift organizational performance to a higher level. The model explains how employees add value to organizations. However, the end result primarily takes into account financial gain with an increase in stock prices as an indicator.

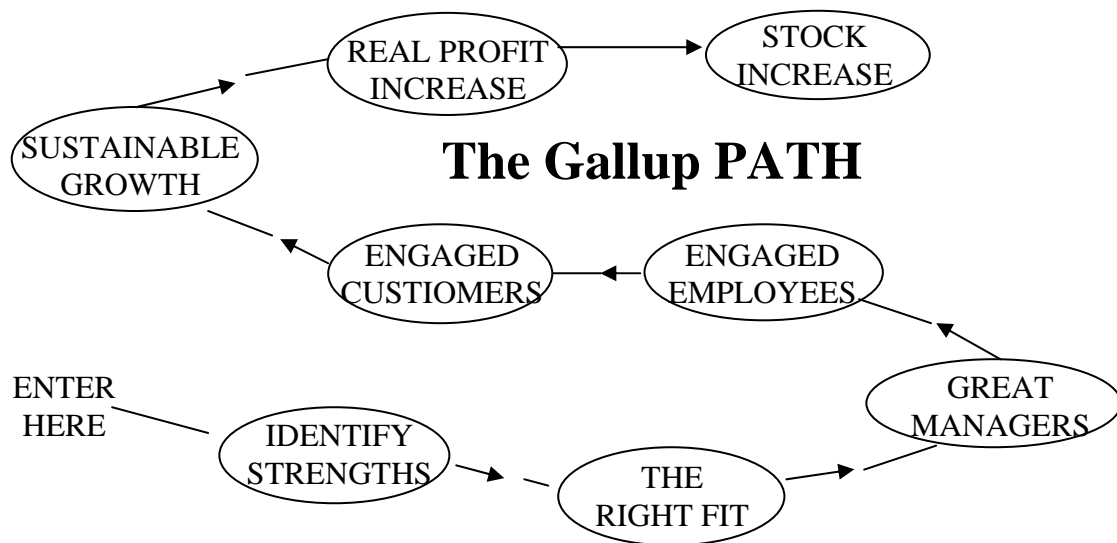


Figure 2.2 The Gallup Organization's (2000) Model

Source: The Gallup Organization, 2000.

There is a need for organizations to identify the strength and competency of employees with tasks for the right fit. Management has to fulfill employees' demands and heighten organizational commitment so that employees devote themselves. With satisfaction with performance and quality service, customers are engaged and inextricably linked with profit and sustainable growth. An increase in share price reflects an upward trend of business operation. The Corporate Leadership Council and the Gallup Path are somewhat similar with respect to the idea that leaders are one of the major factors that drive commitment.

The present researcher therefore concludes that organizational commitment has a positive impact on individual attitude and organizational attachment. The affective attributes are later transformed into impacts at the organizational level, such as tenure, quality, goal accomplishment, and effectiveness.

2.3.2 Definitions of Organizational Commitment

The term organizational commitment was defined by Kanter (1968: 499) as “the willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to social systems, the attachment of personality systems to social relations that are seen as self-expressive.” Other definitions include those of Bateman and Strasser (1984: 97) and Porter et al. (1974: 603-609). According to Batemen and Strasser (1984: 97), organizational commitment is “multidimensional in nature, involving an employee’s loyalty to the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, degree of goal and value congruency with the organization and desire to maintain membership.” Positive attitudes toward organizations and their goals are also an element highlighted in Sheldon (1971: 143-150), who defined commitment as a belief, a willingness to contribute, and a desire to remain as a member. Likewise, Porter et al. (1974: 603-609) proposed three factors underlying organizational commitment, consisting of a strong belief in and acceptance of organizations’ goals, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a definite desire to maintain organizational membership. Organization commitment can thereby be characterized as a bond between an employee and employer or an organization itself.

In Meyer and Allen’s (1991: 61-89) view, a committed employee is one that stays with an organization, attends work regularly, and works a full day. They further specified three types of organizational commitment: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Affective commitment is an emotional attachment and a sense of having one’s self involved in organizational goals. Continuance commitment is associated with alternative job prospects and the costs of leaving the organization. With continuance commitment, one is willing to remain in the organization because the cost of leaving is too high. Such costs comprise years of employment, personal relationship, and retirement benefits or any other special benefits attached to the organization. Normative commitment is the feeling of obligation to remain in an organization, which might result from normative pressures exerted on an individual even prior to entry into the workplace. All types of organizational commitment are a psychological aspect that identifies the relationship between an employee and organization and entails whether the employee is going to remain or continue with the organization. Various definitions of organizational commitment proposed by scholars are presented as follows.

Table 2.1 Definitions of Organizational Commitment

Authors	Definition
Allutto (1973)	the unwillingness to leave the organization for increments in pay, status, or professional freedom or for greater colleagueship
Baron (1986)	the extent to which an individual identifies with and is involved with his or her organization
The Blackwell Encyclopedia of Management (1995)	Organizational commitment is concerned with the level of attachment and loyalty to an organization among its employees.
Buchanan (1974)	partisan attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake
Curry et al. (1986)	the extent to which an employee identifies with and is involved with an organization
Dyers (1988)	employees' level of attachment and identifying oneself with the goals of the organization
Firestone and Pennell (1993)	an additive function of two constructs: organization identification and job involvement
George and Gareth (1996)	the collection of feelings and of people toward their organization as a whole
Herbert (1976)	an alignment of one's behavior with organizational goals to the level at which he/she is able to sacrifice their personal demands

Table 2.1 (Continued)

Authors	Definition
Hrebiniak and Alluto (1968)	an unwillingness to leave an organization for higher status, payment and professional autonomy
Kanter (1968)	the willingness of social actors to give energy and loyalty to the organization
Mathis and Jackson (2007)	the degree to which employees believe in and accept organizational goals and desire to remain with the organization
Northcraft and Neale (1996)	an attitude reflecting a member's loyalty to an organization and an ongoing process in which a member express his/ her concern about the organization's future
Ornstein (1986)	organizational commitment as one's loyalty to an employing organization
Porter, Steers, and Boulian (1974)	the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization
Porter et al. (2004)	the identification with an organization and acceptance of its goal and values as one's own
Reichers and Schneider (1990)	a process of identification with the goals of an organization's multiple constituencies. These constituencies may include top management, customers, unions, and/or the public at large.
Salancik (1977)	a state of being in which an individual becomes bounded by his/her actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his/her own involvement

Table 2.1 (Continued)

Authors	Definition
Sheldon (1971)	positive evaluation of the organization and the intention to work toward its goals
Steers and Porter (1991)	an individual psychological bond to the organization, including a sense of job involvement, loyalty, and a belief in the values of the organization
Yukl (1994)	an outcome in which a person makes a great effort to carry out the request or implement the decision effectively

Source: Adapted from Chaiyanant Panyasiri, 2008.

To summarize, the definitions all share common themes.

1) Commitment is a feeling, an attachment, a tie, an attitude, and a psychological bond.

2) Referred to as organizational commitment, it occurs between individuals and organizations in which one is located.

3) Commitment is based on an exposure to the organization and is a cumulative experience.

Organizational commitment is also discussed in terms of engagement. Sterlloff (2003 quoted in Sulwana Hasanee, 2007: 8) regards organizational engagement as the emotional and rational aspects concerned with one's job and organization which are expressed through behavioral characteristics. These are: (1) to say: a positive verbal reference towards his/ her organization, (2) to stay: a desire to remain as a member of an organization despite being granted a special offer and employment opportunities by others, and (3) to serve: a willingness to exert considerable effort and support for the organization's success. This idea is congruent with that of Hewitt Associates (2003: 9), who explain organizational engagement in the sense of emotional and intellectual involvement lying beyond job satisfaction. The

behaviors of high commitment are to stay, to say, and to strive for productivity and quality service. Welbourne (2007: 45) emphasizes activities which are transformed into behaviors in routine and non-routine operation. The Gallup Organization (2000: 15) focuses on engagement in business contexts and associates engagement with enthusiasm in work which potentially increases productivity, prospective customers, and profit. According to Sulwana Hasanee (2007: 11), engagement and commitment share similar meanings as one can be used to replace the other.

It can be concluded that commitment is a positive attitude, a belief, willingness, and a desire that foster an attachment between individuals and their organizations. The present researcher therefore defines commitment as a psychological aspect that identifies the relationship between an employee and an organization and entails whether the employee is going to remain or continue with the organization.

2.3.3 Approaches and Theories of Organizational Commitment

Definitions of organizational commitment vary due to the approaches that scholars adhere to. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979: 227), for example, have categorized the study of organizational commitment into two approaches: attitudinal and behavioral approaches. In the attitudinal approach, commitment is perceived as cognitive and affective responses, intention, attachment, and individual identification with an organization. Hall, Schneider, and Nygren (1970: 176) further point out common attitudinal characteristics including a strong belief, a willingness to contribute, and desire to maintain organizational membership.

The behavioral approach, on the other hand, posits that organizational commitment is an overt manifestation. According to Zangaro (2001: 16), an employee continues organizational membership as changes involve both financial and non-financial costs, such as time, training skills, personal relationship, and other fringe benefits. The approach is based upon Becker's (1960: 32) side-bet theory. Whether the employee will stay with the organization is determined through an evaluation of costs that might occur following a decision to discontinue his/her present employment. Barnard (1938: 6) also perceives an organization as a cooperative system grounded upon goal congruence. Employees are willing to exert their effort as long as they realize the shared goals and rewards given when the requirement is

fulfilled. Vroom's (1994: 122) expectancy theory is established on the idea of an exchange between performance and expected rewards or outcomes. The theories, as well as neo-economic theory, looks at commitment as a rational decision. In this regard, commitment is conceptualized in terms of calculated costs and profits. Scholl (1981: 589) differentiates the notion of attitudinal and behavioral commitment, as the former highlights a sense of belonging and engagement, while the latter proposes investment on a conceptual basis.

Nevertheless, other scholars set forth four main approaches to organizational commitment. Apart from attitudinal and behavioral aspects, there exist two others: the normative and multi-dimensional approaches. The normative approach argues for the alignment between personal and organizational goals which establish a tie and obligation upon the totality of internationalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests (Weiner, 1982: 421). Finally, the multi-dimensional perspective claims for the complexity, as well as presence, of attachment, costs, and obligations. Therefore, organizational commitment is a multi-dimensional construct which cannot be subsumed into merely a single facet of interpretation. Kelman (1958: 53) is cited as one of the earliest in mentioning the multidimensional nature of organizational commitment involving compliance, identification, and internalization. His perspective is similar to that of O'Reilly and Chatman (1986: 492). Compliance is rather an expectation to obtain specific rewards from organizations than emotional engagement. Identification is concerned with relationships and desire. Internalization takes place when personal and organizational values are congruent.

Etzioni (1961: 86) also supports the multidimensional view of commitment. His three dimensions of the concept include moral, calculative, and alienative involvement. He refers to commitment as a kind of involvement, which ranges from a positive to negative array. The term "commitment" designates the positive end of a continuum, whereas alienation demonstrates the other negative end which arises when an individual realizes his or her lack of control and inability to change the existing environment. Moral involvement, on the other hand, associates commitment with obligation, internalization, and identification with organizational goals. Calculative involvement assumes an influence of rewards and inducement in enhancing the level of commitment.

The notion of multidimensionality is reflected as well in Meyer and Allen's (1997: 13) three component model of commitment, consisting of continuance, affective, and normative dimensions, as described in the previous section, raising a critical reexamination of organizational commitment.

Table 2.2 Summary of Meyer and Allen's Dimension of Commitment

Dimensions	Key Ideas
Affective Commitment	"I want to stay with the organization because of emotional attachment."
Continuance Commitment	"I need to remain with the organization because staying is worth it in terms of cost and benefit."
Normative Commitment	"I ought to remain with the organization because of the moral obligation and social expectation."

Source: Meyer and Allen, 1991, 1997.

Affective commitment is the identification, emotional attachment, and involvement that are formed between members and their organizations. According to Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979: 225), affective commitment is developed "when the employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals in order to maintain membership to facilitate the goal." This feeling is closely connected with willingness, desire for, and a belief in organizational values. The antecedents of affective commitment are classified into four types: (1) personal characteristics or demographic variables, (2) structural or organizational characteristics, especially the decentralization of decision making, (3) job-related characteristics, and (4) work experiences.

Continuance commitment is an awareness of the costs and benefits associated with leaving an organization. Employment incurs nontransferable investment involving seniority-based privileges, personal relationships, skills, years of service, and other benefits unique to each organization. Continuance commitment also occurs owing to a lack of employment alternatives. Members choose to remain in their present organizations since they need to do so.

Normative commitment is a feeling of moral obligation to remain in the workplace. Weiner (1982: 421) defines commitment as “the totality of internalized normative pressure to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests” and states that people choose to remain in their organizations because “they believe it is the right and moral thing to do.” Normative pressure is exerted on an individual prior to employment as a cultural orientation and after an entry as an organizational orientation. Organizations may offer rewards in advance, such as paying college tuitions or accruing substantial amounts of cost in hiring and training. Employees are bound by the norm of reciprocity by which they are expected to repay such offers through work and endeavor. The norm represents the social value of gratitude engendered in a process of socialization, which cannot be calculated in terms of cost or benefits.

Morrow (1993: 106) revises continuance and calculative, attitudinal, affective, and normative commitment and argues that “...at least two forms of organizational commitment exist: i) calculative-continuance and ii) attitudinal-affective.” Normative dimension is found to overlap with and is not able to be separated from attitudinal-affective commitment.

Table 2.3 Dimensions of Organizational Commitment within Multidimensional Models

Authors	Dimensions	Dimension Description
Angle and Perry (1981)	Value commitment	Commitment to support the goals of the organization
	Commitment to stay	Commitment to retain their organizational membership
O'Reilly and Chapman (1986)	Compliance	Instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards
	Identification	Attachment based on a desire for affiliation with the organization

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Authors	Dimensions	Dimension Description
	Internalization	Involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organizational values
Penley and Gould (1988)	Moral	Acceptance of and identification with organizational goals
	Calculative	A commitment to an organization which is based on the employee's receiving inducements to match contributions
	Alienative	Organizational attachment which results when an employee no longer perceives that there are rewards commensurate with investments; yet he or she remains due to environmental pressures
Meyer and Allen (1991)	Affective	The employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization
	Continuance	An awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization
	Normative	A feeling of obligation to

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Authors	Dimensions	Dimension Description
		continue employment
Mayer and Schoorman (1992)	Value	A belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization
	Continuance	The desire to remain a member of the organization
Jaros et al. (1993)	Affective	The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, pleasure, and so on
	Continuance	The degree to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of the high costs of leaving
	Moral	The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through internalization of its goals, values and missions

Source: Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Laka-Mathebula, 2004.

Through conceptual observation, the multidimensional stream points out a number of emergent dimensions and a combination of more than one driving forces that formulate organizational commitment. Commitment is represented as a psychological state or bond that encourages an employee to stay in the organization, to believe in organizational goals, and to exhibit an effort to strengthen organizational performance. According to Supamas Trivisvavet (2004: 42), the nature of commitment ranges from the highly rational exchange-based to socio-centric arguments.

Apparently, there is a consensus among scholars regarding at least two types of commitment. One is intangible, emotional, and affective, whereas the other is tangible, extrinsic, and rational. The candidates that have been proposed as the third dimension of commitment are internalization, suggesting congruency between organizational and individual goals, and normative commitment, referring to a cultural orientation that creates binding a member to his/her organization. The present researcher would argue that alienative commitment denotes a similar message to that of the normative dimension.

Weibo, Kaur, and Jun (2010: 18) offer a critical review of organizational commitment. The typology of the concept is classified chronologically into four periods: side-bet theory, affective dependence, multi-dimension, and new development. Predominant in 1960, side-bet theory conceptualizes commitment as a contract and economic exchange. The term side bets itself is “the accumulation of investments valued by the individuals.” (Weibo, Kaur and Jun, 2010: 13). The side bets that are taken into consideration are of 5 types: generalized cultural expectations, self-presentation concerns, impersonal bureaucratic arrangements, individual adjustments to social positions, and non-work concerns (Becker, 1960 quoted in Powell and Meyer, 2004: 158-159). Thus, expectations have been laid towards organizational culture, presentation of self-image, employment policy, adjustment to work environment, and non-work issues, including interpersonal relationships.

The second period is affective dependence, emphasizing the psychological attachment, willingness, belief and desire to maintain organizational membership proposed by Porter et al. (1974: 603). In this regard, the affective dependence approach reflects a shift from the economic motive to an emotional and intangible facet of commitment.

The third is the multi-dimensional period, which designates a departure from a mere focus on one dimension of either financial or emotional commitment to a combination of different approaches. O'Reilly and Chatman, as well as Meyer and Allen previously mentioned, are the scholars notable in this period. Since 1980, Meyer and Allen's commitment has been perceived as a leading center of research in the field that surpasses a uni-dimensional comprehension of the concept, whereby side bets and affective identification are redefined and labeled as affective and continuance dimensions, respectively. Normative commitment, suggesting a moral obligation that results in a binding force between employees and their organizations, is another new dimension later added into the paradigm. Each of the dimensions can vary in degree.

The current period is marked as new development, in which a time basis is taken into account. It should be noted that previous scholars, namely Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982: 49), also mentioned time as a factor leading to three stages of the organizational commitment process: the initial stage, early employment, and commitment during one's later career. The first two stages discuss whether employees will remain in certain organizations and develop commitment based on their experience with tasks. During the later period, the level of commitment increases rapidly due to emotional involvement, shared experience, increasing age, and decreasing career alternatives. More or less similarly, Porter et al. (1974: 603) classify commitment process into a period of organizational entry and organizational commitment. The first is when employees choose to stay or withdraw themselves, while the second entails the level of commitment of remaining members.

During the current period of new development, it seems however that time does not only determine the extent to which members are committed, but also distinguishes commitment dimensions. Cohen (2003: 336) establishes a two-dimensional theory, stating that commitment should be divided into two types: instrumental and normative commitments that exist prior to entry into organizations. The pre-entry stage is an attitude or a commitment propensity as an inclination to be committed. Instrumental commitment propensity is rooted in personal expectations of exchange and benefits, while normative commitment propensity is a moral obligation derived from past experience and socialization binding an individual to an organization. The post entry will have a behavioral impact. The instrumental

commitment propensity is transformed into instrumental commitment after perceiving an actual quality of exchange. Normative commitment propensity is developed into a psychological attachment with an affective basis. The argument thus justifies the high correlation between normative and affective dimensions of commitment. The instrumental aspect is a low level of commitment representing an economic transaction, whereas the normative/affective types represent a high level of spiritual affiliation. Time is a criterion distinguishing commitment dimensions. Somer (2009: 75) proposes that neither of the commitment dimensions is clear-cut and that they somewhat overlap. He observes a combined influence and hypothesizes eight commitment profiles; namely, highly committed, affective dominant, continuance dominant, normative dominant, affective-continuance dominant, affective-normative dominant, continuance-normative dominant, and uncommitted styles. Hence, commitment is rather too complex to be measured clearly.

Commitment therefore denotes different definitions and dimensions among researchers. The concept can be treated affectively, behaviorally, and culturally. Yet, it is unanimously agreed that high level of commitment has a positive impact in terms of performance. A committed employee tries his/her best and further forms an attachment, which constitutes an even higher level of commitment as time passes. It can be concluded accordingly that years of service are found to have a positive relationship with commitment. The proposition can also be justified in the sense that employees that work for a long-term period tend to develop shared feelings regarding the organization's history and future. Their job opportunities decrease, while financial and non-financial forms of investment are added up. In Meyer and Allen's (1997: 43) words, it is "possible that employees need to acquire a certain amount of experience to become strongly attached to it, or that long-service employees retrospectively develop an attachment to the organization."

2.3.4 Measuring Commitment

Various instruments have been developed to capture the different perspectives on the essence of organizational commitment. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979: 224-247) constructed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) with 15 items to assess the level of personal contribution, loyalty, and agreement between individual and organizational goals, as well as the concern over the future of an

organization, with a seven-point Likert Scale of Strongly Agree, Moderately Agree, a Little Bit Agree, Not Sure, Disagree a Little Bit, Moderately Agree, and Not Agree at All. Nonetheless, the instrument is subject to scrutiny as it is unable to identify different dimensions of commitment and suggests merely whether an employee commits to an organization at all. In order to encompass multidimensionality, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986: 493) established a scale with items rating compliance, identification, and internalization, but encountered a difficulty in differentiating identification and internalization. The two reveal a significantly high correlation. Later in the 1990s, Meyer and Allen (1991: 61) proposed a scale to measure organizational commitment which encapsulated their theoretical framework of affective, continuance, and normative dimensions with initially 24 items and 18 items in a final revised version after a test and retest for reliability. In a survey, the subjects are requested to rate their agreement with items that touch upon each dimension of commitment.

Table 2.4 Samples of Meyer and Allen's Questionnaire Items

Dimensions	Statements
Affective Commitment	-I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization. -I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization (reversed score question)
Continuance Commitment	-It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. -Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
Normative Commitment	-Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now. -I do not feel any obligation to my organization. (reversed score question)

Source: Meyer and Allen, 1997.

To conclude, items on affective commitment measure the identification, emotional attachment, and involvement that are formed between members and their organizations, while those on continuance commitment assess an awareness of the costs and benefits associated with leaving an organization. Normative commitment seeks to investigate a feeling of moral obligation to remain in a workplace, as it is possible for one to remain in an organization because he or she believe it is the right thing to do. The scale has obtained cross-cultural support and has been recognized as of the prominent measurement tool, although in Meyer and Allen's (1997: 123) words, "the construct validity is of course an ongoing process" since the affective and normative dimensions overlap and correlate to a certain extent.

Apart from commitment, there are other two variables explored in the present research. These include leadership and job satisfaction, which are found to have an influence on organizational commitment and therefore become the subjects as the determinants of the study. The definitions, related theories, and measurement will be reviewed for development of the conceptual framework.

2.4 Leadership

A leader is an individual that provides guidance and future direction for others. As leaders are subjects having multiple stakeholders and spheres of influence, the study of leadership is multidisciplinary in its nature, with historical roots in sociology, anthropology, psychology, humanities, politics, and education. In general, the term encompasses a position, person, behavior, and process. Leadership study has been developed over time to deal with different characteristics, frameworks, antecedents, styles, and contexts. Like other concepts in social science, new theories have been established to explain a variation of phenomena, settings, as well as changes due to internal and external factors. Modern leadership theoretical frameworks offer a systematic explanation to fulfill the growing body of research and overcome conceptual weaknesses through a provision of sound justification. The ongoing pursuit of knowledge and understanding is significant for enriching the comprehension of leadership which has evolved in conjunction with social changes and globalization, whereby organizations are required to exercise a responsive action

in an uncertain environment. In order to capture discrepancies and areas of emphasis, there exist therefore several leadership theories; namely, traits theory, group and exchange theories, charismatic leadership, and path-goal theory.

In common, leadership theories focus on the role of leaders in an organization rather than the organization itself. Although there is no universally-agreed definition of leadership, all focus on the quality of an individual in accomplishing a predefined goal. Chemers (1997: 1) defines the term as “a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task”. The Department of the Army (1999: 1-2) adds that “leadership is influencing people—by providing purpose, direction and motivation—while operating to accomplish the mission and improving the organization.” Likewise, Northouse (2009 quoted in Gibbons, 2009: 253) states that leadership is “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.” There are other scholars that perceive the concept as an attribute rather than as a process. Leadership is defined by Bass and Stogdill (1990: 77) as “a working relationship among members in a group, in which the leader acquires status through active participation and demonstration of his or her capacity to carry cooperative tasks to completion” and by Robbins (1993 quoted in Yousef, 1998: 275) as “the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals.” According to Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961: 24), leadership is “interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals.” Through a review of the literature, the present researcher defines leadership in an organizational context as an ability, a process, a working relationship, and a set of activities in which an individual exerts interpersonal influence upon other members and moves from goal setting along a continuum to goal accomplishment.

Leadership theories today are characterized by situational uncertainty, with no one best way of leading, and a combination of task and human relation-oriented approaches. Hersey and Blanchard’s (1974: 1) situational model and Fieldler’s (1992: 301) contingency theory are similar in the sense that one leadership style may fit in one situation but not others. While the former discusses adaptive leadership styles, taking into account the nature of work, subordinates and resources, the latter looks at

how well leadership styles fit in different contexts. Leaders' behaviors are related to the leader-member relationship, and the nature of work and power. In times of crisis, assertive leaders will respond to problems in a timely manner. However, an assertive style will not work in cases where consultation and coordination are needed. The study of leadership has been projected into different subjects of emphasis which include traits, behaviors, situations, and styles. The present research will discuss leadership styles, regarding which Bass and his company are at the forefront in describing transactional and transformational styles of leadership.

2.4.1 Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Leadership theories also discuss how organizational members might be motivated to accomplish shared goals. Focusing on power influence, transactional leadership analyzes the role of rewards and punishment. In principle, transactional leaders often use management by exception. What exceeds the prerequisite standard will be rewarded. Punishment on the contrary is imposed on those that poorly perform or fail. Followers, in Bass and Steidmeier's (1999: 184) words, "are motivated by the leaders' praise, promises, and rewards, or corrected by negative feedback, reproof, threats, or disciplinary actions." According to Bass (1985: 15), transactional leadership is an exchange process in which leaders recognize followers' needs and attempt to reach their expectations, along with organizational goals.

However, transactional leadership with a capacity for success is not enough for being a good leader. According to Bryman (1992: 23), transformational leadership is part of a new leadership paradigm which encompasses values, ethics, and motivation. The style occurs when leaders "broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purpose and mission of the group, and when they stir their employees to look beyond their self-interest for the good of the group" (Bass, 1990: 21). The transformational behaviors are believed to augment the impact of transactional leadership on employee outcomes as "followers feel trust and respect toward the leader and they are motivated to do more than they are expected to do" (Yukl, 1989: 272). A transformational leader is defined as one committing people to action, converting followers into leaders, and having a capacity to convert himself/ herself into agents of change" (Bennis and Nanus, 1985:

3). This type of leader also looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower (Burns, 1978: 4). For MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich (2001: 116), the qualities representing transformational leadership involve "articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, providing individualized support and intellectual stimulation, and expressing high performance expectations." Therefore, the present researcher concludes that the remarkable characteristic of transformational leadership is its emphasis upon followers' personal needs, potentiality, and support existing beyond mundane task requirements.

The transactional model looks into the exchange between the subordinates and leaders in terms of discipline and incentives. Transformational leadership, however, goes further to discuss how leaders can influence organizations and society at large. As Bass (1985: 15-16) points out, "while both transactional and transformational leadership involve sensing followers' felt needs, it is the transformational leader who raises consciousness about higher considerations through articulation and role modeling." Transformational leaders develop vision, stimulate the need for achievement, act as a change agent, and mobilize support through cooperation. What distinguishes transformational leadership from other theories is the requirement of moral standards and maturity. The leaders are expected to carry out organizational and social commitment in an ethical manner. Transformational leadership is defined by Burn (1978: 20) as "a process where leaders and followers engage in a mutual process of raising one another to higher levels of morality and motivation." In order to cultivate trust and motivation, transformational leaders need to increase subordinates' awareness of the importance of a task, of the importance of performance, and of the necessity for personal development, which takes place along with organizational accomplishment. Tichy and Devanna (1986: 28-29) identify the characteristics of transformational leader as involving a capacity for being change agents, courage, a belief in people, value-driven perspective, lifelong learning, ability to deal with complexity and vision. Transformational leadership is compared to a three-act drama consisting of awakening an organization to the need for change and mobilizing the organization to create a blueprint for the future through an articulation of vision and reinforcing concerns to institutionalize the vision. Burns (1978: 4) differentiates transactional and transformational leadership, saying that:

The relations of most leaders and followers are transactional -- leaders approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another: jobs for votes, or subsidies for campaign contributions... Transforming leadership, while more complex, is more potent. The transforming leader recognizes and exploits the existing need or demand of a potential follower. But, beyond that, the transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to justify higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. The result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents.

Table 2.5 A Comparison between Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership
Emphasizing day-to-day activities and business needs	Emphasizing organizational change, new values, and vision towards the future that transcends the status quo
Built on directive power act, contractual agreement and contingent rewards based on goal accomplishment	Built on trust, motivation, and commitment
Attempts to satisfy the subordinates' self-interest through payment and promotion	Replaces self-interest with team spirit and collective purposes
Focuses on authority and the use of power	Focuses on moral values and ethics

Sources: Gellis, 2001; Barbuto, 2005; Cox, 2001; Crawford, Gould, and Scott, 2003.

During the past two decades, a number of scholars have attempted to provide a solid understanding of transformational leadership. In 1985, Bass developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) in an analysis of US army leaders. He proposed that the components of transformational leadership are: 1) charisma, 2)

individualized consideration, and 3) intellectual stimulation (Avolio, Bass and Jung, 1999: 444). Later in 1994, Bass and Avolio added another component—inspirational motivation. The four independent components were referred to as the 4I's (Four I's). The first component, charisma, could also be labeled as idealized influence.

Finally, Avolio, Bass, and Jung in 1999 re-explored the components of transformational leadership through an interview of US workers using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Charisma and inspirational motivation were reduced to one component, as the two were closely related. Therefore, the components of transformational leadership consist of three items: charismatic-inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. According to Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999: 444), leaders with charisma/inspirational quality "[provide] followers with a clear sense of purpose that is energizing, is a role model for ethical conduct and builds identification with the leader and his or her articulated vision," while intellectual stimulation "gets followers to question the tried and true ways of solving problems, and encourages them to question the methods they use to improve upon them;" individualized consideration "focuses on understanding the needs of each follower and works continuously to get them to develop to their full potential."

Based on the above definitions, it can be concluded first that charismatic-inspirational leadership is the way in which a transformational leader acts as a role model that influences and motivates his/her subordinates through the cultivation of faith, trust, respect and acceptance, ethical commitment, a communication of vision and future orientation, as well as an emphasis on teamwork. Second, intellectual stimulation is expressed through the encouragement of change, constructivism, a revision of traditional beliefs, and challenge. A transformational leader in this sense view problems as an opportunity and allows for creativity in solving the problem. Third, individualized consideration is the way in which a transformational leader pays attention to individual needs, talents, and personal development with an intention to promote higher level of achievement, appropriate treatments for subordinates, and an enthusiastic work atmosphere.

Transactional leadership, on the other hand, consists of contingent rewards and management by exception. A contingent reward "clarifies what is expected from followers and what they will receive if they meet expected levels of performance"

(Avolio, Bass, and Jung, 1999: 444-445). Management by exception can be either active or passive. Active management by exception takes place when a leader actively monitors performance to prevent potential mistakes and errors, while a passive management entails intervention only when deviations occur.

Sander, Hopkins, and Geroy (2003: 26) have proposed that transformational leadership is held to be more effective than transactional leadership. Gellis' (2001: 18) study of transformational leadership among social workers in US hospitals reveals the association of the concept with effort and performance at a higher level than that of transactional leadership. However, in Avolio, Bass and Jung's (1999: 441-462) view, transformational and transactional leadership might not be separated, but are inextricably linked. They supported the idea of the transactional and transformational leadership augmentation phenomenon, in which a leader may adopt a transformational style in one situation but a transactional style in others in order to achieve the desirable outcomes. In the researcher's view, Avolio, Bass, and Jung's (1999: 441-462) perception of a switching back and forth between transactional and transformational leadership to suit what the situations require reflects the essence of the contingency theory, in which management is situation-oriented.

2.4.2 Servant Leadership

Another style of leadership which takes precedence in modern organizational research is servant leadership, initiated by Greenleaf (1970: 4). In contrast with transactional and transformational leadership, which emphasizes organizational objectives and leaders as a cornerstone of the theories, servant leaders focus first on their followers. In Patterson's (2003: 5) words, "the followers are the primary concern and the organizational concerns are peripheral." According to Stone, Russell, and Patterson (2003: 356), "the motive of the servant leader's influence is not to direct others but rather to motivate and facilitate service and stewardship by the followers themselves." Greenleaf (1970: 4) describes servant leadership as a leader being servant in nature "with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first... to make sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served," while Laub (1999: 81) proposes a definition of "an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader." To define the

concept, one question has been raised on whether others around the servant-leader become wiser, freer, more autonomous, healthier, and better able themselves to become servants and whether the least privileged of the society be benefited or at least not further deprived?" (Gonzaga University and Robert K. Greenleaf Center, 2005: 7). Hence, servant leadership in the present research and organizational context is an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of members over the self-interest of the leader.

Servant leadership and transformational leadership are interrelated, as both frameworks incorporate trust, respect, vision, influence, individual orientation, communication, integrity, and empowerment. According to Bass (2000: 33), servant leadership is "close to the transformational components of inspiration and individualized consideration." Stone, Russell, and Patterson (2003: 4) even wonder whether transformational and servant leadership is in fact a single concept with different labellings. Nevertheless, researchers postulate servant leadership as a distinguished discipline, as the concept shifts the primary concern from organizations to followers. Graham (1991: 105) argues that the uniqueness of servant leadership lies in moral development, service, and enhancement of the common good. Bass (2000: 33) asserts the above proposition and further states that servant leadership is a logical extension of transformational leadership through its alignment of leaders and followers' motives. Sendjaya and Sarros (2002: 57) also views servant leaders as stewards that are entrusted to develop their followers to reach their fullest potential. Based on the review of literature, it was seen that servant leadership and transformational leadership are rooted upon a theoretical model of charismatic leaders. Charismatic leadership refers to "a special quality that enables the leader to mobilize and sustain activity within an organization through specific personal actions combined with perceived personal characteristics" (Nadler and Tushman, 1990: 82). Thus, there is a tendency for the two concepts to overlap. The major discrepancy is that servant leadership places its primacy on service, community, and societal betterment.

Table 2.6 Conceptual Differences of Servant and Transformational Leadership

Aspects of Consideration	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership
Nature of Theory	Normative	Normative
Role of leader	To serve followers	To inspire followers to pursue organizational goals
Role of follower	To become wiser, freer, more autonomous	To pursue organizational goals
Moral component	Explicit	Unspecified
Outcomes expected	Follower satisfaction, development, and commitment to service, societal betterment	Goal congruence; increased effort, satisfaction, and productivity, organizational gain
Individual level	Desire to serve	Desire to lead
Interpersonal level	Leader serves follower	Leader inspires follower
Group level	Leader serves group to meet members needs	Leader unites group to pursue group goals
Organizational level	Leader prepares organization to serve community	Leader inspires followers to pursue organizational goals
Societal level	Leader leaves a positive legacy for the betterment of society	Leader inspires nation or society to pursue articulated goals

Source: Adapted from Barbuto and Wheeler, 2002.

Research on servant leadership attempts to operationalize the concept through an identification of operational themes. A description is provided below.

Table 2.7 Operational Themes of Servant Leadership

Authors	Operational Themes of Servant Leadership
Graham (1991)	Inspirational, Moral
Buchen (1998)	Self-Identity, Capacity for Reciprocity, Relationship Builders, Preoccupation with the Future
Spears (1998)	Listening, Empathy, Healing, Awareness, Persuasion, Conceptualization, Foresight, Stewardship, Commitment to the Growth of People, Community Building
Farling, Stone, and Winston (1999)	Vision, Influence, Credibility, Trust, Service
Laub (1999)	Valuing People, Developing People, Building Community, Displaying Authenticity, Providing Leadership, Sharing Leadership
Russell (2001)	Vision, Credibility, Trust, Service, Modeling, Pioneering, Appreciation of Others, Empowerment
Patterson (2003)	Agapao Love, Humility, Altruism, Vision, Trust, Empowerment, Service

Source: Adapted from Sendjaya, 2003.

Barbuto and Wheeler (2006: 300) suggest adding the dimension, calling, into Spears' conceptualization of servant leadership. Calling, referred to interchangeably as altruism, is a desire to serve and the willingness to sacrifice self-interest for the

benefits of others. Through scale development and factor analysis, eleven potential servant leadership characteristics were reduced into five dimensions; namely, altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship.

Table 2.8 Summary of Barbuto and Wheeler's (2006) Servant Leadership Dimensions

Servant Leadership Dimensions	Descriptions
Altruistic Calling	A philanthropic determination to place others' interest over one's own and work to meet followers' needs. The dimension deals with compassion and altruistic love.
Emotional Healing	A leader's commitment to and skill in fostering spiritual recovery from hardship and trauma through empathy, listening, and facilitation of the healing process.
Wisdom	A combination of awareness of surroundings and anticipation of potential consequences
Persuasive Mapping	A leader uses sound reasoning and mental frameworks in envisioning and articulating the organizations' future and opportunities.
Organizational Stewardship	A leader contributes to society through community development, ethical practice, and social responsibility. He/she also works to develop community spirit in the workplace.

Source: Adapted from Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006.

Rather than projecting into one set of operationalizations, the present study combines different models, especially that of Spears (1998: 11), Patterson (2003: 5), and Barbuto and Wheeler (2006: 300). The questionnaire was developed to capture servant leadership aspects. Barbuto and Wheeler's (2006: 300) servant leadership dimensions are extended to incorporate humility and trust, as suggested in Patterson's (2003: 7) explanation. Murray (1982: 91) describes humility as "the blossom of which death to self is the perfect fruit." In other words, a humble leader is not interested in self-glorification, respects their followers, and acknowledges their contribution to the team. Trust in Nyhan's (2000: 87) definition encompasses the level of confidence and reliance a leader entrusts in his/ her followers.

Congruent with an extensive review of previous literature and operationalization development, the researcher hypothesizes that transformational and servant leadership are highly correlated due to their conceptual interconnectedness as Stone, Russell, and Patterson (2003: 353) remark: "Is servant leadership just a subset of transformational leadership or vice versa? Are transformational leadership and servant leadership the same theory, except for their use of different names?" Patterson (2003 quoted in Waddell, 2006: 1) similarly presents the theory of servant leadership as an extension of transformational leadership theory. Transformational and servant leadership encapsulate similar attributes: trust, respect, vision, influence, individual orientation, communication, integrity, and empowerment. Both reflect charismatic leadership theory in which leaders exercise a special personal quality to carry out organizational activities. An assumed high correlation suggests a conceptual overlapping of the two leadership types, which previous research has supported.

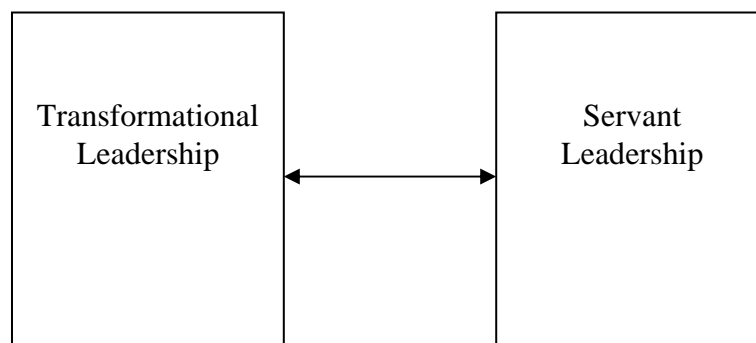


Figure 2.3 A High Correlation between Transformational and Servant Leadership

2.4.3 Laissez-faire Leadership

In contrast with transformational, transactional, and servant leadership, which explore the active role of leaders, nontransactional laissez-faire leadership is characterized by its passivity and reluctance to influence subordinates. A laissez-faire leader disregards supervisory duties, refuses to provide guidance and directions, and withdraws in times of need (Bass, 1990: 118). Barbuto (2005: 27) counts laissez-faire as the most inactive and least effective leadership style; a hands-off approach or even non-leadership, which allows subordinates to enjoy ultimate freedom in light of no control or assistance. The style is closely connected with management by exception, with the leaders intervening and providing corrective actions when deviations from procedural standards occur. However, for transactional leaders, management by exception is adopted with proactive assertion to monitor the subordinates' performance closely and to identify mistakes promptly as they arise. Rule compliance, negative reinforcement, reward, and focus are a focus to prevent potential risks and errors. Laissez-faire leadership, on the other hand, is a style in which the leaders intervene only when problems become serious or are brought to attention. Control and decision-making power are primarily given to the subordinates, who are assumed to be skillful and intrinsically motivated. Based on a review of the literature, the common characteristics of laissez-faire leadership are an absence of leadership, leaving responsibility to subordinates, duty abdication, refraining from participation, avoiding involvement in decision making, setting no clear goals, and refusing to give feedback. In terms of goal setting, laissez-faire leaders do not pinpoint clear directions. With no explicit goals, subordinates are ill-informed and devoid of sufficient information. In daily operations, the leaders tend to let things drift with no evaluative standards, monitoring system, or procedural measures in dealing with problems. Laissez-faire leadership hence can be detrimental to an organization since it might result in an exacerbation of conflicts, especially when the staff are unorganized and equipped with limited knowledge.

Laissez-faire leadership can be measured through Avolio and Bass' (2004: 21-23) MLQ with a five-point Likert Scale. The items determine the degree to which a respondent agrees with the statements; for instance, my immediate supervisor "avoids getting involved when important issues arise" and "delays responding to urgent

situations.” The items assess passive management styles displayed by leaders of targeted organizations. Compared with transactional and transformational leadership, laissez-faire leadership may gain far less attention in research conduct. Yet, the concept offers a contrast and highlights situations where no leadership is presented in some organizational units.

While transactional, transformational, and servant leadership contains an intention of the leaders to lead, laissez-faire leadership does not. Transformational and servant leaders articulate a long-term vision and communicate with clarity to members. Transactional leaders are interested in rather short-term goals and daily operations. Laissez-faire leaders in contrast do not possess a long or short-term orientation. At work, transformational and servant leaders tend to provide guidance, advice, and effort to psychologically support members. Transactional leaders closely monitor what deviates from an expected standard for a corrective purpose. Laissez-faire leaders, however, do not formulate an explicit procedural guideline in working, evaluating, and rectifying. In terms of affiliation with members, transformational and servant leadership is rooted upon trust, respect, motivation, capacity building, and empowerment. Transactional leaders do not emphasize personal relationships, but interact with members through rewards and praise given upon occasion. The leaders also engage in work to follow up and assist when members fail to meet expectations. Laissez-faire leadership allows employees to enjoy ultimate freedom, but the freedom and autonomy cannot be translated into empowerment, which denotes the leaders’ delegation of power and authority. Laissez-faire leadership is characterized by withdrawal and avoidance that preclude a possibility of association. Finally, regarding leadership focus, transformational and transactional leadership similarly prioritizes organizational viability, despite their different rationales and underlying principles. Servant leadership contributes first to serving and supporting employees. Laissez-faire leadership, on the other hand, does not postulate a specific aim, as leadership qualities and a deliberate intention to lead are not manifested.

2.4.4 Research Prospect on Leadership

There are two perspectives on the role of leadership in the organization. The population ecology theory discusses the tight coupling relationship between the

external environment and organizations with limited adaptability. Survival of an organization is thus determined through natural selection and environmental fit, in which human agency is powerless to exercise control over changes (Hannan and Freeman, 1977: 936). On the other hand, the upper-echelons theory is grounded upon the premise that top managers are active agents with power to influence the decision-making process and organizational outcomes.

Taking into account the upper-echelons perspective, researchers since the 1980s have looked into the notion of leadership styles and their effects on organizations (Tichy and Devanna, 1990: 104). Different styles predict other organizational variables, such as flexibility, effectiveness, innovation, knowledge creation, and culture. Sarros, Brian, and Joseph (2008: 147), in *Building a Climate for Innovation through Transformational Leadership and Organizational Culture*, emphasize two competing views of how the relationship between leadership and organizational culture has been perceived. The functionalists express that leaders are regarded as architects that construct and reinforce a pattern of culture, while anthropologists argue for the notion of leadership as a part of culture itself. However, a growing body of research supports the former claim, in which leaders are considered proactive actors in reinventing organizational culture. Leadership is held responsible for learning through a cultivation of trust, questioning, experimentation, empowerment, experimental learning of tacit knowledge, and loyalty to organizations. Leaders have to focus on establishing a culture that places high value on knowledge, providing adequate training, engaging in a participative process, as well as supplying a knowledge infrastructure that facilitates knowledge sharing and application.

Through the literature review presented above, it seems that there is research conducted on the transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership style to assess diverse impacts on organizations. Transformational approach emphasizes inspiration and trust, while transactional leadership rather prioritizes exchange and specific rewards. The laissez fair style is remarkable in its lack of control and passive management. Aside from this, there is the servant leadership style, which has been developed and remained in its infancy with a body of research on theoretical explication and comparison with other existing leadership styles.

2.5 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has evolved with changes in perspectives toward organizations. “There are few, if any, concepts more central to industrial/organizational psychology than job satisfaction” (Adenike, 2011: 152). Like commitment, job satisfaction is closely related to the Hawthorn studies, which shed light on the role of power, motivational influences, informal network, and human relations. Based on the above perspective, job satisfaction is regarded as one of the aspects in organizational behavior looking to a micro unit of individuals within an organizational setting.

The terminology primarily relies on a manifestation of satisfaction. According to Hammer and Organ (1978: 216), satisfaction is “a person’s attitude toward an object....that represents a complex assemblage of cognitions (beliefs or knowledge), emotions (feelings, sentiments or evaluations), and behavioral tendencies.” Reed, Lahey and Downey, (1984: 68) describe “satisfaction in terms of subjective, personal experience, evaluative in time, and involving effect (sic) or feeling on the part of the individual.” Satisfaction is generally an attitude containing cognitive and affective attributes arising due to an evaluation of certain circumstances. A consequence resulting from a comparison between employees’ expectations and what they acquire from the job in question can be translated into satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The expectation is rooted in a set of desires, past experiences, and personal background. Satisfaction emerges as the expectation is met.

Satisfied employees are likely to gear themselves towards organizational goals. Without employees’ satisfaction with the jobs that they are currently involved with, organizations will definitely be unable to achieve sustainable growth and success. Fajana (1996 quoted in Adenike, 2011: 154) mentions that “if employees are not satisfied, their work performance, productivity, commitment as well as the interpersonal relationships among management and their subordinates tend to be lowered.” A low level of job satisfaction also produces neurotic and emotional negativeness, such as insomnia, headaches, stress, and disappointment (Denizer, 2008: 721). The notion thus is important in an organizational context. According to Hoppock (1935: 5), “whether or not one finds his employment sufficiently

satisfactory to continue in it...is a matter of the first importance to employer and employee.”

Prior to 1950, morale was generally used interchangeably with job satisfaction. Yet, as Lussier (1990 quoted in Yilmaz, 2002: 11) states, morale implies a group connotation, while satisfaction targets an individual, a group, a department, or even an organization. Hence, morale and satisfaction may refer to the same or different things. Afterwards, instead of morale, job satisfaction and job attitude were adopted in the literature to denote the sum total of positive attitudes or, in other words, a holistic feeling towards different aspects of the job; namely, pay, administration, and interaction. In yet another view, job attitude may simply mean an attitude towards a single aspect of the job, rather than the sum total of satisfaction. Johns (1981: 443) similarly proposes facet satisfaction to explain an employee’s feeling towards each aspect or facet of the job. The job attitude in this regard seems equivalent to facet satisfaction. There are some other variations in how job satisfaction is discussed. The concept can be represented in terms of combined emotional, mental, and behavioral components or a mere emotional response to job situation.

2.5.1 Definitions of Job Satisfaction

Employees with job satisfaction are expected to devote and engage themselves in an effort to pursue organizational excellence and effective performance. However, according to Quick (1998: 30), each person has different sets of goals and can be motivated only if they realize a connection between performance and rewards. The rewards either on extrinsic and extrinsic, as well as working atmosphere, lead to satisfaction, which strengthens the tie between individuals and their organizations.

Due to the aforementioned differences in goals and perspectives, there is no unanimous definition among scholars. According to Spector (1996: 2), job satisfaction is counted as “a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job.” Identically, for Beer (1964 quoted in Visser, Breed and van Breda, 1997: 19), the term refers to “the attitude of workers toward the company, their job, their fellow workers and other psychological objects in the work environment.” Chelladurai (1999: 230) simply defines the term as “an attitude people have about their jobs.” Some scholars narrow the sense of job

satisfaction from general attitudes to a solely positive emotional state. Locke (1976: 1342), for instance, states that the concept is “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one’s job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one’s important job values.” There are others that also connect job satisfaction with rewards and expectations. Balzer (1997: 10) proposes that job satisfaction is “the feelings a worker has about his or her job or job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current expectations, or available alternatives.” It entails, according to Robbins (1998: 25), “the difference between the amount of rewards workers receive and the amount they believe they should receive.” Various definitions of job satisfaction are set forth below.

Table 2.9 Definitions of Job Satisfaction

Authors	Definition
Stamps and Piedmonte (1986)	positive feeling towards working and happiness derived from work
Mcphee and Townsend (2001)	a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from a perception of how much one’s job can fulfill physical and psychological needs
Chiok (2001)	feeling towards working with due consideration and pay, conditions, supervision, benefits, career path, participative management and personal relationships
Robbins (2003)	attitudinal assessment of individuals toward work with high level of satisfaction representing positive attitudes
Muangman and Suwan (1997)	the feeling of liking the job resulting from experience and expectations
Luthans (1995)	the response of feeling about the job and attitude leading to performance

Table 2.9 (Continued)

Authors	Definition
Vroom (1994)	positive attitude after a person participates in the job
Glimmer (1971)	personal reflection on internal and external factors in work, such as motivation and rewards
Applewhite (1965)	personal feeling about working which deals with physical environment, job characteristics and income
Strauss and Sayles (1960)	the satisfactory state of doing and practicing one's job
Adenike (2011)	the contentment of employees because of their jobs

Scholars highlight job satisfaction components including 1) feelings, 2) the degree of liking, and 3) job-related factors. Feelings are projected toward the job which one undertakes. Yet, a job as a single concept subsumes various elements of internal sensations and external job characteristics. Internal sensation includes relationships, opportunities for growth, and management style, while external job characteristics are physical environment, payment, and fringe benefits. A composite feeling towards wide-ranging job elements determines job satisfaction level. The author of this research concludes that all of the definitions present common characteristics of job satisfaction. In sum, the term refers to an attitude or a positive attitude developed from working. The attitude is rooted in a fulfillment of expectations, values, feelings, and beliefs. Accordingly, the present research defines job satisfaction as an attitude toward working with a high level of satisfaction, demonstrating positive feelings and happiness.

2.5.2 Consequences of Job Satisfaction

Tepphanom Muangman and Swing Suwan (1986: 112) stipulate that job satisfaction is significant in three aspects. Individual significance deals with competency and happiness. Employees are encouraged to trust themselves, pay attention to their work, and avoid leaving the job. Regarding the work dimension, job satisfaction reaches beyond the individual level to enrich cooperation and performance effectiveness. Finally, organization is benefited in that job satisfaction contributes to goal accomplishment, working progress, and an enthusiastic atmosphere. Due to the pivotal role of employees' psychological wellbeing, research has been conducted to identify and measure the components of job satisfaction, as well as to examine its influence on productivity (Burnard, Morrison and Phillips, 1999: 9-10).

To support the positive consequences of job satisfaction on organizational operations, Luddy (2005: 51) highlights four areas of consideration, including productivity, physical, as well as psychological health, turnover, and absenteeism. The relationship between job satisfaction and productivity is positive, but very low and inconsistent at an individual level. Yet, the opposite scenario holds true for an organizational unit, as a strong relationship is revealed between the two variables. Second, members with high level of job satisfaction report physical and psychological wellbeing, while negative health conditions are often discovered among those with an attitude of disliking. Third, job satisfaction is inversely related to turnover. French (2003 quoted in Luddy, 2005: 52) postulates that a high turnover rate is juxtaposed with a setting in which job dissatisfaction is found among members. Therefore, they are likely to voluntarily withdraw to pursue other promising job opportunities, resulting in voluntary turnover. Apart from withdrawal, absenteeism and job satisfaction are inversely related at a moderate to high level. Nel, Van, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono, and Werner (2004: 548) concur that "absenteeism is regarded as withdrawal behavior when it is used as a way to escape an undesirable working environment." Hammer and Organ (1978: 220) likewise buttress the existing relationship among job satisfaction, physical health, and mental health. A high level of job satisfaction potentially decreases turnover and, to a lesser extent, absenteeism. They further add that satisfied employees are characterized as a public relations asset, promoting organizations through both words and deeds.

2.5.3 Theories of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is closely connected with motivation. Even though they are not synonymous, Mullins (1996: 520) infers that “motivation is a process which may lead to job satisfaction.” The questions that the researcher raises here is what motivates people to work and why they pursue certain goals in their career. How satisfaction is derived can be explained by means of motivation theories that touch upon internal cognitive processes describing how an individual thinks and feels.

Motivation theories can be categorized into two types: content theories and process theories. According to Bull (2005: 28), content theories “are based on various factors which influence job satisfaction,” while process theories “take into account the process by which variables such as expectations, needs and values, and comparisons interact with the job to produce job satisfaction.” Dunford (1992: 82) claims that the content models fail to investigate the process; the process theories then are proposed to fill the gap. Nel, Van, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono, and Werner (2004: quoted in Luddy, 2005: 23) contend that content theories emphasize “the needs and factors that motivate behavior,” whereas process theories “consider the source of behavior and the factors that affect the strength and direction of the behavior.” Upon this basis, the research concludes that content theories look at what creates satisfaction. Process theories, in contrast, explore how satisfaction is created in light of a dynamic environment and interactional effects of different factors. Content theories related to job satisfaction include Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory, Alderfer’s ERG theory, and Mc Clelland’s achievement motivation theory. Process theories are, namely, the valence instrumental expectancy theory, the equity theory, and the goal setting theory. All will be addressed below.

2.5.3.1 Maslow’s Theory of Motivation

Citing Maslow, Tappen (2001: 33) asserts that motivation comes from within the individual and cannot be imposed upon him, and although it is directed at external goals, motivation is always an internal process. Maslow’s need hierarchy theory stems from assumptions that people always strive to satisfy their needs and once the low level of survival needs is fulfilled, they are likely to pursue a higher psychological drive towards self-actualization.

According to Nelson, Organ, and Bateman (1993: 141), Maslow's hierarchy of needs ranges from physiological needs to self-actualization. Management has to satisfy employees' needs. As one need is fulfilled, there are other particular aspects of needs existing at a higher level. In other words, the higher-level needs will not be materialized if the lower ones are left unattended. Maslow underlined a complexity of needs which have different effects on human behaviors. Yet, the theory is subject to variations which occur due to cultural orientations and contexts.

Five stages of needs involve physiological and security needs dealing with the daily basis of survival. Social needs at the third stage are a desire for social interaction and membership. The highest two levels incorporate esteem needs and self-actualization. Esteem can be translated into a demand for prestige and public recognition lying beyond a physical basis. At the zenith of the hierarchy is self-actualization, exhibiting an aspiration to grow and develop one's self into the fullest potentiality through a provision of opportunities and challenges. While the lowest physiological need is regarded as essential and the most important, it therefore does not necessarily motivate an individual due to discrepancy in personal propensity and desire.

2.5.3.2 Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg, Mosner, and Synderman (1959: 38) reviewed the attitudes of accountants and engineers from workplaces in Pittsburgh through an interview on job satisfaction and work experience. They concluded that there were two groups of factors leading to job satisfaction, motivation, and willingness to work: hygiene and motivation factors. Satisfying hygiene factors can reduce dissatisfaction, but cannot motivate an employee. Motivational factors maximize satisfaction, but do not minimize dissatisfaction. Thus, the opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction, rather than dissatisfaction.

Hygiene factors are related to work conditions and extrinsic dimensions, such as salary and benefits, technical supervision, job security, work conditions, interpersonal relations, and policy. Hygiene factors do not have a direct impact on motivation, but prevent the possibility of job dissatisfaction. Therefore, the physical environment has to be adequately tackled and maintained at an acceptable level so as to retain employees in organizations.

Table 2.10 Description of Hygiene Factors

Factors	Descriptions
Salary and Benefits	return from work, such as wages, salary, income, compensation, and supporting benefits including leaves and welfare
Technical Supervision	ability and knowledge of supervisors in managing and their contribution to subordinates in terms of assistance and advice
Job Security	the feeling of safety in working, job characteristics, workplace, position, reputation, and organization
Working Condition	physical environment, such as light, ventilation, tools, facilities, weather, and cleanliness
Interpersonal Relations	relationship with supervisors, peers, and subordinates
Company Policy and Administration	participative management, clear policy directions, and empowerment

Source: Adapted from Wang, 2004; Seehom, 2006.

Motivational factors are connected with motivation and also are referred to as motivators. The factors result in job satisfaction level. Motivators are intrinsic in nature and range from opportunity for growth to recognition.

In sum, hygiene factors are extrinsic and appear similar to Maslow's lower level of needs. The factors, however, prevent dissatisfaction, but cannot maximize job satisfaction. Motivational factors, on the contrary, are intrinsic and are able to enhance satisfaction level.

Table 2.11 Description of Motivational Factors

Factors	Descriptions
Achievement	job and performance accomplishment, ability to solve problems, and satisfaction in working
Recognition	acceptance from supervisors, colleagues and external agents in form of expression, admiration, praise, and support
Work Itself	positive and negative attitude towards job characteristics and nature of work
Responsibility	satisfaction in being assigned and authorized for tasks
Advancement	opportunity to be promoted to a higher position and supported in terms of knowledge, skills, and training

Source: Adapted from Wang, 2004; Seehom, 2006.

2.5.3.3 Alderfer's ERG Theory

Revising Maslow's theory, Alderfer (1972: 5) proposed three types of needs: existence, relatedness, and growth. Existence, resembling Maslow's low level of needs, involves basic physiological equipment and safety. In an organizational context, existence is translated into pay, financial and non-financial rewards, and job security. Relatedness is a desire for socialization and interpersonal relationships with others, including colleagues, superiors, and subordinates. Growth is an aspiration toward personal development and improvement, reflecting Maslow's self-actualization.

Alderfer's ERG theory is identical to that of Maslow in that both focus on how individuals move upward along the hierarchy of needs to fulfill their needs. The nature of needs is also similar and ranges from basic living factors to a social and intrinsic psychological quest for self-realization of one's potentiality. Nevertheless,

the two theories contain quite a few differences. Maslow's hierarchy insists on an upward movement for higher and higher levels of needs, whereas Alderfer's ERG theory argues for both upward and downward mobility or, in other words, fulfillment-progression and frustration-regression. When an individual is frustrated in an attempt to fulfill a higher need, he/she may automatically switch attention to the lower order. For instance, a frustration to satisfy growth needs can be transformed into a re-direction toward relatedness. The condition leads to the second major difference between the two theories. For Maslow, there is only one level of needs predominant at a specified duration. Alderfer's ERG theory, by raising the frustration-regression dimension, highlights a possibility for the simultaneous occurrence of more than one level of needs. The theory can be recognized as an effort to add explanatory power to that of Maslow and to delve into the inherent nature of human beings.

2.5.3.4 McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory

McClelland (1961: 301) suggested that human beings are of varying personalities equipped with different types of needs. The needs focused on here lie in three dimensions: achievement, power, and affiliation. The need for achievement is a drive to accomplish a challenging but attainable goal for the sake of personal success, rather than a reward expectation. The need for power is a desire to proactively control and manipulate others and the environment. However, power boils down to two aspects. One is personalized and the other is institutional. Personal power is distinguished as an assertive act to command and direct others, while the institutional aspect places emphasis on a goal-oriented effort to mobilize a group toward a collective aspiration. Finally, the need for affiliation describes how an individual attempts to foster an interpersonal relationship, acceptance, social recognition and cooperative interaction.

This theory therefore implies that people with different types of needs are motivated differently. Personalities are also supposed to determine appropriate career alternatives and job roles. For instance, those having a high need for achievement are satisfied when assigned to undertake a challenging task and acquiring feedback on what they have completed. They are willing to work within a competitive environment or even become business entrepreneurs.

2.5.3.5 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Vroom's expectancy theory is classified within the process approach, reflecting the complexity and interaction of factors that produce satisfaction rather than looking simply at goals. The theory argues that the strength of tendency to exert an effort in conducting a particular action is dependent upon whether the effort will lead to an expected performance and attractive outcomes (Robbins, 1994: 54). Therefore, motivation is a process of determining the value of alternatives and voluntarily choosing what delivers the most desirable outcome.

The theory can also be referred to as VIE with V, I, and E standing for valence, instrumentality, and expectancy respectively. According to Oudejans (2007: 12), valence is defined as anticipated satisfaction representing the weight of value attached to performance outcomes. Such weight may be either positive or negative. Hence, there is variation in how each person perceives the valence even of similar outcomes. Financial benefits, for example, generally yield a positive value, but the extent to which an individual feels is a matter of personal needs and preference. Instrumentality is a belief that the outcome is rooted in performance. In other words, what an individual does and how he or she performs is linked with results and certain rewards. Expectancy signifies how an individual invests an amount of effort in an expectation to achieve a particular level of performance.

This theory reflects the idea that satisfaction is a process and series of thoughts emerging in a two-stage sequence of expectations: effort-performance and performance-outcome. In the first effort-performance sequence, an individual exerts an amount of effort to attain a satisfactory level of performance. The second performance-outcome phase is a perception of linkages between performance and the outcome. The individual is willing to perform, as the performance is translated into consequences either positive or negative. When applied to job satisfaction, the theory entails the notion that satisfaction is how an expectation toward acts and the results of the acts is formed and fulfilled based on personal needs and a cognitive evaluation of possibility.

2.5.3.6 Adam's Equity Theory

The theory identifies satisfaction as the perceived ratio of input and output. Input or investment is what a person invests, including skills, education, work experience, and effort, while outcomes are what a person gains from his/her

contribution involving pay, fringe benefits, promotion, praise, and recognition (Robbins, 1993: 224). The theory argues further that people usually compare their input-outcome ratio with a standard of reference. The comparison is usually established between what they receive and their perception of what others receive. If their input-outcome ratio is equivalent to that of others, the cognitive state constitutes perceived equity and fairness. A deviation from what is considered equivalent generates perceived inequity, resulting in dissatisfaction and frustration.

This theory is grounded in the assumption that people are equipped with needs to maintain equilibrium and consistency. Once perceiving the inequity between themselves and others, psychological tension and cognitive dissonance arise. In order to reduce emotional disruption and to restore a balance, people might opt for behaviors such as demanding a raise, reducing their contribution, and resigning in the case of those viewing themselves as being under-rewarded. Meanwhile, others supposed to be over-rewarded are motivated to be more productive. The modes of inequity reduction differ among people due to their personality and the extent to which they experience inequity.

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2002 quoted in Van Der Zee, 2009: 46), there are four major components in the comparison process. First, an individual who gauges the input-outcome ratio in relation to that of others is labeled Person. Second, Comparison other is a reference person selected from a network of friends, co-workers, and employees in other organizations. Third, inputs are what an individual contributes to the job, including attempt and qualification. Finally, outcomes are what he/she financially and non-financially obtains from the job.

Ratio Comparison	Perception
Person's input-outcome ratio < Comparison other's input-outcome ratio	Inequity
Person's input-outcome ratio = Comparison other's input-outcome ratio	Equity
Person's input-outcome ratio > Comparison other's input-outcome ratio	Inequity

Through the review of the theory, perception toward personal alternatives in relation to others is one of the variables that determine job satisfaction.

2.5.3.7 Goal-Setting Theory

The essence of this theory is, as the name suggests, goal setting, aiming and involving members in a process of eliciting goals. Heery and Noon (2001: 42)

describe four principles involved in generating high performance. First, the goals themselves should be attainable but challenging so as to allow members to strive for achievement. Second, the goals should be explicit and clearly communicated to the members. Third, the members have a chance to be involved in a goal-setting process. Goal accomplishment should be measurable and thoroughly communicated to the members.

Hence, goal-setting theory focuses on people's engagement, in which participation is required to formulate the goals. The nature of the goals accordingly influences employees' satisfaction and behaviors. They need to be aware of what they are going to achieve and be informed during the process toward goal accomplishment. Apart from allowing employees to take part in goal-setting, providing continuous feedback is also necessary. Employees are able to realize their drawbacks and identify difficulties pertaining to task operation. Advice and discussion are useful in assisting them in overcoming difficulties.

Based on the theories mentioned above, job satisfaction is conceptualized in terms of goal fulfillment, focusing on the process or goal itself. Goal-setting is grounded upon individuals' needs and values. Various factors therefore determine the level of job satisfaction. In general, a long period of service leaves members to adjust their desire to actual working conditions, earn a high salary and promotion, and acquire power and experience a sense of security (Chambers, 1999: 69). In light of process theories, the researcher concludes that the length of time allows employees to redefine their needs and set appropriate expectations to match the conditions of their present jobs. Apart from this, after many years of being in charge, improvement in job-related factors, including pay, promotion and occupational status, is highly foreseeable. Career progress is likely to bridge the gap between reality and expectations.

2.5.4 Components of Job Satisfaction

Since the 1980s, job satisfaction has been addressed in research due to the widespread nursing shortage and concern about retention (ALnems, Aboads, AL-Yousef, AL-Yateem and Abotabar, 2005: 3). Job satisfaction is cited as a primary cause of employee turnover. Stamps and Piedmonte's (1986: 60) Index of Work Satisfaction was developed to measure the level of job satisfaction among registered

nurses through a set of 48 questionnaire items. Stamps (1997: 13) defines job satisfaction as “the extent to which employees like their jobs.”. The concept encapsulates a multidimensionality of job-related factors and individual reactions to the job component.

The scale is claimed to be based on Vroom’s expectancy theory, in which respondents rate the extent to which their work fulfills their expectations. The job components demonstrate both the hygiene and motivational factors which reduce dissatisfaction and maximize satisfaction respectively. Hygiene factors delineate an extrinsic dimension, such as working conditions, and salary and benefits, whereas motivation or satisfying factors are intrinsic and related to achievement.

According to Stamps and Piedmonte (1986: 60), job satisfaction is an integration of six components: pay, autonomy, task requirements, organizational policies, interaction, and professional status. Pay refers to the money and fringe benefits received from work. Adequate pay takes into account employees’ knowledge, ability, and types of work. Autonomy is the stage of being independent, taking initiative, and being creative in daily work activities. Employees are allowed to make a decision and be innovative in the work process. Task requirements represent the nature of work that employees engage themselves in as a regular part of the job, and leaders realize and communicate such requirements to the subordinates. Opportunities, resources, and time given for job completion determine the level of satisfaction toward the component. Organizational policies refer to administrative management and participatory decision making within organizations. Management policies and procedures are assessed as to whether members can have a say and reflect their opinions in policy formulation. Interaction is an opportunity to have both formal and informal communication in the workplace. Finally, professional status concerns the importance or significance of work in the view of employees themselves and of others.

2.6 Control Variables

In order to eliminate the possibility of intervening variables, the present study takes into account the characteristics which, according to previous literature, are

revealed to have an impact on organizational commitment. A number of factors, aside from leadership styles, also affect organizational commitment, yet these factors are not of primary focus and are brought into analysis as control variables.

2.6.1 Years of Service

A committed employee tries his/her best and further forms an attachment which constitutes an even higher level of commitment as time passes. It can be concluded accordingly that years of service are found to have a positive relationship with commitment. The proposition can also be justified in the sense that employees that work for a long-term period tend to develop shared feelings with the organization's history and future. Their job opportunities decrease, while financial and non-financial forms of investment are added up. In Meyer and Allen's (1997: 43) words, it is "possible that employees need to acquire a certain amount of experience to become strongly attached to it, or that long-service employees retrospectively develop affective attachment to the organization."

As the review of literature on job satisfaction suggests, years of service also predict job satisfaction level. While content theories emphasize the needs and factors that motivate behavior, process theories explore how satisfaction is created in light of a dynamic environment and the interactional effects of different factors. Job satisfaction is conceptualized in terms of goal fulfillment, focusing on a process or the goal itself. The goal-setting is grounded upon individuals' needs and values. Various factors therefore determine the level of job satisfaction. In general, a long period of service leaves members to adjust their desire to actual work conditions, to obtain a high salary and promotion, acquire power, and experience a sense of security (Chambers. 1999: 69). The researcher concludes that length of time allows employees to redefine their needs and set appropriate expectations to match the conditions of their present jobs. Apart from this, after many years of being in charge, an improvement of in job-related factors including pay, promotion, and occupational status, is highly foreseeable. Career progress is likely to bridge the gap between reality and expectation.

The length of period for which one has stayed in his/her organization is thus brought into the framework. The variable is referred to as years of service measured

by the number of years one works for his/her current organization. The longer an employee works in the organization, the more commitment and job satisfaction he/she is likely to develop.

2.6.2 Limitation of Alternatives

Another control variable that is proposed in the present study includes employment alternatives and opportunities. Those embraced with choices will have a lower level of commitment, particularly with respect to continuance, than others. According to Meyer, Allen, and Gellatly (1990: 715), “accrue investments and poor employment alternatives tend to force individuals to maintain their line of action and are responsible for these individuals being committed because they need to.” In other words, one of the factors determining organizational commitment is the availability of alternatives. Employees may leave their current jobs if there are other persuasive offers. Commitment antecedents have to be weighed in light of other alternatives, which can be measured through the difficulty in finding new employment with equivalent or a better offer. Limitations of alternatives concern the perception of personal career alternatives in relation to others. In case one perceives that his or her choices and opportunities of new employment are limited, he or she will tend to be committed to the present job and organization. Members choose to remain at the same job since they are in need of doing so.

“Several events or actions can influence one’s perceptions of the availability of alternatives” (Meyer and Allen, 1997 quoted in Nyengane, 2007: 54). Perception implies that events or actions do not count until one is aware of them. Alternatives in this sense are subjective and idiosyncratic to the person. People that are in objectively similar situations may rate their limitation of alternatives differently. The rating depends on individuals’ value judgment—they may look into the external environment, local employment rate, and general economic climate. The factors constituting the perception comprise the transferability of skills, and knowledge and education, as well as past experience. If their skills are marketable and easily transferable elsewhere, they will not quite perceive alternative limitations. Those with a strong educational background and expertise feel that there are quite a few alternatives available. On the other hand, repeated failure in the job search attempts

indicates a lack of choice. With a limitation of alternatives, one tends to have a high level of organizational commitment and to remain at his or her current workplace.

Limitation of alternatives positively affects job satisfaction as well. The more limited the alternatives one perceives, the more satisfaction he or she will have toward his or her current job. According to the equity theory of job satisfaction, individuals investigate what they gain and invest in working. They make a comparison with others to evaluate a personal state. Job satisfaction is derived from an attitude toward the present condition, but also from an examination of job alternatives. Satisfaction is defined in terms of a perceived ratio of input and output. Input or investment is what a person invests, including skills, education, work experience, and effort, while outcomes are what a person gains from his/her contribution involving pay, fringe benefits, promotion, praise, and recognition (Robbins, 1993: 224). The theory argues further that people usually compare their input-outcome ratio with a standard of reference. This comparison is usually established between what they receive and their perception of what others receive. In case that their input-outcome ratio is equivalent to that of others, the cognitive state constitutes perceived equity and fairness. A deviation from what is considered equivalent generates perceived inequity, resulting in dissatisfaction.

2.7 Related Studies

2.7.1 Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Leadership has a causal relationship with organizational commitment. According to Niehoff, Enz, and Grover (1990: 344), “overall management culture and style driven by top management actions are strongly related to the degree of employee commitment.” Leadership style affects the level of commitment and involvement in organizations, and commitment is strongly linked with the style of management. Specifically, the leadership behaviors of employees’ managers are clearly recognized as having a powerful influence on subordinate loyalty. Chiyanant Panyasiri (2008: 24) attributes the relationship between leadership and commitment to motivation, which he defines based on Slocum and Hellriegel (1979: 433) as “a psychological state that exists whenever internal and/or external forces stimulate, maintain or direct behavior.” “By

understanding motivation, a manager can increase the constructive attitude and behaviors of employees including satisfaction and commitment” Chiyant Panyasiri (2008: 24). Commitment is to be fostered via personal communication, realistic goal setting, and rewards granted when a task is complete.

Accordingly, as Supamas Trivisvavet (2004: 30) points out, a participatory style of leadership is positively connected to organizational commitment, especially the attitudinal dimension. She adds that supervisors that allow member participation in a decision-making process, along with treating employees with respect, consideration and fairness, encourages higher levels of commitment. Upon this basis, transformational and servant leadership is assumed to have a positive effect, as they are more human oriented than a transactional form. Marmaya, Hitman, Torsiman, and Balakrishnan (2011 quoted in Sabir, Sohail and Khan, 2011: 49) claim that “transformational and transactional leadership have positive relationship with employees' organizational commitment, while employees of Malaysian organization are more influenced by transformational than transactional.” Kim (2009: 113) investigates perceived leadership styles of U.S. athletic directors. The findings report a more or less similar result. Transformational and transactional leadership exhibits direct and positive relations with organizational commitment. Nonetheless, “transformational leadership seems to affect a broader range of organizational outcomes than transactional leadership,” although contingent rewards and management are crucial in creating committed employees (Kim, 2009: 114).

Higher levels of transformational leadership are positively associated with subordinates' organizational commitment through leadership behaviors which encourage employees in both regular and irregular ways to develop stronger employee commitment. According to Kane and Tremble (2000: 137-138), transformational behaviors “promote the following subordinate outcomes: admiration, respect, and trust of the leader; motivation and commitment to shared goals and visions, innovative and creative approaches, and growth reflecting the unique needs and desires of individual followers.” Further, Hughes, Ginnette. and Curphy (2008: 648) have emphasized that “Transformational leaders possess good visioning, rhetorical, and impression management skills and use them to develop strong emotional bonds with followers.”

The researcher concludes that transformational leadership affects commitment through work and individual focus. In terms of work, transformational behaviors pave

ways towards critical thinking, inspiration, and guidance. The leaders are involved in a cultivation of goal accomplishment, emphasis among employees, an alignment of vision, mission and organizational goals, as well as inspirational motivation. They promote employees to approach challenges with novel ideas. Apart from task orientation, personal focus is also crucial. A higher level of commitment is fostered through transformational leadership, as it encourages a participatory decision-making process, establishes loyalty, and calls for an identification of needs and different processes to develop each employee to his/her ultimate potential. An embodiment of trust and long-term commitment takes place when employees are allowed to think critically, creatively, and with confidence. Yet, as Bass (1999 quoted in Kim, 2009: 115) maintains, transactional leadership should not at all be replaced by transformational leadership. This is due to the idea that transactional leadership also has an impact on organizational success and commitment based on the active monitoring and rewards given upon achievement. A transformational leadership style is likely to augment the effects of transactional leadership. A leader thereby requires the two qualities in the managerial approach.

As the review of literature reveals a considerable conceptual overlap between transformational and servant leadership, the two are supposed to reflect a similar tendency. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006: 321) assume that “servant leadership may precede other positive organizational outcomes, such as organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, worker engagement, and other measures of performance.” Schneider and George (2011: 60), conducting research at eight clubs of a national voluntary service organization, conclude that transformational and servant leadership are positively related to organizational commitment. However, the two are highly correlated and servant leadership is identified as a better predictor of the voluntary club members' commitment, satisfaction, and intention to stay. West and Bocarnea (2008: 3) conclude upon this basis that there is a potential existence of a significant relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment, which a number of researchers directly or implicitly suggest. The positive relationship between the two concepts is attributed to the quality leaders that demonstrate trust and understanding, express genuine interest in members, and act supportively to serve the followers. Northouse (2004: 151) even says that “organizations stand to gain much

from having leaders who can create good working relationships. When leaders and followers have good exchanges, they feel better, accomplish more, and the organization prospers.”

As expected, Kimberly (2010: 101), in assessing perceived leadership style and firefighter organizational commitment among 77,146 fire service members, asserts a negative linear relation between laissez-faire leadership and commitment. The findings reveal a positive linear relationship existing between transformational leadership and organizational commitment, as well as between transactional leadership and organizational commitment. The study also mentions a statistical difference in commitment levels between paid and volunteer respondents. The volunteer category generally reports a higher level of commitment than the paid career status. Laissez-faire leadership is considered a do-nothing or hands-off approach, with behaviors including staying away from employees, shirking supervisory duties, and being inactive rather than reactive or proactive (Bass, 1990: 550). The style of management would potentially diminish commitment level.

2.7.2 Leadership, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Seashore and Taber (1975: 7) reveal a list of variables leading to job satisfaction, including organizational climate, leadership styles, and personnel relationships. Wexley and Yukl (1984 quoted in Hamidifar, 2010: 48) cite leadership as a determinant of job satisfaction. Leaders with supportive behaviors and adequate guidance of their employees increase the level of job satisfaction. This scenario holds true to professional nursing as well. Research in the healthcare industry has demonstrated that leadership has a direct impact on subordinates' job satisfaction (Lucas, 1991: 119). The present researcher assumes thereby that different styles of management are going to have an impact on the level of organizational commitment.

In their article “Transformational and Transactional Leadership Effects on Teachers' Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Primary Schools: the Tanzanian Case,” Nguni, Slegers, and Denessen (2006: 145) discovered through regression analyses that transformational leadership dimensions have strong effects on teachers' job satisfaction and organizational transformational leadership had significant add-on effects on

transactional leadership in the prediction of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In order to justify the phenomenon, Emery and Barker (2007: 79) explain that “transformational leadership intrinsically fosters satisfaction, given its ability to impart a sense of mission and intellectual stimulation” and that “transformational leaders encourage their followers to take on more responsibility and autonomy.” The tasks provided thus increase the feeling of accomplishment and satisfaction. Apart from the work-related dimension, transformational leaders also take into account individual orientation expressing genuine interest in followers’ needs. According to Felfe and Schyns (2006 quoted in Voon, Lo, Ngui and Ayob, 2011, 26) transformational and transactional leadership is linked with positive organizational consequences, including job, leader, and organizational satisfaction, especially when supervisors exhibit both relational and task-oriented behaviors. Voon, Lo, Ngui, and Ayob (2011: 28) in “The influence of leadership styles on employees’ job satisfaction in public sector organizations in Malaysia” reveal a positive causal relation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction, as well as between transactional leadership and job satisfaction. The research concludes, based on the findings, that “transformational leadership is more important in terms of follower satisfaction than transactional leadership” Voon, Lo, Ngui and Ayob (2011: 29). The relationship between job satisfaction and transformational leadership dimensions remains relatively strong. The transformational leadership dimensions explored here are inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and idealized influence. Contingent rewards and active management by exception are positively related to aspects of job satisfaction, including work conditions and work assignments. Work conditions are extrinsic in that the concept refers to job situations and atmosphere, while work assignment concerns directly the nature of jobs. Despite the weak relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction, results demonstrate that compensation, rewards, and supervisors’ monitoring still play a significant role in fostering satisfaction toward jobs. Tsai and Su (2011: 1915), conducting more or less similar research on leadership styles and job satisfaction, report in “Leadership, job satisfaction and service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors in flight attendants” that transformational and transactional leadership is positively connected with job satisfaction. However, in the setting of international

airlines operating in Taiwan with 228 flight attendants as a research sample, “transactional leadership has a stronger influence on job satisfaction than transformational leadership does” (Tsai and Su, 2011: 1915). The researchers justify the results by claiming the distinguished nature of airline industry. Flight attendants have to work with more than one leader during different flights, and service must be undertaken in a strict time period. A transactional system with clear contingent rewards and policy clarification is more appropriate to the task environment. Based on the review of previous research, transformational leadership seems to impart effects on intrinsic satisfaction pertaining to challenges, support, and accomplishment, while transactional leadership rather offers extrinsic satisfaction concerning a good working environment, welfare, salary, promotion, and fairness.

In “A Study of the Relationship between Leadership Styles and Employee Job Satisfaction at Islamic Azad University Branches in Tehran, Iran,” Hamidifar (2010: 45) recommends that effective leadership at the Islamic Azad University (IAU) branches in Tehran province “should be a mix of transactional managerial abilities with a proper dose of transformational abilities.” Laissez-faire leadership must be avoided as the findings represent a significantly negative relationship between laissez-faire style and job satisfaction. Leaders are to spend their time on coaching, paying attention to employees’ needs, and providing a supportive environment. The results imply that organizational members have an unfavorable attitude towards non-leadership conditions in which actions and decision making are delayed. The tendency is claimed to be congruent with Gharoieahangar and Alijanirooshan’s (2004 quoted in Hamidifar, 2010: 47) research of leadership styles in a public banking sector, in which Laissez-faire is strongly and negatively correlated with extra effort and satisfaction.

Regarding servant leadership, the research findings explicitly mention its positive relationship with job satisfaction. This is foreseeable due to an expected high correlation between transformational and servant leadership. Laub (1999: 85) proposed that “managers and workers would have higher job satisfaction in a servant organization and as a result would be freed up to perform at their highest levels of ability, leading to greater success for the organization,” as servant leadership focuses on valuing employees and an emphasis on human relations. The more employees

perceive a servant leadership style, the more they are likely to be satisfied with their jobs. Stone, Russell, and Patterson (2003 quoted in Drury, 2004: 29) report that “servant leadership, when compared to transformational leadership, is predominantly a relations-oriented leadership in that it has the worker as its primary focus; organizational outcomes are secondary.” That the members feel dignified and rightly served would enhance their level of job satisfaction. In the school setting, Miers (2004 quoted in Anderson, 2005: 60) also discovered a positive correlation between perceived servant leadership and job satisfaction among teachers in a Texas public school district.

Accordingly, leadership styles predict job satisfaction with different styles having varying impacts. The differences are also reflected in how scholars look into the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979: 226) argue that organizational commitment is “more global, reflecting a general affective response to the organization as a whole,” whereas job satisfaction “reflects one’s response either to one’s job or to certain aspects of one’s job.” In this sense, job satisfaction and organizational commitment seem related. The former however refers to an attitude toward the tasks and work environment, while the latter is a composite view of the organization. Organizational commitment is accordingly more stable and resistant to change. Tett and Meyer (1993 quoted in Van Der Zee, 2009: 66) discuss the positive linkage between the two and that job satisfaction is a cause of commitment, as the attitude toward particular aspects of work is connected with a holistic perception.

Nevertheless, the causal ordering remains controversial. There are at least four perspectives in understanding the interrelation between the two concepts. The first suggests no particular causality. The second is a satisfaction-to-commitment model having job satisfaction as an antecedent, while the third, based on Salancik and Pfeffer’s (1978 quoted in Chiyanant Panyasairi, 2008: 51) review, argues for a reversed version with organizational commitment and job satisfaction as the independent and dependent variables respectively. Fourth, Mathis, and Jackson (2007 quoted in Chiyanant Panyasairi, 2008: 52) have noted a reciprocal relationship, rather than a one-way linear causality, between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Despite the scholastic debate on the topic, it is generally agreed that job

satisfaction is a determinant of organizational commitment. As Van Der Zee (2009: 66-67) has noted, “several researchers have made the case that job satisfaction is a predictor of organizational commitment.” Based on the rationalization and behavioral aspects of organizational commitment, investments are a variable which refers to potential loss or loss of benefits incurred after a decision to terminate the present employment. Employees would decide to maintain organizational membership provided that it is worth doing so. In this sense, the investments that are cited as commitment antecedents are work and non-work related, and either extrinsic or intrinsic. The extrinsic benefits are payment, compensation and rewards, as well as career advancement and promotion. Intrinsic satisfaction involves enjoyment, challenges, support, personal growth, recognition, and work atmosphere. According to Supamas Trivisavavet (2004: 36), being satisfied with jobs implies that “benefits and utilities (intrinsic and extrinsic) outweigh cost in the decision-making function.” In this regard, job satisfaction is associated with the affective and continuance dimensions of commitment.

2.8 Conceptual Framework

That leadership styles that will be explored in the research consist of transformation, servant, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. Transformational leadership is defined as a process where leaders and followers engage in a mutual process of raising one another to higher levels of morality and motivation. Servant leadership is an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader. Based on the literature review, the researcher hypothesizes that transformational and servant leadership is highly correlated due to its conceptual overlapping. In case that there is a high correlation between transformational and servant leadership, similar to what the research first hypothesizes, servant leadership will be selected for further regression analysis since servant leadership theory is, according to Patterson (2003 quoted in Matteson and Irving, 2006: 38), an extension of transformational leadership theory. Servant leadership expands the scope of the transformational leadership style in that it takes into account a feeling of love and willingness to serve that exists beyond merely assisting followers.

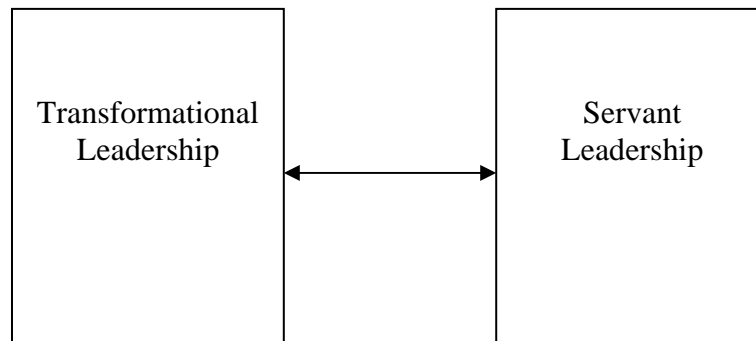


Figure 2.4 A Model Displaying the Correlation between Transformational and Servant Leadership

Note: - The parameters of transformational leadership are charismatic-inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.
 - The parameters of servant leadership are altruistic leadership, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, organizational stewardship, humility, and trust.

The other two styles explored as independent variables include transactional and laissez-faire leadership. Transactional leadership is a style focusing on the directive power act, contractual agreement, and contingent rewards based on goal accomplishment, while laissez-faire is leadership characterized with passivity and reluctance to help subordinates.

The leadership styles as independent variables have both direct and indirect influences upon organizational commitment. An indirect influence is manifested through the interaction between leadership styles and job satisfaction. Here, organizational commitment is a psychological aspect that identifies the relationship between an employee and organization entailing whether the employee is going to remain or continue with the organization. The concept deals with three aspects; namely affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

Years of service and limitation of career alternatives are also brought into the framework, as previous research and reviewed theoretical approaches mentioned earlier in the review of literature demonstrate that they are the determinants of organizational commitment as well. Years of service is measured by the number of years one works in his/her current organization, whereas limitation of alternatives is a

perception of personal career alternatives in relation to others. In case one perceives that his or her choices and opportunities of new employment are limited, he or she will tend to be committed to his or her present job and organizations.

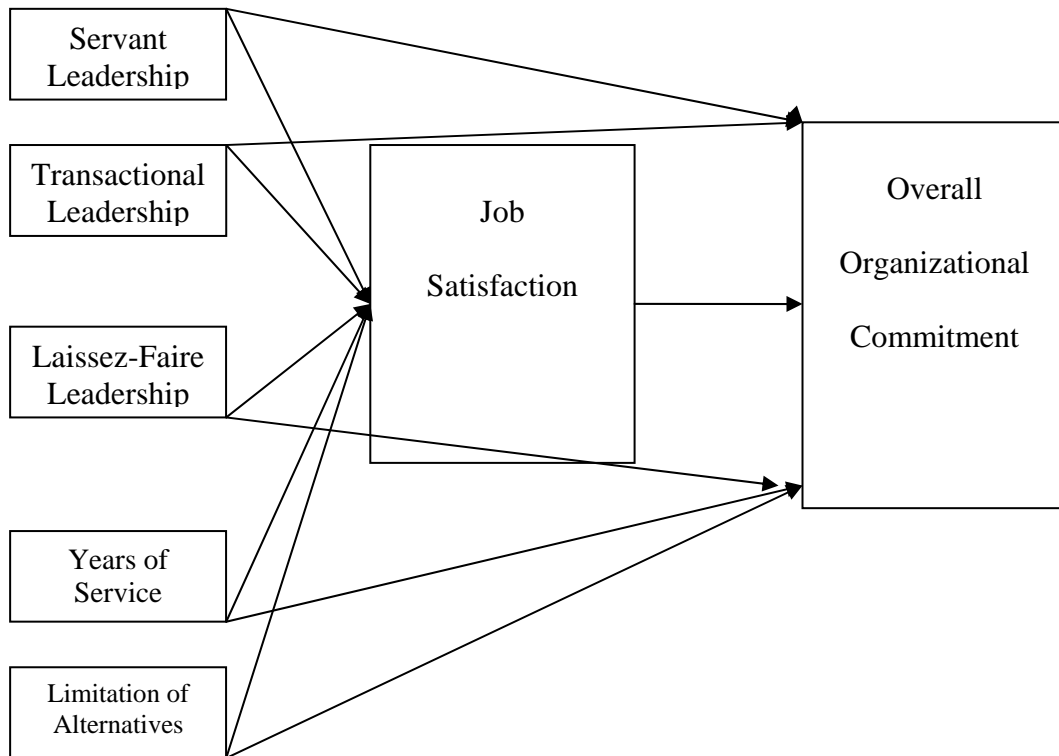


Figure 2.5 A Path Model of Factors Affecting Organizational Commitment

Note: - The parameters of organizational commitment are affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

- The parameters of servant leadership are altruistic leadership, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, organizational stewardship, humility, and trust.
- The parameters of transactional leadership are contingent rewards and active management by exception.
- The parameters of laissez-faire leadership are passive management styles.
- The parameter of years of service is the length of time one has stayed in his/her organization.
- The parameter of limitation of alternatives is difficulty in finding a new employment with equivalent or better offers.
- The parameters of job satisfaction are pay, autonomy, task requirements, organizational policies, interaction, and professional status.

2.9 Research Hypotheses

In accordance with the literature review, the research hypotheses are provided below.

H1: Transformational and servant leadership are highly correlated. In case that the first hypothesis is accepted, servant leadership, as an extension of transformational leadership theory, will be selected for subsequent regression analysis.

H2: Servant leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, years of service, limitation of alternatives, and job satisfaction have a direct effect on organizational commitment.

H3: Servant leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, years of service, and limitation of alternatives have a direct effect on job satisfaction.

H4: Servant leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, years of service, and limitation of alternatives indirectly affect organizational commitment through job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

As previously mentioned, research on organizational commitment is generally conducted in western settings. Therefore, the researcher deemed it expedient to undertake the study in the context of community hospitals in central Thailand so that findings could reflect conclusions and lead to recommendations that were practical to hospital administration and the community hospitals located within the geographical bounds. The empirical study will enhance the body of knowledge in terms of theoretical understanding and application specific to the research setting. As theories in social science are culturally bound, empirical enquiries and theoretical testing will provide a heuristic add-on value to the existing foundation of the field. The study utilizes an empirical approach due to its appropriateness in examining a natural phenomenon. The quantitative method was adopted for, as Patton (1987, quoted in Warangkana Jakawattanakul, 2007: 86) points out, “it uses standardized measures that fit diverse various opinions and experiences into predetermined response categories; as a result, it provides the comparison and statistical aggregation of the data.” Using multivariate analysis, the research explores how well leadership styles and job satisfaction can be used to predict the dependent variable, organizational commitment. Analysis will be focused upon the relationships that the independent variables have toward the dependent variable.

The present chapter supplies details of the research methodology, commencing with a description of the research method and unit of analysis. According to Cooper and Schindler (2001: 14), “Good research is built on a systematic organized inquiry that renders valuable data for solving problems.” They also state that “[g]ood research has solid, non-compromised procedures that are (a) defensible in all aspects relating to bias, validity, reliability and practicality, (b) ethically develop to ensure privacy and confidentiality, and (c) objectionable relative

to resources and their proper use (Cooper and Schindler, 2001: 16). Grounded upon the aspects of good research, this chapter will discuss the population and sampling procedures, operational definitions and measurements, validity and reliability, as well as data collection and analysis.

3.1 Research Method

The purpose of this research is to investigate the causal relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. In order to obtain the data for further analysis, the survey method was selected to examine the research hypotheses. The research relies on the quantitative techniques conducted through the SPSS program. The first hypothesis, stating that transformational and servant leadership are highly correlated, was tested by using the Pearson correlation method, while the rest, specifying the relationships among variables, were analyzed by using the multiple regression method. As the research enquiries deal with attitude and preference, which are rather subjective to individuals, the variables were entirely measured with the questionnaire survey.

Organizational commitment, the dependent variable of the study, was measured according to three aspects, including affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment determines whether a respondent would like to stay with the organization, while continuance commitment focuses on the extent to which a respondent feels he/she has to continue the stay due to a calculation of cost and benefits. Normative commitment is a feeling of being committed as a result of certain values, norms, and societal pressure.

The independent variables consist of leadership styles, job satisfaction, years of service, and limitation of career alternatives. Leadership styles are of four types. First, transformational leadership is measured according to three aspects; namely, charismatic-inspirational dimension, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Second, servant leadership is measured according to the seven aspects of altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, organizational stewardship, humility, and trust. Third, transactional leadership is measured by contingent rewards and active management by exception. Fourth, laissez-faire

leadership is measured by laissez-faire or passive management characteristics. In case that transformational and servant leadership were found to be highly correlated, servant leadership was presented in the path model for further multiple regression analysis. Apart from the leadership styles, other determinants of organizational commitment are job satisfaction, years of service, and limitation of alternatives. Job satisfaction is measured with the six aspects of pay, autonomy, task requirements, organizational policies, interaction, and professional status. Years of service is measured according to the number of years one has been working in his/her current organization. Limitation of alternatives is measured with the difficulty in finding new employment with equivalent or a better offer.

The scale measuring transactional, transformational, and laissez faire leadership styles was adapted from Bass and Avolio's (2004 quoted in Hancott, 2005:129-130) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X. In the servant leadership section, the researcher developed a set of questionnaire items based on the previous research of Spears (1998: 11), Patterson (2003: 5), and Barbuto and Wheeler (2006: 300). Stamp and Piedmonte's (1986 quoted in Tauton et al., 2004: 104-107) Index of Work Satisfaction (IWS) and Meyer and Allen's (1991: 61) multidimensional commitment scale were adopted as a guideline for job satisfaction and commitment instrument construction respectively.

The questionnaire survey thereby consists of five sections. The first deals with demographic information of the respondents. The biographical data involve gender, age, educational level, years of service in the specified organization, and position. The second section concerns how the respondents rate their limitations regarding career alternatives. The third section requests an attitudinal response to the leadership styles of their immediate supervisors. The leadership styles listed are of four types: transformational, transactional, servant, and laissez-faire. The fourth section primarily focuses on job satisfaction with its six aspects of pay, autonomy, task requirements, organizational policies, interaction, and professional status. Organizational commitment fits in the last part. Questionnaire items were designed to capture the three dimensions of affective, continuance, and normative commitment types. The statements from part two to five were scored on a five-point Likert scale. The responses ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Strongly agree was translated as a 5 for analysis, agree as a 4, neutral as a 3, disagree as a 2, and strongly disagree as a 1.

3.2 Unit of Analysis

Since the research was established with the purpose of determining the relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in the community hospital settings, the unit of analysis remains at the organizational level. The population for this study is 139 community hospitals located in the central part of Thailand. The research paper does not include hospitals in other categories or hospitals located beyond the specified geographical unit, as they are assumed to contain different administrative and cultural characteristics. The population for the study is depicted by province as follows:

Table 3.1 Population of the Study

Province	Numbers of Hospitals	%
Samut Prakan	4	2.88
Nonthaburi	5	3.60
Patum Thani	7	5.04
Ayutthaya	14	10.07
Ang Thong	6	4.32
Lopburi	9	6.47
Singburi	4	2.88
Chainat	5	3.60
Saraburi	10	7.20
Chachoengsao	9	6.47
Prachinburi	6	4.32
Nakhon Nayok	3	2.16
Sa Kaeo	6	4.32
Ratchaburi	6	4.32

Table 3.1 (Continued)

Province	Numbers of Hospitals	%
Kanchanaburi	13	9.35
Suphanburi	8	5.76
Nakorn Pathom	8	5.76
Samut Sakhon	1	0.72
Samut Songkhram	2	1.44
Phetchaburi	7	5.04
Prachuap Khiri Khan	6	4.32
Total	139	100

3.3 Operational Definitions and Measurements

Following the development of the conceptual framework after the review of the literature related to leadership styles, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and relevant theories, the researcher supplied the operational definitions of each variable so that the research objectively measured the constructs. According to Deming (2000: 105), an operational definition is “a procedure agreed upon for translation of concept into measurement of some kind.” In other words, operational definitions are a prerequisite to data collection in that clearly-defined concepts eliminate the possibility of misunderstanding and ambiguity. A transformation of abstract thoughts into concrete observable variables ensures consistent data for statistical analysis. Operational definitions and measure are set forth to formulate an instrument that is valid, reliable, and practical. The measure must be as accurate as possible in reflecting what is measured, deliver consistent results, and be able to be utilized in a practicable manner. All variables are operationalized and summarized below.

Table 3.2 The Measures of Dependent and Independent Variables

Variables	Definition	Operationalization
Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment	A psychological aspect that identifies the relationship between an employee and organization and entails whether the employee is going to remain or continue with the organization	- Affective commitment - Continuance commitment - Normative commitment
Independent Variables: Leadership Styles		
Transactional Leadership	A leadership style focusing on a directive power act, contractual agreement, and contingent rewards based on goal accomplishment	-Contingent rewards -Active management by exception
Transformational Leadership	A process where leaders and followers engage in a mutual process of raising one another to higher levels of morality and motivation	-Charismatic-inspirational -Intellectual stimulation -Individualized consideration

Table 3.2 (Continued)

Variables	Definition	Operationalization
Servant Leadership	An understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader	-Altruistic calling -Emotional healing -Wisdom -Persuasive mapping -Organizational stewardship -Humility -Trust
Laissez-Faire leadership	A leadership style with passivity and reluctance to help subordinates	-Laissez-faire or passive management styles
Job Satisfaction	An attitude in working with a high level of satisfaction demonstrating positive feeling and happiness	-Pay -Autonomy -Task requirements -Organizational policies -Interaction -Professional status
Years of Service	The length of time one has stayed in his/her organization	-The number of years one works for his/her current organization
Limitation of alternatives	A perception of personal career alternatives in relation to others	- Difficulty in finding a new employment with equivalent or better offers

Questionnaire items were drafted to measure the aforementioned constructs based on previous research and the researcher's development.

3.4 Target Population and Sampling

According to Huysamen (1994: 38), a population is the total collection of all members, cases or elements about which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions", while sampling defined by Sekaran (2003: 266) is the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population, so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties or characteristics would make it possible for us to generalize such properties or characteristics to the population elements. The objective of this study is to examine the relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in community hospitals of central Thailand, and the total population is 139 community hospitals situated in the specified geographical unit. In order to ensure statistical precision, the researcher at the organizational level engaged all 139 community hospitals in the survey research. Provinces classified within the central part include Samutprakarn, Nonthaburi, Patumthani, Chainat, Saraburi, Chachengsao, Prajinburi, Srakaew, and Rachaburi.

Ten employees of each community hospital were requested to complete a self-report questionnaire scored on a 5-point Likert scale. The average score of all respondents in a community hospital was used so that it accounted for attitudes of members in the organization. The research employs quota sampling. In order to deliver a reasonably accurate response and to represent different positions in an organization, the ten respondents of each community hospital were comprised two physicians, five professional nurses, one pharmacist, one technician, and one administrative staff member. As 2 out of 139 community hospitals were selected for instrument pre-testing, the remaining population for data collection was equivalent to 137 with the number of respondents at 1,370. The study uses the community hospital as the unit of analysis; thus, the average score of all respondents in each hospital represents the individual organization.

3.5 Validity and Reliability Measurement

Validity and reliability are the two major concepts in research conduct, as they are very much concerned with the quality of measuring instruments. The tests for validity and reliability manifested in the present research are discussed. Since the concepts to be measured in social science are abstract and controversial and are often without identifiable universal definitions, developing a measuring instrument is a task that requires time and testing so as to minimize errors and to obtain accurate results. In the present study, scales were constructed to measure the independent and dependent variables based on previous research and the review of the literature. To achieve the primary goal of formulating quality measuring tools, validity and reliability are what the researcher paid attention to. According to Joppe (2000: 1), validity “determines whether the research truly measures what was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are. In other words, does the research instrument allow you to hit “the bull’s eye” of your research object? Researchers generally determine validity by asking a series of questions, and will often look for the answers in the research of others.” The same scholar also defines reliability as “the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study...and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable” (Joppe, 2000: 1). In other words, the instrument is valid when the items actually measure what they are designed to measure. Reliability, on the other hand, implies that the result is consistent with a degree of stability. Babbie (2001: 143) compares validity and reliability in the sense that the former is “the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration,” whereas the latter refers to “a matter of whether a particular technique applied repeatedly to the same object provides the same result each time.” Babbie (2001: 144) has listed four approaches in assessing validity; namely: 1) face validity, 2) criterion-related validity, 3) construct validity, and 4) content validity. Content validity adopted in this research is “how much a measure covers the range of meaning included within a concept and is considered to be a general form of validity evaluation” (Babbie, 2001: 144). In order to achieve validity, the questionnaire

items were reviewed and discussed with community hospital officials. Wording was adjusted to avoid ambiguity and to fit with the context of the healthcare industry. Appropriate technical terms were used so that the respondents could grasp the common understanding on the terminology.

Validity is necessary, but validity alone cannot yield an effective measuring instrument; reliability is also crucial in ensuring that an instrument constitutes the same results whenever applied to the same subjects. Babbie (2001: 143) discusses four means for reliability testing: 1) retest method, 2) split-half method, 3) using established measures, and 4) internal consistency. The internal consistency method, which will be explained later, has been well accepted as a general form of reliability evaluation. The level of reliability is represented in the Cronbach alpha, which measures the correlation between the indicator variables that describe a single factor. A Cronbach alpha statistical analysis was conducted to determine the reliability of the instrument. At this stage, questionnaire pre-testing was carried out in order to determine the measurement validity and reliability of the scale construction. Although the scales from previous research were used as a guideline, the researcher revised and added new items to improve the quality of the instrument and to increase the value of the application in the given context.

3.5.1 Pre-testing of Questionnaire Surveys

The pre-testing process has several purposes. Pretesting affirms the validity and reliability of the data collection. Valuable data that reflect the conceptual model and what the researcher is trying to measure rely on questionnaire validity. Consistency of the measurement is affirmed through the Cronbach alpha coefficient.

Accordingly, pretesting was conducted. Two community hospitals were chosen out of the total of 139 so that the pilot settings shared homogeneous characters with the population of the study. Preliminary questionnaires were distributed to forty-five officials in different positions at Sainoi Community Hospital, Nonthaburi, and Ladlumkaew Community Hospital, Pathumthani. There were forty complete questionnaires returned after those with missing data were excluded from the study. Due to the homogeneity that the two pilot hospitals shared with the rest of the population, pretesting played a significant role in scale

development, as it was an opportunity for the researcher to improve the items through close discussion with the respondents. Such improvements were materialized by adding new items, removing words that resulted in ambiguity, adjusting words to fit the healthcare context, and adopting common terminology to enrich understanding. Cone and Foster (1998 quoted in Warangkana Jakawattanakul, 2007: 99) add that doing a pilot test contributes to the research process in that it enables a researcher to realize whether the respondents understand and fill in the forms in accordance with the instructions. The researcher also learns prior to data collection whether the items render misunderstanding in interpretation and what the shortcomings of the designed instrument are.

3.5.2 Validity Test: Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is “a collection of procedures for analyzing the relations among a set of random variables observed or counted or measured for each individual of a group” with the purpose of accounting “for the intercorrelations among n variables, by postulating a set of common factors, considerably fewer in number than the number, n , of these variables” (Cureton and D'Agostino, 1983: 1-2). Bryman and Cramer (1990: 253) define it briefly as a statistical technique which helps us to determine the characteristics which go together. To simply put it, factor analysis is a statistical method that serves to reduce the number of variables into smaller sets of factors so that the factors are able to effectively measure the constructs in which the researcher is interested. Factor loadings, which are simple correlations between the variables and the factors they are placed within, provide an insight into the weights assigned to each item in the factor with low levels of loading, indicating that the items do not well represent the constructs that they are intended to measure. These items are to be removed from the survey, as they do not pave the way toward the objectives of the research conduct. High loading, in contrast, affirms congruity between the measuring tool and the hypothetical construct. In other words, items that truly reflect the constructs being measured will demonstrate high factor loadings when factor analysis is performed. It should be noted that “loadings of 0.5 and above are acceptable for larger samples or for exploratory analysis” (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998 quoted in Hooper and Zhou, 2007: 279).

In the present research, factor analysis with varimax rotation was used with a factor loading cut-off of 0.5. The items having a loading of 0.5 or greater remained, while those with lower than a 0.5 factor loading were eliminated. Communality is the amount of variance a variable shares with all the other variables being considered, indicating how well the data would fit the model of analysis. According to Gorsuch (1983 quoted in Lalida Chuayruk, 2006: 126), “the maximum limit [is] 1.0 if the variance [is] perfectly accounted for by the set of factors underlying the matrix, while the minimum limit [is] 0.0 if the variables [have] no correlation with any other variable in the matrix.”

During the researcher’s visit to the two community hospitals and the face-to-face interview with the community hospital officials, the instrument was developed and revised. Forty completed questionnaires formed a data set during the pre-testing process. A factor analysis was performed for validity purposes. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of each variable was calculated. In this regard, the researcher was assured of the validity and reliability of the scale and findings.

Table 3.3 Results from Factor Analysis

Variable	Name of Composite Variable/ Question No.	Varimax Solution	Communality
1.Organizational Commitment (Alpha = 0.833)			
1.1 Affective Commitment	-Wanting to continue working at the organization/ 101	0.786	0.910
	-Being proud of the organization’s reputation/102	0.672	0.993
	-Being pleased to solve the organization’s problems/103	0.584	0.960
	-Feeling how much the organization means to him/her /104	0.523	0.988

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Variable	Name of Composite Variable/ Question No.	Varimax Solution	Communality
1.2 Continuance Commitment	-Remaining due to a concern about colleagues' feeling/106	0.888	0.976
	-Taking into account the risk and loss of what has been invested in work/107	0.801	0.981
	-Taking into account the cost, opportunity cost, and benefits to drive performance/108	0.747	0.979
	-Having to remain for fear of losing benefits/105	0.676	0.888
1.3 Normative Commitment	-Intending to serve the organization/111	0.920	0.985
	-Being pleased to comply with the organization's rules and procedures/112	0.884	0.897
	-Trying to perform better than the standard/113	0.828	0.773
	-Being loyal to the organization/110	0.724	0.992
	-Promising to remain/109	0.673	0.973
2. Transactional leadership (Alpha = 0.78)			
2.1Contingent Rewards	-Giving appropriate rewards/28	0.799	0.997

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Variable	Name of Composite Variable/ Question No.	Varimax Solution	Communality
	-Assigning work to create individual opportunities/27	0.652	0.989
	-Explaining standard of rewards/26	0.557	0.973
	-Giving praise upon success/29	0.555	0.995
2.2 Active Management by Exception	-Paying attention to errors/32	0.714	0.995
	-Taking corrective action when deviation occurs/30	0.629	0.995
	-Monitoring correction/35	0.613	0.879
	-Paying attention to day-to-day problems/31	0.567	0.991
	-Keeping up with the standard/33	0.543	0.968
	-Giving advice when there is a mistake/34	0.521	0.994
3. Transformational Leadership (Alpha= 0.953)			
3.1 Charismatic- Inspirational	-Encouraging enthusiasm among members/8	0.949	0.965
	-Fostering team spirit/9	0.945	0.986
	-Being friendly and helpful/12	0.907	0.885

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Variable	Name of Composite Variable/ Question No.	Varimax Solution	Communality
	-Promoting followers' engagement in identifying goals and visions/10	0.768	0.875
	-Being optimistic/14	0.761	0.787
	-Being respectable/11	0.755	0.809
	-Devoting for collective purposes/13	0.717	0.774
	-Aligning members with hospital vision/7	0.512	0.730
3.2Intellectual Stimulation	-Establishing an atmosphere of creativity/18	0.850	0.987
	-Exchanging and learning new ideas/17	0.832	0.988
	-Seeking new solutions/15	0.641	0.994
	-Enhancing a culture of innovative thinking/16	0.508	0.819
3.3Individualized Consideration	-Paying attention to individual needs/19	0.835	0.991
	-Assigning work based on skills and ability/22	0.794	0.840
	-Having skills in giving advice and suggestions/24	0.768	0.762
	-Being a coach or trainer/25	0.731	0.973
	-Taking into account individual preferences and necessities/21	0.727	0.850

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Variable	Name of Composite Variable/ Question No.	Varimax Solution	Communality
	-Recognizing the significance of members' potential development/23	0.721	0.968
	-Listening to members/20	0.622	0.822
4. Servant Leadership (Alpha= 0.967)			
4.1 Altruistic Calling	-Understanding and trying to solve problems/40	0.734	0.991
	-Understanding members' demand/36	0.720	0.992
	-Respecting individual differences/37	0.618	0.983
	-Expressing concern to members/39	0.542	0.984
	-Trying to understand members' feeling/38	0.518	0.810
4.2 Emotional Healing	-Giving the best to members/45	0.724	0.777
	-Fostering happiness in work/43	0.689	0.705
	-Providing time and suggestions/41	0.633	0.709
	-Allowing members to meet in person/44	0.580	0.990
	-Understanding clearly what members feel/42	0.538	0.978

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Variable	Name of Composite Variable/ Question No.	Varimax Solution	Communality
4.3 Wisdom	-Thinking aside from day-to-day management/53	0.766	0.777
	-Realizing what really happens in the organization/55	0.729	0.945
	-Promoting a common understanding of vision/54	0.708	0.745
	-Being able to foresee potential problems/51	0.667	0.682
	-Encouraging feasible goal setting/52	0.641	0.789
4.4 Persuasive Mapping	-Contributing to agreement through democratic means/50	0.851	0.921
	-Motivating members to adopt new ideas/48	0.841	0.764
	-Building an inspiration/47	0.823	0.748
	-Increasing members' awareness, rather than using force/49	0.674	0.880
	-Having skills in persuasion/46	0.574	0.762
4.5 Organizational Stewardship	-Devoted to success/56	0.680	0.800
	-Increasing members' participation/58	0.612	0.743

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Variable	Name of Composite Variable/ Question No.	Varimax Solution	Communality
	-Gearing to community and social interest/57	0.517	0.699
	-Supporting activities that create unity among members/59	0.505	0.902
4.6 Humility	-Being gentle and humble/63	0.851	0.952
	-Being friendly/61	0.787	0.941
	-Praising members rather than himself/herself/62	0.608	0.862
	-Listening to others' opinion/60	0.546	0.885
4.7 Trust	-Believing that members can keep a secret/66	0.815	0.698
	-Giving independence to members/65	0.663	0.887
	-Believing in members' honesty/67	0.558	0.695
	-Assigning work based on trust/64	0.546	0.904
5. Laissez-Faire Leadership (Alpha = 0.88)	-Avoiding problem-solving activities/68	0.909	0.965
	-Not responding to members' request for support/70	0.892	0.846

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Variable	Name of Composite Variable/ Question No.	Varimax Solution	Communality
	-Not allowing members to make suggestions/69	0.787	0.883
	-Not expressing attitudes toward critical matters/71	0.779	0.971
	-Avoiding decisions/72	0.593	0.798
6. Job Satisfaction			
(Alpha = 0.874)			
6.1 Professional status	-Recognizing the significance of work/75	0.887	0.874
	-Being proud of professional status/73	0.850	0.891
	-Considering the job honorable/77	0.828	0.930
	-Aiming to help people through the job/74	0.796	0.895
	-Intending to carry on the job/76	0.507	0.783
6.2 Interaction	-Having open communication with colleagues/80	0.720	0.934
	-Being accepted by the team/79	0.759	0.821
	-Having a chance to express opinions on work system/82	0.623	0.729
	-Being pleased with the organization's success/83	0.617	0.811

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Variable	Name of Composite Variable/ Question No.	Varimax Solution	Communality
	-Helping each other/78	0.615	0.697
	-Expressing sincere attitudes/81	0.511	0.984
6.3 Organizational Policies	-Believing in the effectiveness of the policy/87	0.759	0.879
	-Being involved in policy formulation/85	0.740	0.913
	-Considering the policy critical to personal success/84	0.657	0.792
	-Being able to decide/86	0.562	0.659
6.4 Autonomy	-Having sufficient power to carry out the job/92	0.754	0.930
	-Having autonomy to complete the tasks/90	0.671	0.820
	-Being able to exercise creativity in work/89	0.595	0.648
	-Participating in work plan/88	0.586	0.777
	-Being accepted when suggestions are made/91	0.512	0.604
6.5 Pay	-Being satisfied with fringe benefits/94	0.857	0.944

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Variable	Name of Composite Variable/ Question No.	Varimax Solution	Communality
	-Receiving fair and appropriate pay/93	0.830	0.910
	-Being satisfied with accommodation provided/95	0.645	0.897
6.6 Task Requirements	-Preferring the assigned work/99	0.888	0.958
	-Being proud of work/100	0.838	0.916
	-Being assigned work in proportion with knowledge and ability/97	0.608	0.884
	-Being clearly informed of job description/96	0.605	0.713
	-Being granted appropriate workload/98	0.554	0.776
7. Limitation of Alternatives (Alpha = 0.838)	-Being given opportunities in the current job/2	0.744	0.965
	-Having difficulties in finding new jobs//3	0.737	0.941
	-Lacking confidence in seeking new jobs/5	0.682	0.872
	-Seeing risks in finding other jobs with equivalent benefits/4	0.572	0.881
	-Having security in the current job/1	0.559	0.799
	-Having limited career alternatives/6	0.547	0.721

Scale revision was undertaken based on the factor analysis in order to ensure the validity of the measurement so that the items measured what they were intended to measure. By removing those with factor loadings lower than 0.5, the researcher came up with a more meaningful scale that captured the essence of the constructs set forth in the conceptual model. According to the factor analysis and reliability test, initial variables were extracted. Some are deleted and regrouped to form a revised scale for further data collection and analysis.

Table 3.4 Initial and Revised Factor

Initial Factor	No. of Question	Revised Factor	No. of Questions
1.Organizational Commitment	15	1. Organizational Commitment	13
1.1 Affective Commitment	6	2. Affective Commitment	4
1.2 Continuance Commitment	4	3. Continuance Commitment	4
1.3 Normative Commitment	5	4. Normative Commitment	5
2. Transactional leadership	11	2. Transactional leadership	9
2.1 Contingent rewards	4	2.1 Contingent rewards	4
2.2 Active Management by exception	7	2.2 Active Management by exception	5
3.Transformational leadership	24	3.Transformational leadership	19
3.1Charismatic-inspirational	10	3.1Charismatic-inspirational	8
3.2Intellectual stimulation	6	3.2Intellectual stimulation	4
		3.3Individualized	7

Table 3.4 (Continued)

Initial Factor	No. of Question	Revised Factor	No. of Questions
3.3 Individualized consideration	8	consideration	
4. Servant Leadership	39	4. Servant Leadership	32
4.1 Altruistic calling	6	4.1 Altruistic calling	5
4.2 Emotional healing	6	4.2 Emotional healing	5
4.3 Wisdom	6	4.3 Wisdom	5
4.4 Persuasive mapping	6	4.4 Persuasive mapping	5
4.5 Organizational stewardship	6	4.5 Organizational stewardship	4
4.6 Humility	5	4.8 Humility	4
4.7 Trust	4	4.7 Trust	4
5. Laissez fair Leadership	6	5. Laissez fair Leadership	5
6. Job Satisfaction	34	6. Job Satisfaction	28
6.1 Professional status	6	6.1 Professional status	5
6.2 Interaction	8	6.2 Interaction	6
6.3 Organizational policies	6	6.3 Organizational policies	4
6.4 Autonomy	5	6.4 Autonomy	5
6.5 Pay	3	6.5 Pay	3
6.6 Task requirements	6	6.6 Task requirements	5
7. Limitation of Alternatives	7	7. Limitation of Alternatives	6

The details of the revised measurement for each variable are explained below.

3.5.3 Revised Measurement

3.5.3.1 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment as a dependent variable of the study is measured by three factors: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The results are congruent with the previous research of Meyer and Allen (1997: 13). Three aspects of commitment depict different bases upon which organizational commitment is formed. The affective dimension expresses emotional attachment in conjunction with desire and attitude. Continuance is rather a cost and benefit approach that causes one to stay with the organization. The normative dimension is commitment arising due to what ought to be in terms of social expectation. Two items of affective commitment were deleted because their loadings were lower than 0.5. All of the items in the continuance and normative dimensions during the pretesting process remained without exclusion. The reliability of the summative scale indicated by the Cronbach alpha was somewhat satisfactory. The coefficient was equivalent to 0.833.

3.5.3.2 Leadership Styles

The leadership styles discussed in the study were of four types: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, servant leadership, and laissez-faire. Transformational leadership was measured by three sub-factors; namely, charismatic-inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Some items under the transformational leadership style were re-grouped into servant leadership. Certain items on intellectual stimulation and idealized consideration were regrouped into wisdom and emotional healing respectively. The revised questionnaire consists of eight items on charismatic-inspirational motivation, four items on intellectual stimulation, and seven items on idealized consideration after those with loadings lower than 0.5 were excluded. The reliability of the extracted factors was highly satisfactory, as indicated by the Cronbach's alpha value of 0.953. Transactional leadership was measured by two sub-factors, namely contingent rewards and active management by exception. Four items on contingent rewards were affirmed by high factor loadings without subsequent deletion, while two items in active management by exception were deleted. As a result, there were four and five items on contingent rewards and active

management by exception, respectively. The reliability of the factors was 0.78. Servant leadership was measured by seven sub-factors; namely altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, organizational stewardship, humility, and trust. There were initially thirty-nine items constructed to measure servant leadership. Some items were deleted after the factor analysis. To conclude, the revised scale of servant leadership consists of thirty-three items in total: five on altruistic calling, five on emotional healing, five on wisdom, five on persuasive mapping, five on organizational stewardship, four on humility, and four on trust. The alpha reliability was relatively high at 0.967. The last, laissez-faire leadership, was measured by laissez-faire or passive management styles. The items upon the scale were reduced from six to five, with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.88.

3.5.3.3 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured by six sub-factors: professional status, interaction, organizational policies, autonomy, pay, and task requirements. According to the factor analysis, only six items were deleted. The revised scale thus consists of five items on professional status, six items on interaction, four items on organizational policies, five items on autonomy, three items on pay, and five items on task requirements. It can be concluded that the adapted scale based on Stamps and Piedmonte's (1986: 60) suggestion yielded a satisfactory reliability value of 0.874.

3.5.3.4 Limitation of Alternatives

Limitation of Career Alternatives was operationalized as the perception of personal career alternatives in relation to others; the construct was measured according to the difficulty in finding new employment with equivalent or a better offer. According to the factor analysis, seven items were reduced to six after one was removed due to low factor loadings. The reliability of the scale was rated at a comparatively high level, with an alpha coefficient of 0.838.

3.5.4 Reliability

Pallant (2005: 90) states that "when you are selecting the scales to include in your study, it is important to find scales that are reliable." The internal consistency of the scale is a means of checking the reliability, referring to "the

degree to which the items that make up the scale are all measuring the same underlying attribute (i.e. the extent to which the items ‘hang together’).” A common indicator of internal consistency is Cronbach’s alpha coefficient, for which Nunnally (1978 quoted in Pallant, 2005: 6) recommends a minimum alpha coefficient of 0.7.

The effectiveness of the measuring instrument was ensured through a test for reliability. The summative scale of leadership styles consisted of 66 items. The reliability of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, servant leadership, and laissez-faire was 0.953, 0.78, 0.967 and 0.88, respectively. The alpha reliability of limitation of career alternatives, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment was considered satisfactory, as indicated by Cronbach alpha values of 0.838, 0.874 and 0.833, respectively. The scale constructed was then considered to be reliable enough to be applied as a measuring tool.

Table 3.5 Alpha Reliability of the Scale

Variables	Alpha Reliability
Transformational Leadership	0.953
Transactional Leadership	0.78
Servant Leadership	0.967
Laissez-Faire Leadership	0.88
Limitation of Career Alternatives	0.838
Job Satisfaction	0.874
Organizational Commitment	0.833

3.6 Data Collection and Data Analysis

3.6.1 Data Collection

The study relied on primary sources of data based on the survey approach. The questionnaire was distributed to officials of different positions in all community hospitals of central Thailand through the mail with cover letters explaining the nature of the study, requesting the cooperation of the community hospitals, and assuring the respondents of the confidentiality of any information provided. The

letters were addressed to the directors of the community hospitals, offering detailed instructions as to how the questionnaires were to be completed and returned. For each community hospital, ten sets of eight-page questionnaires were to be given to two physicians, five professional nurses, one pharmacist, one technician, and one administrative staff member. The ten participants would represent their organizations. Each community hospital was supposed to return the completed questionnaire forms to the researcher via mail using the return envelope provided. Panitee Karnsomdee (2010: 138) mentions that “the questionnaire survey is an appropriate mode of inquiry for making inferences from a population.” Limsila and Ogunlana (2008: 172) specify the criteria where a survey works effectively for data collection. In their words, “questionnaire surveys were adopted for collecting data because of the advantage in yielding response in standard format from a large number of respondents from geographically dispersed location.” Although all community hospitals in the research were clustered in the central part of Thailand, they were considered geographically dispersed in terms of data collection and questionnaire compiling. Mail survey allows the researcher to reach a large cross-section target and allows for participant anonymity, which is likely to result in honest responses. According to Cooper and Schindler (2001: 134), a “1) mail survey enables the study to reach selected sample sizes within a minimum amount of time; 2) mail survey can reach a widely dispersed and difficult sample such as busy executives and directors, and 3) mail survey offers anonymity to participants, which might increase the likelihood of honest responses.” In addition, mail surveys incur less cost than those that are telephone-based or with face-to-face interviews. The approach nonetheless was time-consuming, nonresponsive, and erroneous owing to an absence of the researcher during questionnaire distribution and completion.

The questionnaire survey examines the relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment conducted at an organizational level. The officials from each hospital participating in the survey were asked to rate their opinions. Scale construction was established using a 5-point Likert scale. The responses ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The strongly agree was translated as a 5 for analysis, agree as a 4, neutral as a 3, disagree as a 2, and strongly disagree as a 1. The average score of all respondents in a community

hospital was used to represent the organization. In order to deliver a reasonably accurate response and to capture different working units in an organization, the ten respondents of each community hospital were prescribed to comprise two physicians, five professional nurses, one pharmacist, one technician, and one administrative staff member. The self-administered questionnaires required responses in the form of a tick so that the answers could be translated into numerical scores for analysis.

Items were divided into five sections as follows:

Section I: Demographic information of respondents including age, years of operation, educational level, and position

Section II: Limitation of career alternatives

Section III: Perception of leadership styles, including transformational leadership, transactional leadership, servant leadership, and laissez-faire leadership

Section IV: Job Satisfaction

Section V: Organizational Commitment

One thousand three hundred and seventy questionnaires were sent to 137 community hospitals located in the central part of the country. Each received 10 questionnaires in the package to be distributed to individual respondents. Although the total number of community hospitals in central Thailand is 139, two were involved in the pre-testing process, leaving 137 hospitals remain for data collection.

3.6.2 Response Rate

The responses represent 99 community hospitals out of the total of 137. The rate was equivalent to 72.3%, with 891 complete questionnaires out of 1370 initially distributed after some containing many unanswered questions were excluded from data analysis. The return rate was high.

3.6.3 Data Analysis

According to Sekaran (2003 quoted in Bull, 2005: 70), “inferential statistics is employed when generalizations from a sample to population are made.” Apart from providing descriptive statistics on the variables concerned, the research adopted Pearson correlation and multiple regression for the quantitative analyses.

The first hypothesis, stating that transformational and servant leadership was highly correlated, was accepted or rejected based on the Pearson correlation coefficient, while multiple regression was employed to examine how well the independent variables of leadership styles, job satisfaction, years of service, and limitation of career alternatives were able to predict the variability of the dependent variable: organizational commitment. The conceptual framework was constructed in a path model indicating the causal relationships among the variables having already been mentioned.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Chapter 4 presents the characteristics of the respondents and continues with data analysis and a discussion of research results.

4.1 Characteristics of the Respondents

This part of the research study explains the major characteristics of the respondents surveyed so as to provide demographic information and a general perspective as a background for the statistical analysis. Below, the characteristics of the respondents are summarized, consisting of gender, age, education level, positions in charge, as well as years of service.

Table 4.1 Characteristics of Respondents-Gender (891 Questionnaires)

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	165	18.52
Female	726	81.48
Total	891	100

The respondents represent the genders of the personnel working in community hospitals in central Thailand. The returned samples were made up of 18.52 percent male and 81.48 percent female respondents. It seems on its face that the proportion of female healthcare personnel in community hospitals is higher than the male counterparts. The above table offers general information regarding the respondents' gender in the surveyed community hospitals without specifying their positions .

Table 4.2 Characteristics of Respondents-Age (891 Questionnaires)

Age	Frequency	Percent
Lower than 20	157	17.62
21-30	277	31.09
31-40	359	40.29
41-50	96	10.77
51-60	2	0.22
Total	891	100

The age of the respondents is classified into five groups. The research results show that 17.62 percent of the respondents were less than 20 years of age, 31.09 percent were between 21 and 30, 40.29 percent were between 31 and 40, 10.77 percent were between 41 and 50, and 0.22 percent were between 51 and 60. It would appear from the statistics that the healthcare personnel in the community hospitals of the central area are clustered at middle age, from 21 to 40. Those at the age of 51 to 60 are rarely to be found.

Table 4.3 Characteristics of Respondents-Education Level (891 questionnaires)

Education Level	Frequency	Percent
Lower than Bachelor's Degree	41	4.60
Bachelor's Degree	659	73.96
Graduate Certificate	29	3.25
Master's Degree	149	16.72
Higher than Master's Degree	13	1.46
Total	891	100

In terms of education, most of the respondents (73.96 percent) earned a bachelor degree. A graduate certificate is higher than a bachelor's degree, but lower

than a master's degree. Those that completed a graduate certificate course remained at only 3.25 percent. This number is more or less equivalent to those whose education is lower than a bachelor's level (4.6 percent), while personnel with a master's and higher than a master's qualification made up 18.28 percent of the respondents. The statistics imply that healthcare personnel in community hospitals mostly attain at least a bachelor's degree for career advancement.

Table 4.4 Characteristics of Respondents-Position (891 questionnaires)

Positions	Frequency	Percent
Physicians	167	18.77
Nurses	439	49.33
Pharmacist	88	9.89
Technician	92	10.34
Administrative Staff	104	11.69
Total	891	100

The number of personnel in each position is in line with the criteria that the researcher set. For each community hospital, ten respondents comprised two physicians, five professional nurses, one pharmacist, one technician, and one administrative staff member. This prescription was based on the number of people holding of each position. Out of ten professional nurses, as a position that makes up half of the community hospital personnel, five were selected. The statistics indicate that the sample was justified in representing the population, as it reflects the attitudes and commitment of those across different positions.

To summarize, the characteristics of the respondents were in accordance with the researcher's criteria in terms of positions. Most of the respondents are therefore professional nurses, as they are a majority of the population working as officials in the community hospitals. More females (81.48 percent) participated in this survey than males (18.52 percent). Five hundred thirty-six respondent, accounting for 71.38 percent, were at the age between 21 and 40. According to the statistics, it can be inferred that a majority of the respondents were in their middle years. Most (73.96

percent) had earned a bachelor's degree. Only 4.6 percent of the respondents had less than a bachelor's degree.

4.2 Data Analysis and Results of the Study

In this section, the researcher examines the hypotheses of the study. According to the review of the literature, transformational leadership was hypothesized to be highly correlated with servant leadership. In the case that the first hypothesis was accepted, servant leadership, as an extension of transformational leadership theory, was selected for subsequent regression analysis. The relationships among variables were explored. Servant leadership, transactional leadership, job satisfaction, laissez fair leadership, years of service, and limitation of alternatives were hypothesized to directly influence organizational commitment. Moreover, leadership styles, years of service, and limitation of alternatives indirectly affected commitment through job satisfaction. With regard to the first hypothesis, the descriptive statistics and correlation between transformational and servant leadership are presented. The relationship was investigated by means of Pearson correlation analysis.

4.2.1 The Relationship between Transformational and Servant Leadership

From the returned sample of 891 questionnaires, there were 99 units of analysis in the research. The average scores on transformational and servant leadership remained at a moderate level of 3.58 and 3.57, respectively. For transformational leadership, the minimum score was 2.63, while the maximum was 4.43. These figures were more or less similar in the case of servant leadership, with a minimum score of 2.65 and a maximum score of 4.26. The standard deviations were 0.36 for transformational leadership and 0.4 for servant leadership, which were approximately the same. The values indicate that most of the respondents are similar in their perception of transformational and servant leadership.

The statistical analysis shows that the transformational leadership style has a positive and significantly high correlation with servant leadership, with an r -value of 0.95 at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). This high correlation is justified by the literature, revealing the overlapping nature of transformational and servant leadership. Therefore, for further multiple regression analysis to explain the relationships among

the variables, servant leadership was selected as an independent variable in the path model.

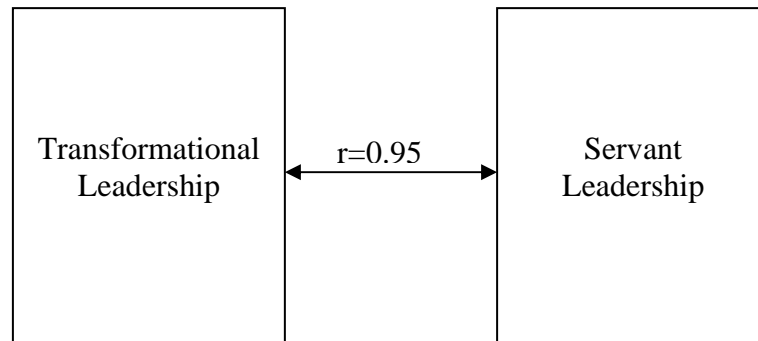


Figure 4.1 A Model Displaying the Correlation between Transformational and Servant Leadership

4.2.2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix of Independent Variables in the Path Model

The purpose of this section is to test the proposed model of analysis in order to answer the research questions and to confirm or reject the hypotheses established previously. Hence, the author used statistical package SPSS version 16.0 to analyze the survey data collected in the study. The analysis of the correlation coefficients among all independent variables was investigated to determine whether the problem of multicollinearity occurred or not. According to Pallant (2005: 142), multicollinearity refers to the relationships among the independent variables existing when the independent variables are highly correlated ($r=0.9$ and above for positive relationship or $r=-0.9$ and below for negative relationship). Nevertheless, the designated limit for multicollinearity varies. Suchart Prasith-rathsint (2005: 103) mentions that multicollinearity occurs when the correlation coefficient between two independent variables exceeds 0.75 or 0.80. In case of a negative relationship, the coefficient is lower than -0.75 or -0.80. In other words, it is a statistical phenomenon when two or more predictors are highly correlated and therefore offer redundant information, as the high correlation suggests that the variables explain the same phenomenon. A desirable situation for multiple regression is when the correlations among the independent variables remain low. Apart from this, the descriptive statistics of all variables, including mean,

standard deviation, minimum value, maximum value, and number of units of analysis, are presented. The descriptive statistics and the correlations among variables are shown in Table 4.4 and 4.5, respectively.

Table 4.5 Descriptive Statistic of the Selected Variables

Variables	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
COMMIT	99	2.74	3.82	3.409	0.215
TRANSACT	99	2.50	4.19	3.228	0.281
SERVANT	99	2.65	4.26	3.566	0.342
LAISSEZ	99	1.50	3.52	2.474	0.408
LIMIT	99	2.61	3.78	3.193	0.257
YEARS	99	6.00	25.50	14.16	4.193
JOBSAT	99	3.14	4.35	3.845	0.208

Table 4.6 Correlation Matrix and Descriptive Statistics

Variables	TRANSACT	SERVANT	LAISSEZ	LIMIT	YEARS	JOBSAT
TRANSACT	1.00					
SERVANT	0.617	1.00				
LAISSEZ	-0.394	-0.671	1.00			
LIMIT	0.447	0.463	-0.203	1.00		
YEARS	0.047	0.028	-0.106	0.111	1.00	
JOBSAT	0.487	0.682	-0.492	0.491	0.141	1.00

Note: COMMIT = organizational commitment

TRANSACT = transactional leadership

SERVANT = servant leadership

LAISSEZ = laissez-faire leadership

LIMIT = limitation of alternatives

YEARS = years of service

JOBSAT = job satisfaction

The correlations among the independent variables are at a moderate level and do not violate the fundamental assumption of multicollinearity. The lowest was 0.047, which is the correlation between transactional leadership and years of service. The highest correlation coefficient was 0.682 representing the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. These correlation values do not exceed the recommended acceptable level. Accordingly, no multicollinearity problem was found. The researcher proceeded to conduct a multiple regression analysis for further investigation of research enquiries

According to the data analysis results of the independent variables shown in the table, leadership styles and limitation of alternatives were at a moderate level, with average scores of 3.566 for servant leadership, 3.228 for transactional leadership, and 3.193 for limitation of alternatives. Among the three types of leadership identified in the path model, laissez-faire acquired the lowest mean score of 2.474, suggesting that the respondents did not quite perceive passive management characteristics in their leaders in comparison to other leadership styles. Job satisfaction ranked the highest at 3.845. As the score shows, the respondents were somewhat satisfied with their current jobs. The average time spent working in the community hospitals was 14.16.

The statistics indicate that most of the respondents greatly differed in terms of years of service, with a standard of deviation of 4.193. Among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and limitation of alternatives, the respondents expressed the most similar perception toward job satisfaction. Its standard of deviation of 0.208 was the lowest in comparison to that of other variables. On the other hand, the respondents' perception varied the most with regard to laissez-faire leadership, as indicated by the standard deviation of 0.408. Its minimum value of 1.50 implies that some organizations do not really perceive the laissez-faire characteristics of the leaders.

The dependent variable, organizational commitment, had a mean score of 3.409, implying that the respondents had a moderate level of commitment to the community hospitals where they work. They had a similar perception of commitment. With a standard of deviation of 0.215, the responses did not largely vary across individuals. The minimum value remained at 2.74, while the maximum value was 3.82.

4.2.3 The Relationships among the Variables

In the study, the survey data were analyzed based on the path model through a quantitative technique. The purpose was to explore how well the independent variables, including servant leadership, transactional leadership, job satisfaction, years of service, and limitation of alternatives, could be used to predict the dependent variable, organizational commitment. Analysis focused on both the direct and indirect relationship that the independent variables had with the dependent variable, and stepwise multiple regression was utilized to examine the research hypotheses, providing answers to the established research questions and identifying the most parsimonious model with an explanatory power.

Table 4.7 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of the Variables Directly Affecting Organizational Commitment

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients b	Standardized Coefficients beta	t	Sig. (t)
(Constant)	-.499		-34.507	.000
TRANSACT	.00149	.019	6.058	.000
SERVANT	.281	0.446	95.835	.000
LAISSEZ	.215	.408	117.236	.000
YEARS	.0007233	.141	54.987	.000
JOBSAT	.578	.558	156.446	.000
R=.774 R ² =.559 SEE=.00534 F=19125.95 Sig.F=.000				

Table 4.8 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of Variables Indirectly Affecting Organizational Commitment through Job Satisfaction

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients b	Standardized Coefficients beta	t	Sig. (t)
(Constant)	1.991		10.047	.000
SERVANT	.365	.601	7.565	.000
LIMIT	.173	.213	2.683	.009
R=.724 R ² =.525 SEE=1.4492 F=52.986 Sig.F=.000				

Note: TRANSACT= transactional leadership

SERVANT = servant leaderships

LAISSEZ = laissez-faire leadership

LIMIT= limitation of alternatives

YEARS = years of service

JOBSAT= job satisfaction

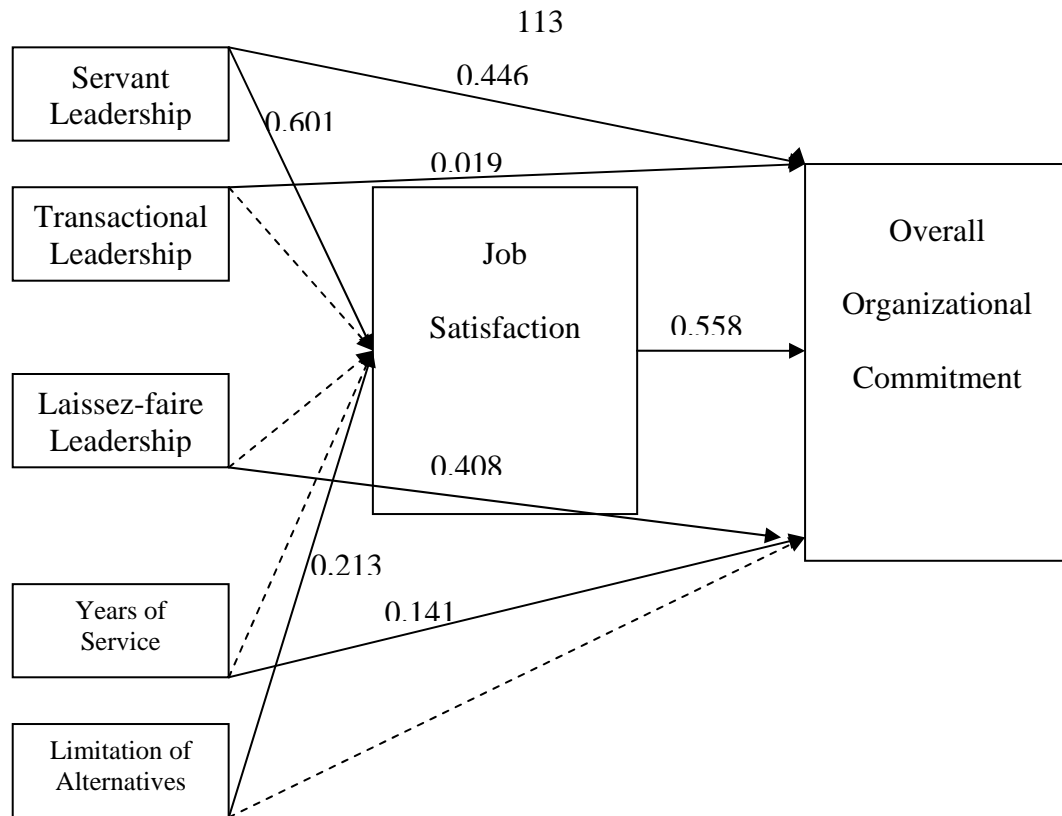


Figure 4.2 A Path Model of the Factors Affecting Organizational Commitment

Table 4.9 Direct and Indirect Influence of Transactional Leadership, Servant Leadership, Laissez-faire Leadership, Limitation of Alternatives, Years of Service, and Job Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment

Variables	r	Direct Relationship	Indirect Relationship	Total	Non-Causal Relationship
TRANSACT	0.412	0.019	-	0.019	0.393
SERVANT	0.571	0.446	0.335	0.781	-0.210
LAISSEZ	-0.196	0.408	-	0.408	-0.604
LIMIT	0.423	-	0.119	0.119	0.304
YEARS	0.189	0.141	-	0.141	0.048
JOBSAT	0.698	0.558	-	0.558	0.140

Note: -The indirect relationship of servant leadership and organizational commitment is calculated by: $0.601 \times 0.558 = 0.335$.

-The indirect relationship of limitation of alternatives and organizational commitment is calculated by: $0.213 \times 0.558 = 0.119$.

4.2.3.1 The Direct Effect of Leadership Styles, Years of Service, Limitation of Alternatives, and Job Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 2 states that servant leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, years of service, limitation of alternatives, and job satisfaction have a direct effect on organizational commitment. Data analysis indicated that organizational commitment was significantly and positively influenced by servant leadership (beta coefficient = 0.446), transactional leadership (beta coefficient = 0.019), laissez-faire leadership (beta coefficient = 0.408), job satisfaction (beta coefficient = 0.558), and years of service (beta coefficient = 0.141). Among the five variables, job satisfaction had the highest degree of influence. With a long period of service, a high level of servant, transactional and laissez-faire leadership, as well as job satisfaction, members are likely to be committed. Organizational commitment increases when they have worked for many years, feel satisfied with the job, and feel that their leaders possess servant, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership characteristics. Transactional leadership was shown to have the lowest degree of influence. However, according to the results, limitation of alternatives did not have any significant or direct impact on organizational commitment. Accordingly, hypothesis 2 was confirmed, except for limitation of alternatives, which did not significantly influence the dependent variable. Yet, laissez-faire leadership was revealed to have a positive and significant, rather than a negative, impact on organizational commitment, contrary to the literature specifying a negative relationship between the two variables. Its degree of influence was even higher than that of transactional leadership and years of service.

According to the table, variations in organizational commitment are influenced by servant leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, years of service, and job satisfaction. The results indicate that 56 percent of variations in organizational commitment can be explained by variations in servant leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, years of service, and job satisfaction. With long years of operation, the personnel tend to be more committed to their organizations. The more they perceive that their leaders are of servant and transactional characters, the more commitment they will develop. This proposition is

in line with the review of the literature, in which servant leadership was found to influence commitment. As transformational and servant leadership were highly correlated, transformational leadership therefore produced a positive and direct effect on organizational commitment in the same way that servant leadership did. This positive impact can be explained through human-oriented attributes. Servant leadership, with its seven sub-construct of altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, organizational stewardship, humility, and trust, would lead to an enthusiastic and friendly atmosphere, which would enhance the level of commitment.

Transactional leadership also had a positive but minimal influence on the dependent variable. Such findings support the add-on effects. Transactional and transformational leadership must co-exist in order to offer fruitful results. One cannot be replaced by the other due to their different focuses. Servant and transformational leadership emphasize individual needs, inspiration, and employees' wellbeing, while transactional leadership places work and accomplishment as a priority. Commitment is driven through leaders' active monitoring and support, along with granting appropriate rewards upon success. Apart from leadership, job satisfaction would result in commitment. This is not surprising if the job itself is considered a major element that ties employees to the organization. In other words, if one is happy with his or her jobs, he or she is willing to work and continue with the organization.

However, limitation of alternatives did not yield a positive or direct effect on the dependent variable. The non-significant direct influence rejected the prior hypothesis that the research suggested. It can be argued that limitation of career alternatives is not necessarily a factor that determines the level of commitment. In the case that members place their values beyond the economic benefits of employment, perceived alternatives are not counted in their decision to pursue a career prospect. Apart from this, laissez-faire leadership was positively related to organizational commitment. The results are entirely opposite to what had been hypothesized. The discrepancy between the theoretical exploration and findings within the context of the study will be further elaborated in the discussion below.

4.2.3.2 A Direct Effect of Leadership Styles, Years of Service, and Limitation of Alternatives on Job Satisfaction

Hypothesis 3 states that servant leadership, transactional leadership, Laissez-fair leadership, years of service, and limitation of alternatives have a direct effect on job satisfaction. Data analysis indicated that only servant leadership and limitation of alternatives positively influenced job satisfaction. Transactional leadership, years of service, and laissez-faire leadership did not have a significant and direct effect on job satisfaction. This non-significant impact was opposite to what the researcher had hypothesized.

Statistics entail that variation in job satisfaction are influenced by servant leadership and limitation of alternatives. The results indicated that 52.5 percent of variations in job satisfaction could be explained by variations in servant leadership and limitation of alternatives. In other words, when employees perceive their leaders have a servant leadership character and their career alternatives are limited in relation to others, they are likely to develop a high level of job satisfaction. Between servant leadership (beta coefficient = 0.601) and limitation of alternatives (beta coefficient = 0.213), the former had higher degree of influence on the extent of job satisfaction. On the other hand, variation of transactional leadership, years of service, and laissez-faire leadership did not have any significant impact on job satisfaction.

Servant leadership is causally related to job satisfaction, as the researcher hypothesized. Laub (1999: 85) proposed that “managers and workers would have higher job satisfaction in a servant organization and as a result would be freed up to perform at their highest levels of ability, leading to greater success for the organization,” as servant leadership focuses on valuing employees and human relations. The more employees perceive the servant leadership style, the more they are likely to be satisfied with their jobs. This tendency is similar to that of transformational leadership. Since the two are highly correlated, it can be expected that servant leadership is positively related to organizational commitment.

The perception of personal career alternatives in relation to others is one of the variables determining job satisfaction. Employees compare their input and outcome gained from work. They consider this input and outcome in comparison to

others. Inputs are what an individual contributes to the job, including attempt and qualification, while outcomes are what he/she financially and non-financially obtains from the job. They tend to be satisfied with their jobs in light of limited career alternatives. If employees see that their alternatives are limited and they are unlikely to find new jobs with a better or equivalent offer, they will then express satisfaction toward their current jobs.

Transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and years of service are hypothesized to have a significant impact on job satisfaction. The hypothesis, however, was rejected as no significant relationship was discovered.

4.2.3.3 The Indirect Effect of Leadership Styles, Years of Service, and Limitation of Alternatives on Organizational Commitment through Job Satisfaction

The indirect effect of the variables through job satisfaction was taken into account since the causal relationship comprised the direct and indirect effect derived from the path analysis and multiple regression. As the data analysis indicated that only servant leadership and limitation of alternatives influence job satisfaction, the two variables indirectly influenced organizational commitment through job satisfaction. The indirect relationships are calculated and discussed below.

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{SERVANT} \longrightarrow \text{JOBSAT} \longrightarrow \text{COMMIT} \quad 0.601 * 0.558 = 0.335 \\ \text{LIMIT} \quad \longrightarrow \text{JOBSAT} \longrightarrow \text{COMMIT} \quad 0.213 * 0.558 = 0.119 \end{array}$$

In other words, when employees perceive that their leaders have a servant leadership character and their career alternatives are limited in relation to others, they are likely to develop a high level of job satisfaction. The satisfaction then increases organizational commitment. Between servant leadership (0.335) and limitation of alternatives (0.119), the former had a higher degree of indirect influence on commitment.

On the other hand, variation of transactional leadership, years of service, and laissez-faire leadership did not have any significant impact on job satisfaction. Therefore, the three variables did not have an indirect influence on organizational commitment through job satisfaction. Yet, it should be noted that

transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and years of service produced a direct and positive effect on commitment. Limitation of alternatives did not directly affect commitment, but had an indirect effect through job satisfaction. Only servant leadership contained both a direct and indirect impact on commitment. Its direct and indirect impact was stronger in comparison to other variables. As servant leadership was found to be highly correlated with transformational leadership, transformational leadership had a similar effect on commitment in the same way that servant leadership did.

In terms of indirect influence, the hypothesis was hence partially accepted, with only servant leadership and limitation of alternatives exhibiting an indirect impact. Meanwhile, the non-significant effects of transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and years of service were not congruent with the research hypotheses and deliberately reflected the differences between theoretical disposition and reality. The results, however, can be justified by the context, setting, and population characteristics of the study, which rendered the three variables ineffective in yielding any statistically significant influence on job satisfaction. A discussion of the findings will provide insight into and explanation of the data analysis.

4.3 Discussion of Findings

According to the results analysis, some hypotheses were accepted while others were rejected. Hypothesis 1 on servant and transformational was affirmed in the way that servant leadership and transformational leadership were highly correlated, with a correlation coefficient of 0.95 at the 0.01 level (1-tailed) based on the Pearson analysis. This level was considered in comparison to a perfect correlation at 1. A high correlation reflects the conceptual overlapping essences of the two leadership types, which previous research has supported. As Stone, Russell, and Patterson (2003: 353) question, “Is servant leadership just a subset of transformational leadership or vice versa? Are transformational leadership and servant leadership the same theory, except for their use of different names?” Patterson (2003 quoted in Waddell, 2006: 1) similarly presents the theory of servant leadership as an extension of transformational leadership theory. Servant leadership and transformational leadership are interrelated,

as both frameworks incorporate trust, respect, vision, influence, individual orientation, communication, integrity, and empowerment. The major discrepancy is that servant leadership places primacy on service, community, and societal betterment. The researcher argues that it is difficult in terms of measurement to separate servant and transformational leadership, as they incorporate similar sub-constructs and contain minimal differences. Yet, the two theories are based on different conceptual primacy. Servant leadership views leaders as those that attempt to serve their followers. The followers are therefore the major focus of the theory. Moreover, service is directed not only toward subordinates, but also the community through organizational stewardship. The leaders do not prioritize personal or organizational interest, but look primarily at others. Transformational leadership, in contrast, places an emphasis on organizations, and leaders exercise intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and charismatic/inspirational motives for the organization's sake. Accordingly, servant leadership demonstrates a shift from organizations and leaders to embrace followers and communities. Due to the high correlation signifying the interconnectedness between the two variables, only servant leadership was selected to be present in the path analysis, as it was considered an extension of the transformational leadership concept.

It can be roughly concluded that all of the variables in the path model, including servant leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, job satisfaction, years of service, and limitation of alternatives, had an effect on organizational commitment. The effect can be viewed as direct, indirect through job satisfaction, or both. Servant leadership was the only variable that had both a direct and indirect relationship with commitment. Transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, job satisfaction, and years of service directly affected commitment level. An indirect relationship through job satisfaction occurred with limitation of alternatives. In other words, the variable did not exhibit a direct effect but indirectly affected commitment via job satisfaction.

Below, the relationship between variables are discussed, particularly with respect to the results that were not in accordance with the literature review. These are, first, the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organizational commitment. While the literature and previous research suggested a negative relationship, the

present data analysis reported the positive influence that laissez-faire leadership exerts on commitment level. Second, contrary to the literature, limitation of alternatives was revealed to have a non-significant direct effect on commitment. Apart from this, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, years of service, and limitation of alternatives, which are supposed to have a direct impact on job satisfaction, did not cast any significant effect as such. Arguments and reasons will be investigated and proposed to justify the research results and deviation from the existing theoretical review. Emphasis will be placed on those that are not in line with the literature review and previous research: the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organizational commitment, the relationship between limitation of alternatives and organizational commitment, the relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction, the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and job satisfaction, as well as the relationship between years of service and job satisfaction. A rejection and acceptance of the research hypotheses, as well as the relationships among the variables in the path model, will be described with an explanation of the results provided.

4.3.1 The Relationship between Servant Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Servant leadership positively affects organizational commitment. To say it plainly, the more servant leadership that members perceive, the more commitment they are likely to have toward the organizations. It should be noted that among all variables, servant leadership exhibits the second strongest direct influence after job satisfaction, with a beta coefficient of 0.446. The statistically significant relationship is the same as what the researcher has hypothesized. The participatory style of leadership is positively connected to organizational commitment. Supervisors that allow member participation in the decision-making process, along with treating employees with respect, consideration, and fairness, encourage a higher level of commitment. Upon this basis, servant and transformational leadership was assumed to have a positive effect, as they are more human oriented than the transactional form. As Barbuto and Wheeler (2006: 321) state, “servant leadership may precede other positive organizational outcomes, such as organizational citizenship behavior,

organizational commitment, worker engagement, and other measures of performance. This statement is supported by the research results. Therefore, organizational leaders can establish commitment among members through altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, organizational stewardship, and humility and trust. That is to say, the leaders in the context of community hospitals of central part of Thailand are expected to place others' interest over their own and to work to meet followers' needs, foster spiritual recovery in others through empathy, become aware of the situations surrounding them, exercise persuasive skills in gearing members towards a vision, contribute to community development and spirit in the workplace, and act in a humble manner and have confidence in followers.

4.3.2 The Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Transactional leadership positively affects organizational commitment. To say it plainly, the more transactional leadership members perceive, the more commitment they are likely to have toward the organizations. It should be noted that transactional leadership exhibits a weaker direct influence than servant leadership, and even the weakest influence of all, with a beta coefficient of 0.019. This statistically significant relationship is the same as what the researcher had hypothesized. Servant and transactional leadership advance direct and positive relations with organizational commitment. However, transformational leadership affects commitment to a greater extent than transactional leadership. As the literature suggests, transactional leadership primarily focuses on jobs, control, and supervision, with a direction toward goal accomplishment. Members are given support when deviation from standards occurs. A transactional form of leadership also emphasizes financial and non-financial rewards to increase members' motivation. Accordingly, as Bass (1999 quoted in Kim, 2009: 115) maintains, transactional leadership should not at all be replaced by transformational leadership. Transformational and servant leadership is rooted in members and a human "soft side," including emotional attributes, while transactional leadership rather underscores the significance of success through job stimuli. Perceiving the data analysis, the researcher would argue that the provision of care, concern, inspiration, and individual focus reflected in servant leadership are more

important in the community hospital context than are supervision and rewards. Nevertheless, a leader requires the two qualities to a managerial approach—servant and transactional leadership—and both have a statistically significant impact on commitment. Despite the minimal degree of influence, transactional leadership still has an impact on commitment based on active monitoring and rewards given upon achievement. This result fit with the research setting in which knowledge workers are present in a large proportion. There is a tendency for knowledge workers to demand servant and transformational forms of leadership, which offer guidance and support in the long term, rather than transactional leadership and day-to-day management.

4.3.3 The Relationship between Laissez-faire Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Laissez-faire leadership positively affects organizational commitment. To say it another way, the more laissez-faire leadership members perceive, the more commitment they are likely to have toward the organization. It should be noted that laissez-faire leadership exhibits an even stronger direct influence than transactional leadership, with a beta coefficient of 0.408. The statistically-significant relationship is explicitly contrary to what the researcher has presumed. According to the literature review, laissez-faire leadership is supposed to negatively affect organizational commitment, as it is considered a do-nothing or hands-off approach, with behaviors including staying away from employees, shirking supervisory duties, and being inactive rather than reactive or proactive. However, the result completely rejects the hypothesis since laissez-faire leadership establishes another direction of causal relationship with commitment. Interestingly enough, the relationship was discovered to be positive, rather than negative.

The present research results suggest that laissez-faire leadership is not always negative. Barnett, Marsh and Craven (2005: 11), in “The Fallacy of Laissez-Faire Leadership: a Multilevel Analysis of the Influence of Leadership Avoidance Behaviours on Aspects of School Learning Environment,” disclose a statistical analysis indicating that if staff respondents perceive high levels of laissez-faire leadership displayed by their principal, their perception of affiliation or staff collegiality also rises. That is, due to the lack of leadership, members band together so

that they can carry out tasks. In this scenario, they rely more on interpersonal exchange of knowledge and cooperation than supervision. The circumstance thus strengthens the affiliation, relations, and ties among colleagues and sub-units. Barnett, Marsh, and Craven (2005: 11) mention a leadership substitution effect, or a substitutionary leadership effect, which is also based on previous research. The effect occurs when leadership is irrelevant to an organization and when a leader does not function or becomes dysfunctional. In a school setting, “this style of leadership may foster collegial relations to the point where no one group member’s decision-making is considered more important than another’s, and so a genuine atmosphere of working is created” (Barnett, Marsh, and Craven, 2005: 12). The importance of a team and collaborative atmosphere arise in light of minimal leadership. It is a fallacy to assume that laissez-faire and passive management are undesirable in all aspects. Leaders have to be cautious when and where the laissez-faire context should be applied to bring about fruitful results.

A more or less similar conclusion has been proposed by Goodnight (2004: 820). Laissez-faire leadership “may be the best or the worst of leadership styles” depending on the stage at which it is applied (Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson, 2000 quoted in Goodnight, 2004: 822). When employees are new and do not have sufficient knowledge of their jobs, leaders are supposed to act in an autocratic manner. Autocratic leadership is a style in which leaders exercise absolute power and rigorous control to ensure compliance and conformity. Once the employees are competent, the leaders may consider switching to a democratic style showing consideration, concern, listening, advice giving, and empowerment. The employees are given an opportunity to practice functioning as pseudo-managers. As they gain expertise and maturity, a laissez-faire style with minimal intervention is highly recommended.

The conclusion offered is able to explain the present research result in a community hospital setting where the respondents are physicians, nurses, and technicians with professional experience. Even if laissez-faire leadership is imposed, they are able to work in a team or sub-group. Job requirements and procedures can be exchanged from employees to employees, thus leading to a warm and enthusiastic atmosphere of work. Yet, future research is still needed to warrant the effect of laissez-faire leadership in a healthcare context.

4.3.4 The Relationship between Years of Service and Organizational Commitment

Years of service positively affects organizational commitment. To say it another way, organizations with employees working for a longer period cultivate a higher level of organizational commitment. Though its impact is less than that of laissez-faire, length of service exhibits a stronger direct effect than transactional leadership, with a beta coefficient of 0.141. The statistically-significant relationship is the same as what the researcher had hypothesized. Years of service advance direct and positive relations with organizational commitment. As the literature suggests, the proposition can also be justified in the sense that employees that work for a long period tend to develop shared feelings with the organization's history and future. Their employment alternatives decrease, while financial and non-financial forms of investment are added up. To support the result, the researcher quotes Meyer and Allen's (1997: 43), who say that it is "possible that employees need to acquire a certain amount of experience to become strongly attached to it, or that long-service employees retrospectively develop affective attachment to the organization. More specifically, Cohen (1993: 143) maintains that length of service is "a variable focused more on events and factors in the specific job and organization" and discovered significant monotonic increases in commitment across career stages. Initially, psychological tendency and expectation influence the desire to stay with the organization. Over time, they become engaged in various acts which heighten the extent to which they are committed. Accumulated investment, emotional attachment, and resistance to change as time passes would potentially lead to organizational commitment.

4.3.5 The Relationship between Limitation of Alternatives and Organizational Commitment

Limitation of alternatives does not have a statistically-significant relationship with commitment. That is, the variation in commitment cannot be explained by limitation of alternatives. This non-significant relationship is explicitly contrary to the researcher's hypothesis. Limitation of alternatives was hypothesized to positively affect organizational commitment, as the difficulty in finding new employment with an equivalent or better offer theoretically constitutes willingness to stay. However, the

result completely rejects the hypothesis since there is no causal relationship between the two variables.

The present research results suggest that limitation of alternatives may not increase or diminish commitment level. To justify the phenomenon, Bar-Haim (2007: 203), in “Rethinking Organizational Commitment in Relation to Perceived Organizational Power and Perceived Employment Alternatives,” comments that many people choose active modes of positive commitment, even though they perceive an availability of employment alternatives. Also, despite the small amount of organizational power they have, they do not rush to pursue such alternatives, but are willing to contribute their knowledge and skills. The sense of collective belonging, he remarks, is “well-known in non-western culture” (Bar-Haim, 2007: 203). Upon this basis, commitment in a non-western perspective is based on collectivism rather than a gainful contract.

Apart from this, Iverson and Buttigieg (1998 quoted in Nyengane, 2007: 54) maintain that a perception towards employment alternatives often works in conjunction with attitudes towards other components of the jobs. For instance, even with wide-ranging alternatives offered, employees may choose to remain due to family factors, which hamper the possibility of relocation. From the researcher’s point of view, a factor worth mentioning here is attitude toward the organization, as the research setting here is community hospitals sharing a characteristic with public organizations. Supamas Trivisvavet (2004: 80) claim that “the public sector in Thailand is often associated with an honorable career (albeit for lower pay), job stability and long-term benefits (health insurance, tenure, pension funds, etc.)” Therefore, the issue of alternatives is not significant as there are other factors that override its impact.

4.3.6 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Job satisfaction positively affects organizational commitment. To say it plainly, the more job satisfaction members feel, the more commitment they are likely to have toward the organizations. Organizations with a high level of job satisfaction will result in more commitment among employees. It should be noted that the impact of job satisfaction on organizational commitment is stronger than servant leadership

and the strongest of all, with a beta coefficient of 0.558. The statistically-significant relationship is the same as what the researcher had hypothesized. It can be concluded in terms of direct influence that job satisfaction is more important in cultivating commitment than leadership. Job satisfaction consists of extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction. The extrinsic benefits are payment, compensation, and rewards, as well as career advancement and promotion. Intrinsic satisfaction involves enjoyment, challenges, support, personal growth, recognition, and work atmosphere. With job satisfaction, employees are happy with their jobs and would like to remain. They also bear in mind the cost and benefits of leaving. Satisfaction is counted as a factor that makes the cost of leaving high from a personal view.

4.3.7 The Relationship between Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Servant leadership affects organizational commitment indirectly through job satisfaction. In other words, the more servant leadership members perceive, the more job satisfaction they are likely to have toward the organizations. Job satisfaction will then increase commitment level. It should be noted that among all variables, servant leadership exhibits the strongest indirect influence, with a beta coefficient of 0.601. The statistically-significant relationship is the same as that stated in the researcher's hypothesis. Servant leadership has positive effects on job satisfaction. This is foreseeable since servant leadership focuses on valuing employees and human relations emphasis with workers as its primary focus linking closely with intrinsic job satisfaction. When employees perceive a servant style of leadership on the part of the leader, they are likely to be satisfied with their jobs. Aside from this, the high correlation and the overlapping nature of servant and transformational leadership imply that transformational leadership indirectly affects organizational commitment through job satisfaction as well.

4.3.8 The Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Transactional leadership does not have a statistically-significant relationship with job satisfaction. This variable does not affect organizational commitment indirectly through job satisfaction. That is, the variation in job satisfaction cannot be

explained by transactional leadership. This non-significant relationship is explicitly contrary to the researcher's hypothesis. Transactional leadership was hypothesized to positively affect job satisfaction. However, the result completely rejects the hypothesis since there is no causal relationship between the two variables.

The present research results suggest that transaction may not increase or diminish job satisfaction level. Arguably, the researcher would claim that transactional leadership might have an impact on job success, rather than satisfaction, since the transactional sub-constructs of active monitoring and contingent rewards do not pay attention to human sentiment, but are projected to task achievement. Riaz and Haider (2010: 35) in the "Role of Transformational and Transactional Leadership on Job Satisfaction and Career Satisfaction" disclose findings in which transactional leadership was found to be positively and strongly related to job success as compared to transformational leadership, while it maintains a relatively much weaker relationship with career satisfaction. Transactional leadership particularly pertains to an exchange-based relation, a goal-oriented approach, and day-to-day management, rather than fostering satisfaction in the long term.

4.3.9 The Relationship between Laissez-faire Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Laissez-faire leadership does not have a statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction. The variable did not affect organizational commitment indirectly through job satisfaction. That is, the variation in job satisfaction cannot be explained by laissez-faire leadership. This non-significant relationship is explicitly contrary to the researcher's hypothesis. Laissez-faire leadership was hypothesized to negatively affect job satisfaction, as leaders are not responsible for guiding or assisting followers. However, the result completely rejects the hypothesis since there is no causal relationship between the two variables.

The researcher would argue that, in the hospital setting where employees are primarily knowledge workers and professionals, passive management may not exert any significant effects, as staff are banded together, exchange knowledge, and work in teams. The non-presence of leadership might, in this sense, not affect the level of job satisfaction since assistance and advice can be sought from other colleagues.

Therefore, reliance on team members and knowledge sharing would make the absence of leadership insignificant. Still, it is important to have leaders with a servant and transformational style in the organization.

4.3.10 The Relationship between Years of Service and Job Satisfaction

Length of service does not have a statistically-significant relationship with job satisfaction. The variable does not affect organizational commitment indirectly through job satisfaction. That is, the variation in job satisfaction cannot be explained by years of service. This non-significant relationship is explicitly contrary to the researcher's hypothesis. Years of service were hypothesized to positively affect job satisfaction. However, the result completely rejects the hypothesis since there is no causal relationship between the two variables.

It is worth mentioning that length of service affects only organizational commitment, not job satisfaction. Satisfaction does not much vary as time passes in this specific context. The researcher would argue in support of the data analysis by referring back to the definition of commitment and job satisfaction. Organizational commitment is a tie between an individual and the organization, and a cumulative attitude toward an entity depending largely on extensive work experience. Time plays a crucial role culminating in commitment. Job satisfaction, on the other hand, is an emotional state which one feels when considering job conditions. This concept is thus closely related to the immediate circumstances that individuals encounter at a certain stage. More empirical research is required to verify the claim.

4.3.11 The Relationship between Limitation of Alternatives and Job Satisfaction

Limitation of alternatives affects organizational commitment indirectly through job satisfaction. In other words, the more limitation of alternatives members perceive, the more job satisfaction they are likely to have with the organizations. Job satisfaction will then increase commitment level. It should be noted that, between the two variables having an indirect effect, limitation of alternatives exhibits a far less degree of influence, with a beta coefficient of 0.119. The statistically-significant relationship is the same as the researcher's hypothesis and is in line with the equity

theory, in which individuals investigate what they gain and invest in working. They make a comparison with others to evaluate a personal state. Job satisfaction is derived from the attitude toward one's present condition, but also from an examination of other job alternatives.

4.4 Conclusion

The data analysis unveils a high correlation between transformational and servant leadership in accordance with the literature supporting the largely overlapping attributes of the two concepts. Since servant leadership was reviewed to contain transformational elements, it was selected for further analysis of the relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

The relationship explored here is of two types. The first is a direct relationship, examining how the variables in consideration influence organizational commitment. Servant leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, years of service, and job satisfaction positively and significantly affect commitment. Only limitation of alternatives did not have an impact. Job satisfaction exerted the highest degree of direct influence, while the least was attributed to transactional leadership.

Second, there is an indirect relationship. Only two variables, including servant leadership and limitation of alternatives, positively and significantly affected commitment through job satisfaction. Transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and years of service did not have an indirect impact. A servant leadership style produces a much greater influence on job satisfaction than limitation of alternatives does.

Some of the findings did not conform to the research hypotheses. Contrary to the previously-hypothesized negative relationship, laissez-faire leadership was found to positively affect organizational commitment, suggesting that it is a fallacy to assume that laissez-faire and passive management are undesirable in all aspects. Collegial relations might be strengthened in light of minimal leadership and justify a positive change in organizational commitment. Next, limitation of alternatives, which is supposed, based on the literature, to influence organizational commitment, was

revealed to have no significant effect. This non-significance may be due to a sense of collective belonging. An employee feels he/she belongs to the organization and refuses to take up other employment alternatives even when a better offer is proposed.

In terms of an indirect impact on commitment through job satisfaction, some of the findings reject these hypotheses. Transactional and laissez-faire leadership did not have any statistically-significant effect on job satisfaction. The researcher would argue that transactional and laissez-faire leadership in the hospital setting may not enlarge or diminish job satisfaction since they are directed toward job success rather than feeling. Additionally, cooperation among knowledge workers arguably bridges the gap when a management style is passive.

To summarize, all of the variables had an effect on commitment. Most of them had only a direct influence. In terms of total causal relationships, servant leadership yielded the highest effect, suggesting that servant as well as transformational styles bring about commitment among employees. Job satisfaction produced the second highest effect based on its direct relationship with commitment. Meanwhile, enhancing organizational commitment in the community hospital did not much require a transactional style of leader, as indicated by its lowest total effect.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, the researcher attempts to draw conclusions in response to the hypotheses and findings. Then, the contribution will be discussed, focusing upon the theoretical foundation and applications. Finally, recommendations related to the topic and future research prospects will be offered.

5.1 Conclusions

This part of the research explains the results of the study in response to the purposes and hypotheses. The conclusions will then pave the way toward the contribution and recommendations which can be applied for practical use. The research was aimed to explore the relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in the settings of the community hospitals located in central Thailand. Also, in terms of practice, the researcher would like to provide policy recommendations for enhancing organizational commitment within the context of the study which will help in human resource management and employee retention. In line with these purposes, three questions were raised as to whether leadership styles have an influence on overall organizational commitment, whether leadership styles indirectly affect organizational commitment through job satisfaction, and whether job satisfaction itself influences commitment. In order to achieve the answers and to fulfill the research objectives, the proposed model of analysis was developed, with leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment incorporated into the conceptual framework. Leadership explored here was of four styles: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and servant leadership. Although the research primarily looks into the notion of leadership, job satisfaction, and their influences on commitment, two control variables were added to contribute to the explanatory power of the model. These include years of service, which is how long the respondents worked in the

organizations, and limitation of career alternatives, which was the extent to which the respondents perceived they could find employment alternatives with a better or equivalent offer. Questionnaire items were developed to measure the constructs. To ensure the associations among the variables and scale validity, the researcher employed factor analysis and reliability testing in an attempt to develop the research instrument. The questionnaires were distributed to 137 community hospitals located in the central part of Thailand. Ninety-nine hospitals sent back responses, forming the data for the statistical analysis.

Prior to an investigation of the causal relationships, first servant and transformational leadership were hypothesized to be highly correlated, as the literature suggests the overlapping characters of the two concepts. The hypothesis was confirmed due to the Pearson Correlation Method revealing a correlation coefficient of 0.95. Servant leadership was selected for a further path analysis. The proposed path model included one dependent variable, organizational commitment, and six critical independent variables. These were servant leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, job satisfaction, years of service, and limitation of alternatives. In order to test the specified model, multivariate quantitative analysis was used. Stepwise regression revealed that most of the hypotheses were accepted. All of the variables affected commitment. The effects were direct, indirect through job satisfaction, or both. Servant leadership produced both direct and indirect effects. Job satisfaction, laissez-faire leadership, transactional leadership, and years of service had a direct impact on commitment, while limitation of alternatives had only an indirect effect through job satisfaction. In terms of a total causal relationship, servant leadership and job satisfaction yielded the highest and second highest degree of effect respectively.

Among those variables having a direct relationship with organizational commitment, job satisfaction had the highest effect, as it was an attitude of people toward job conditions, including professional status, interaction, organizational policies, autonomy, pay, and task requirements. With job satisfaction, employees were happy with their jobs and would like to remain. In terms of a total causal relationship, job satisfaction ranked the second after servant leadership.

Servant leadership exerted the highest causal effect on organizational commitment. The effect was both direct and indirect. Its direct effect ranked the

second after that of job satisfaction. The more servant leadership that members perceive, the more job satisfaction and the more commitment they are likely to have toward the organizations. The positive relationship with job satisfaction and organizational commitment confirmed the research hypotheses. The high correlation and overlapping nature of servant and transformational leadership implies that transformational leadership affects organizational commitment directly and indirectly through job satisfaction.

Transactional leadership positively affects organizational commitment. However, unlike servant leadership, transactional leadership did not have a statistically-significant relationship with job satisfaction. In terms of direct influence, though the positive relationship conforms to the hypothesis, it should be noted that transactional leadership exhibited a weaker direct influence than servant leadership and even the weakest influence of all. Analysis revealing the non-significant relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction rejected the research hypothesis, in which transactional leadership was expected to have a positive impact on job satisfaction.

Laissez-faire leadership positively affects organizational commitment. To say it another way, the more laissez-faire leadership that members perceive, the more commitment they are likely to have toward the organizations. It should be noted that laissez-faire leadership exhibits an even stronger direct influence than transactional leadership. The statistically-significant relationship was explicitly contrary to the hypothesized negative relationship. In terms of an indirect influence through job satisfaction, laissez-faire leadership did not have a statistically-significant relationship with job satisfaction. That is, the variation in job satisfaction could not be explained by laissez-faire leadership. The non-significant relationship was opposite to the negative relationship assumed in the research hypothesis.

As hypothesized, years of service positively affects organizational commitment. Organizations with employees working for a longer period cultivate a higher level of organizational commitment. Its impact was less than that of laissez-faire, but stronger than that of transactional leadership. Nevertheless, the variable did not affect organizational commitment indirectly through job satisfaction. That is, the variation in job satisfaction could not be explained by years of service.

Limitation of alternatives did not have a statistically-significant relationship with commitment, but affected organizational commitment indirectly through job satisfaction. In other words, the more limitation of alternatives that members perceive, the more job satisfaction they are likely to have toward the organizations. Job satisfaction will then increase commitment level.

According to the statistical results of the study, some variables were not causally related to job satisfaction or organizational commitment. Accordingly, the hypotheses were rejected. It would appear that the study partially fulfilled the research questions. As there were many factors, both endogenous and exogenous, that affected organizational commitment, the following reasons have been investigated and discussed in relation to organizational theory, organizational culture, and research settings.

1) Hospitals are, according to Mintzberg¹ (1979: 20), a professional bureaucracy focusing upon standardization where knowledge and specialized skills

¹ Mintzberg proposes that the contingency factors, for instance, environment, technologies, size, and power, are what influence structural choices, which can be categorized into five configurations, each involving the interactions among strategic apex, operating core, middle line, technostructure, and support staff. The simple structure is targeted at a small-sized or newly-established firm and thus juxtaposed with low complexity and formalization. Organization structure is flat, with importance given to persons at a strategic apex that possess centralized authority. The machine bureaucracy such as government offices is marked with the goal of standardization. The certainty of its environment and highly routine tasks are linked with a high level of centralization, formal communication, and a clear chain of command, with importance given to technostructure persons that undertake standardizing activities. A professional bureaucracy is identical to the machine bureaucracy, as it is aimed at standardization. Yet, differences lie on the basis that emphasis is given to those in the operating core that perform professional tasks. In crucial decision making, power is therefore decentralized to those having authority of knowledge and expertise. Differentiation is horizontal, rather than vertical but still is based on formal communication. The divisionalized form is separated into headquarters and divisions. Each division is autonomous and is under the control of middle management or division managers. The headquarters act as an external actor that conducts monitoring and evaluating activities, as well as provides supporting services. The divisional units are operated in stability with routine tasks more or less identical to the context of the machine bureaucracy. Finally, adhocracy is an organization that emerges for a specific purpose, during emergency or crises, and lasts for a temporary period. Owing to the dynamic and changing conditions, the structure of adhocracy is distinct with decentralization, informal network, and low level of vertical differentiation to achieve speed, flexibility, and responsiveness. Adhocracy might take place in the form of a virtual organization, where group members remain geographically distant but keep contact with one another through a computer network in order to accomplish organizational goals.

are valued as a key factor. He proposes that the contingency factors, for instance, environment, technologies, size, and power, are what influence structural choices, and these can be categorized into five configurations, each involving the interactions among strategic apex, operating core, middle line, technostructure, and support staff. One of the configurations is professional bureaucracy, in which emphasis is given to those in the operating core who perform professional tasks. In crucial decision making, power is therefore decentralized to those having authority of knowledge and expertise. Differentiation is horizontal, rather than vertical, but is still based on formal communication. Individual members are expected to learn continuously, to collect and to encode what they have learned so that it can be easily retrieved for future use. At an organizational level, knowledge constitutes an increase in productivity and success. Human resources are therefore a critical factor with potentiality to create, acquire, store, share, and retrieve knowledge for self and organizational development. In the present research, community hospitals were selected as a subject of analysis due to their significance in providing integrated primary and secondary healthcare services for the district health service system, disease prevention, and health promotion. Each is responsible for people in its district location and remains in close contact with the specified communities. A professional bureaucracy justifies a leadership substitution effect, or a substitutionary leadership effect. This effect occurs when leadership is irrelevant to an organization and when a leader does not function or becomes dysfunctional. Affiliation or staff collegiality however supplants. That is, due to the lack of leadership, members are banded together so that they can carry out the tasks. In this scenario, they rely more on interpersonal exchange of knowledge and cooperation than supervision. Affiliation, relations, and ties among colleagues and sub-units are strengthened. The importance of a team and collaborative atmosphere arises in light of minimal leadership. Competence and personnel expertise override the significance of leadership. Physicians, nurses, and technicians with professional experience are able to work in a team or sub-group. Information and procedures can be exchanged from employees to employees. Yet, it is misleading to assume that a leader is not required in organizations of this type. The findings support the idea that servant leadership exhibits the highest total causal effect on organizational commitment. Consequently, it pays to have leaders with a servant and transformational style in an organization.

2) Knowledge management and community of practice have augmented knowledge sharing and teamworking. The twenty-first century is regarded as an era of knowledge, which has replaced traditional factors of production, including capital, land, and labor and become a strategic resource in organizational competition. Wijan Panich (2004: 1) proposes that knowledge and knowledge management contribute to responsiveness, innovation, competency, as well as efficiency. This proposition has been asserted by a number of authors that have stressed the idea that a competitive advantage is obtained through knowledge management (Teece, 1998: 62). Nonaka (1994: 16) further claims that the identification of valuable tacit knowledge possessed by organizational members and a conversion of the tacit into explicit knowledge, which can be mined, organized, stored, and shared throughout the organizations, are factors that would potentially lead to competitive advantage as such. In the Thai context, Article 11, the Royal Decree on Criteria and Direction for Good Governance B.E.2546, stipulates that knowledge management is a key for public organizations. Organizations are required to handle, analyze, and synthesize data and information for the application of knowledge derived in an accurate, appropriate, and timely manner. The Decree also highlights capacity building at an individual level with the prospect of fostering learning organizations. The above theoretical initiative was transformed into an action plan when the Office of the Public Sector Development Commission, in cooperation with Thailand Productivity Institute, organized a workshop on Knowledge Management: from Theory to Practice in 2005. Each organizational unit has to specify its KM focus area and desired state in compliance with the government strategic plan, vision, and mission. Community hospitals are therefore under a coercive and economic force to reduce costs and maximize efficiency via knowledge management implementation.

Hence, in order to constitute knowledge management, organizations should foster a culture of collaboration, while getting rid of a culture of bureaucratic isolation, which restricts the possibility of the knowledge management process. Mcnabb (2007: 34) analyzes the cultural patterns that pave the way to knowledge management success. There are two types of culture: a culture of collaboration, which leads to knowledge management, and a culture of bureaucratic isolation, which restricts the possibility of the knowledge management process. A culture of

collaboration emphasizes knowledge sharing through an exchange of experience among organizational members. Trust, willingness, and determination foster a community of practice, in which members participate, discuss their views of problems, and interact in culminating knowledge and personal relationship. The idea is feasible with recognition and rewards which encompasses both financial and non-financial motives, such as adding up challenges and responsibilities. Knowledge sharing is also influenced by leaders' quality, including ethical behavior, as well as respect and responsibility in their commitment to knowledge management initiatives, formulation of strategic plans, and provision of resources an openness. A culture of bureaucratic isolation, on the other hand, implies criticism and fear, which hamper the prospect of knowledge management. Organizational members reject mutual sharing of knowledge, resulting in knowledge hoarding. This type of culture is rooted in the use of coercive force, unethical behavior, turf, protection, and conflict. Cultural change is thus essential for the transformation of an entity into a knowledge organization.

Knowledge management in this sense is intertwined with learning organization in their reliance on interaction and sharing among individuals. A learning organization looks at members as a constituent of the organization. Systematic shifts are achieved based on changes at the individual level. An individual has the capacity for change, which can be materialized through learning. Learning organizations incorporate five major concepts. Personal mastery is the discipline of continually clarifying and deepening personal vision, of focusing our energies, of developing patience, and of seeing reality objectively. The second is mental models, which are deeply ingrained assumptions, generalizations, or even pictures or images that influence how one understands the world and takes action. Organizational members are likely to have different mental models grounded upon their experience, environment, family life, and educational background. Through communication, organizations must ensure the congruity and alignment of the members' mental models so that they can move forward to a shared vision. Next, a shared vision is a vision which draws out the commitment of people throughout the organization. Building a shared vision involves the skills of unearthing shared pictures of the future that foster genuine commitment and enrollment, rather than compliance. Team learning, then, starts with dialogue, the capacity of members of a team to suspend assumptions and enter into genuine

thinking together. Finally, system thinking is categorized as the fifth discipline because it is the conceptual cornerstone that underlies all of the five learning disciplines and how learning organizations think about the world, with a shift of mind from seeing parts to seeing the whole in a long-term view. Learning is accordingly a creation of effective change, which can be fostered through clear vision and communication, trust, policy participation, people empowerment and commitment, training, and provision of assistance.

Knowledge management is connected with teamworking, assisting, and collegial affiliation. Personal relationships, trust, and respect pave the way to collaboration among members. Passive management does not yield a negative impact and is even an appropriate mechanism when the members realize what they should do and rely on well-qualified colleagues for advice in daily operations. According to Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (2000 quoted in Goodnight, 2004: 822), laissez-faire leadership “may be the best or the worst of leadership styles” depending on the stage at which it is applied. When employees are new and do not have sufficient knowledge of their jobs, leaders are supposed to act in an autocratic manner. Autocratic leadership is a style in which leaders exercise absolute power and rigorous control to ensure compliance and conformity. Once they gain expertise and maturity, a laissez-faire style with minimal intervention is highly recommended.

3) Apart from organizational configurations, the nature of public management is worth mentioning in an attempt to explain the research findings. Balfour and Wechsler (1996: 26) reckon:

Although there has been a dramatic resurgence in research on organizational commitment, there have been only a few studies that have investigated organizational commitment in the public sector. As a result, we lack constructs anchored in the work experiences of public employees and have developed only limited theory about commitment in public organization.

Since theories in organization study primarily tackle the private sector, an application of the theoretical frameworks in light of public organization setting may

deliver results that violate the preexisting assumptions. Sectoral differences should be pinpointed to enlarge an understanding between public and private sectors in discussing commitment. The inherent characteristics of the two sectors can be observed. To illustrate, pay is a matter of concern for employees of the private sector, whereas public officials pay more attention to status, long-term stability, and honorable career paths. As a result, there is a tendency for private sector employees to consider the availability of job alternatives. Job mobility is more common in the private sector. A limitation of alternatives may not significantly affect organizational commitment if employees work in a government agency.

4) Organizational culture and cultural differences occur between western and Asian countries; particularly, the workplace culture in Thailand may partially justify the research findings. The frameworks and theories adopted in the present study have their origin in the western part. There are definitely some gaps in implementation. Culture refers to the sum of a group's or nation's way of thinking, believing, feeling, acting, common philosophy, ideologies, values, beliefs, assumptions, and norms which characterize one group from others. In organizational culture theory, culture is defined as the specific collection of values and norms that are shared by people and groups in an organization and that control the way they interact with each other and with stakeholders outside the organization (Hill and Jones, 2001: 34), as a set of common understandings around which action is organized (Becker and Geer 1960: 280), and as a system of knowledge, of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating and acting that serve to relate human communities to their environmental settings (Allaire and Firsirotu, 1984: 196). Organizational culture can be symbols, heroes, rituals, and values (Hofstede, 1997: 9). Symbols are messages, signs, and objects that convey members' thoughts and feeling. Heroes refer to figures and persons that organizational members respect and admire as a role model. Rituals are activities that hold organizational members and contribute to shared values. Symbols, heroes, and rituals are manifested culture or practices that can be observed. Values at the inner level are unobservable, yet govern the beliefs, behaviors, and actions of members within organizations. The culture defines the uniqueness of a particular group of people, organization, and institution. Organizational culture is a set of understandings or meanings shared by a group of people that are largely tacit among members and are

clearly relevant and distinctive to the particular group which are also passed on to new members. It can be concluded that organizational culture is conceptualized as a set of values, beliefs, and assumptions that individuals in organizations uphold and practice. Therefore, the concept defines the very way in which organizations exist. Hofstede's (1997: 19) cultural dimensions comprise high/low power distance, high/low uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, and long/short term orientation. From 1967 to 1973, Hofstede, as a psychologist at IBM, conducted a comprehensive study of organizational culture and values that varied from country to country. The classification of Hofstede's cultural dimensions is grounded upon an exploration of national culture and characteristics. Eastern and Asian countries do not share the same cultural values as Western countries. Differences thereby disrupt the universality of theoretical application.

Power distance demonstrates the beliefs, values, and norms that emphasize power, authority, and seniority, which affect the leader-subordinate relationship. Large power distance is characterized by inequality, acceptance of the power distance, centralization of power, vertical communication, hierarchical structure, and autocratic task-oriented leadership.

Uncertainty avoidance explains the degree to which organizational members feel threatened when confronting uncertain situations. To avoid uncertainty, they seek stability through compliance with conventional practice, conformity with existing standards, and prescription of explicit rules. Strong uncertainty avoidance stems from the fear of potential damage and errors. The level of avoidance is dependent upon individual perception, experience, and interpretation. Weak uncertainty avoidance on the other hand, is related to flexibility and adaptation.

Individualism/collectivism focuses on the relationships among organizational members. Individualism is distinguished by the pursuit self-interest, independence, and self-achievement. Competition among members is perceived as usual. Collectivism, in contrast, reflects group dependence, interpersonal attachment, cooperation, teamwork, and participation. Members pursue group aspiration prior to individual goals.

Masculinity/femininity represents the character and decision-making process within the organization. The organizations with masculinity value materialistic success, enthusiastic competition, rules, regulations, and assertion of principles. Femininity highlights consultative relationships, compromise, negotiation, and quality of life, which lie beyond materialistic success.

Another cultural dimension of long/short term orientation, which explains the entrepreneurial character with an orientation toward future prospects, was later introduced. The concept of long-term orientation, which is also referred to as Confucian dynamism, is derived from the Confucian teaching of the east. In organizations with long-term orientation or Confucian dynamism, members are encouraged to develop a sense of ownership, commitment to organizational goals, responsibility, and a shared vision. Short-term orientation is projected to the present and past, rather than the future. A consideration of past and present conditions allows for adaptive change under the existing circumstance. Nevertheless, strong short-term orientation might disrupt creativity, risk-taking initiatives, and innovation.

As the findings show, eastern and Asian countries are characterized by collectivism, which in this case study may override financial concern. An employee is willing to stay with an organization rather than opt for a more persuasive offer in other places. A long-term orientation minimizes the importance of present and immediate gain.

5.2 Contribution

There is a tendency for researchers to use a single theory as a framework in conducting their research. For instance, the concept of organizational commitment may be explicated to embrace only one dimension of the affective, continuance or normative type. However, there has been a fundamental shift in public administration research, in which two or more perspectives are applied and integrated, so that researchers are able to provide insight that fits with a situational context based on the theoretical integration. The researcher here explores commitment using a multidimensional perspective and adding leadership styles into the conceptual framework so as to capture the essence of how leadership creates an impact on

organizations. The research therefore draws relationships among three important concepts in organization study: leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction was seen to influence commitment in a positive way. A research allows for a practical application and testing of theories. The results will definitely promote an accurate understanding and knowledge creation that fits with non-western cultural settings. The results provide contributions in terms of both academic and practical aspects.

5.2.1 Contribution to Theory

The researcher examines organizational commitment in a health-related context and addresses the problems of public and non-western organizations, which contribute to academic knowledge and management practice through an exploration of theoretical frameworks and empirical evidence. Taking into account the factors that influence organizational commitment, the study attempts to clarify the role of leadership in fostering commitment among organizational members. The research and findings deal with the ongoing enquiry in relation to commitment, non-western theoretical orientation, and application, which is somewhat significant, especially for leaders and practitioners. Amidst changes and the government's continuous health reform agenda, commitment is highly valued for it encourages health professionals and personnel to remain and deliver expected performance. Even more important are the leaders whose perception and practice prescribe success or failure. To pursue excellence and quality services, human resources are primarily focused on. Without these in mind, turnover and repetitive training of new employees would be apparently unavoidable.

The researcher admits, as an underlying assumption, the differences among countries and even parts of a single country. In other words, geographical landscape affects demographic variables and cultural characteristics, raising controversy over the possibility of generalization when theories are tested in practice. Therefore, the research offers benefits to Thais and non-Thais seeking knowledge of organization studies in the public healthcare industry. The findings will shed some light on the nature, definitions, and dimensions of organizational commitment, leadership styles, and job satisfaction, along with the interconnectedness of the concepts. Interestingly,

the statistical results of the study illustrate both consistent and different findings from earlier scholars. Most of the research hypotheses were confirmed, while some were rejected. In general, job satisfaction and leadership styles were seen to be causally related to organizational commitment. However, there are characteristics specific to the culture and research setting that researchers have pointed out so as to deepen knowledge when the theories are exposed to a new terrain of application. The empirical results of this study affirm the relationship of three concepts in organization study: leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The conceptual framework was supported, as most of the research hypotheses were statistically accepted.

5.2.2 Contribution to Practice

The present research also considers practical application, apart from academic merit. There has been an interest in creating and identifying leadership styles that help foster organizational commitment since commitment is an attitude or a force that binds employees with organizations. Employees are considered committed if they associate themselves with their organizations and devote a great deal of effort to pursue organizational goals. By being committed, they stay even motivated and dedicated towards achieving predefined goals. Commitment is therefore found to reduce absenteeism, turnover, withdrawal, and resistance. In order to enhance commitment, the study aimed to explore various leadership styles and factors for obtaining insight and information. As there seems to be no single theory or model that always offers a fit for all, explanation and theoretical testing was required. Models that work well in western countries might not yield fruitful outcomes when implemented in eastern, as well as in the Thai environment. For policy making, a practical solution and empirical evidence in a particular setting are essential since there is no universal rule that fits internally with every entity. Explanation and observation are demanded in formulating an effective strategy.

Community hospitals were selected, as they offered an ideal sample population for the study. The number of hospitals was 139. Yet, the findings excluded two hospitals in which the pre-testing of the questionnaire was conducted. The hospitals were scattered across different geographical units of central Thailand and

were considered as a foundation of primary healthcare service. With the unique condition, the hospitals maintain their dominant role as a service provider and health policy implementer. The rationale in selecting the central part of Thailand as a domain of consideration was that healthcare service in this area is anticipated to maintain its level of operation at an acceptable standard in light of population expansion. All of the provinces are located in close proximity to Bangkok and are labeled as satellite cities where trade, commercial activities, and industries have been established. At the disposal, human resources are an indispensable aspect to achieve performance effectiveness. Empirical enquiry and observation were undertaken with the purpose of generating policy implications on employee retention through maximizing organizational commitment. Recommendations were generated so that policy makers can know what should be addressed and taken as a priority.

5.3 Recommendations

Recommendations are the final objective of the study and synthesis from the empirical analysis. The dissertation investigates the relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Most of the findings confirmed the hypotheses, while some were rejected. The statistical results of the study suggest that all leadership styles cast an influence on organizational commitment. The patterns of relationship are direct, indirect through job satisfaction, or both. As a leader is a significant person that offers guidance and gears members toward the organization's mission, leadership styles are an issue to be considered in promoting organizational sustainability and human resource retention. Recommendations are projected to describe the quality of leadership that would potentially lead to organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

5.3.1 Organizational Commitment

Servant, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership positively affects commitment. Since servant leadership is highly correlated with transformational leadership, one could claim that transformational leadership influences commitment in a way similar to servant leadership.

Commitment with transactional and laissez-faire leadership, servant leadership yields a much higher effect on commitment. Yet, as all leadership styles influence commitment, the researcher would argue for a switching back and forth among different styles. There is no one best way of management. One style is demanded in a particular situational context. A fundamental shift in circumstances implies that other styles of leadership may be called for to tackle changes. Apart from this, more than one style of leadership may be adopted for an add-on effect. For instance, transactional leaders may be exhibited in conjunction with servant or transformational leadership so that close supervision and active monitoring are juxtaposed with a humanistic dimension of management, which perceives employees as individuals rather than merely as a factor of production. In this regard, transactional leadership would deliver job success and a job-related focus, while servant or transformational leadership heightens spiritual wellbeing and individualized consideration. As previously discussed, servant leadership, compared with other leadership styles, constitutes the highest degree of total causal relationship, and the highest direct effect on commitment. Servant leadership is an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of members over the self-interest of the leader. In this scenario, leaders in community hospitals are recommended to perform the following functions:

- 1) place others' interest over their own, work to meet followers' needs, understand and try to solve problems, respect individual differences, understand members' demand and express concern to members

- 2) foster spiritual recovery from hardship and trauma through empathy, give the best to members, foster happiness in work, provide time and suggestions, allow members to meet in person and understand clearly what members feel

- 3) be aware of surroundings, anticipate potential consequences, think aside from day-to-day management, realize what really happens in the organization, promote a common understanding of vision, be able to foresee potential problems, and encourage a feasible goal setting

- 4) use sound reasoning and mental frameworks in envisioning and articulating organizations' future, have skills in persuasion, contribute to agreement through democratic means, motivate members to adopt new ideas, build inspiration, and increase their awareness rather than using force

5) contribute to society through community development, ethical practice, and social responsibility, work to develop community spirit in the workplace, gear towards community and social interest, be devoted to success, increase members' participation, and support activities that create unity among members

6) respect followers, acknowledge their contribution to the team, avoid self-glorification, be gentle and humble, be friendly, praise others rather than oneself and listen to others' opinions

7) trust followers, believe that they can keep secret, give independence to members, believe in members' honesty, and assign work based on trust

Due to the conceptual and statistical relatedness between servant and transformational leadership, one has to bear in mind the transformational leadership qualities, including charismatic-inspirational, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. It is recommended for leaders in community hospitals in central Thailand to encourage enthusiasm among members, foster team spirit, be friendly and helpful, be optimistic, being respectful, be devoted to collective purposes, promote followers' engagement in identifying goals and visions, align members' with the hospital's vision, establish an atmosphere of creativity, exchange and learn new ideas, seek new solutions, enhance a culture of innovative thinking, pay attention to individual needs, assign work based on skills and ability, have skills in giving advice and suggestions, be a coach or trainer, take into account individual preferences and necessities, recognize the significance of members' potential development, and listen to members.

Other styles of leadership that can be implemented in complement to the servant or transformational type are laissez-faire and transactional leadership. Leaders can be passive, refuse to make a decision, and avoid a proactive assertion when they believe that members are skillful and intrinsically motivated. Intervention is necessary when problems go beyond the ability of individual members.

Though having the least effect among all variables, transactional leadership was discovered in this research to directly influence commitment. Leaders in community hospitals in central Thailand are recommended to use contingent rewards, which is to give appropriate rewards, assign work to create individual opportunities, explain standards of rewards, and give praise upon success. In addition, the leaders

had better pay attention to errors, take corrective action when deviation occurs, monitor correction, pay attention to day-to-day problems, keep up with the standard, and give advice when there is a mistake.

5.3.2 Job Satisfaction

Servant leadership has a positive influence on job satisfaction. The more the members perceive a servant leadership style, the more satisfaction they are going to have toward the job. Job satisfaction will then increase the organizational commitment level. In other words, servant leadership indirectly affects organizational commitment through job satisfaction. Since servant leadership is highly correlated with transformational leadership, one could claim that transformational leadership influences commitment in a way similar to servant leadership. Transactional and laissez-faire leadership, in contrast, does not pose an indirect effect.

To maximize job satisfaction, leaders in community hospitals are recommended to perform the following functions:

1) place others' interest over their own, work to meet followers' needs, understand and try to solve problems, respect individual differences, understand members' demands and express concern to members

2) foster spiritual recovery from hardship and trauma through empathy, give the best to members, foster happiness in work, provide time and suggestions, allow members to meet in person, and understand clearly what members feel

3) be aware of surroundings, anticipate potential consequences, think aside from day-to-day management, realize what really happens in the organization, promote a common understanding of vision, be able to foresee potential problems, and encourage feasible goal setting

4) use sound reasoning and mental frameworks in envisioning and articulating the organization's future, have skills in persuasion, contribute to agreement through democratic means, motivate members to adopt new ideas, build inspiration, and increase awareness rather than using force

5) contribute to society through community development, ethical practice, and social responsibility, work to develop community spirit in the workplace, gear towards community and social interest, be devoted to success, increase members' participation, and support activities that create unity among members

6) respect followers, acknowledge their contribution to the team, avoid self-glorification, be gentle and humble, be friendly, praise them rather than oneself, and listen to their opinions

7) trust followers, believe that they can keep a secret, give independence to members, believe in members' honesty, and assign work based on trust

Due to the conceptual and statistical relatedness between servant and transformational leadership, one has to bear in mind the transformational leadership qualities, including charismatic-inspirational, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. It is recommended for leaders in community hospitals in central Thailand to encourage enthusiasm among members, foster team spirit, be friendly and helpful, be optimistic, be respectful, be devoted to collective purposes, promote followers' engagement in identifying goals and visions, align members' with the hospital's vision, establish an atmosphere of creativity, exchange, and learning new ideas, seek new solutions, enhance a culture of innovative thinking, pay attention to individual needs, assign work based on skills and ability, have skills in giving advice and suggestions, be a coach or trainer, take into account individual preferences and necessities, recognize the significance of members' potential development, and listen to members.

Nonetheless, it should be noted that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are also subject to factors apart from leadership. For instance, tenure positively affects commitment, while job satisfaction is dependent upon the career alternatives that each employee possesses. Still, as attested by the findings, leadership is one of the attributes that can explain the variation in employees' commitment to their organizations.

5.4 Future Research

Although this dissertation generates somewhat interesting results, it has some limitations as follows:

First, the present study relies on a non-probability research design, in which the entire population of 139 community hospitals in Central Thailand represents the unit of analysis at an organizational level. Findings emanating from the research

might not be able to be applied elsewhere, as the research is specific to community hospitals within the central part of Thailand. Further research is thus needed for an exploration of the same theme in other geographical settings so as to test the hypotheses as well as to investigate the relationships among leadership styles, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Second, while the researcher attempts to tackle the ongoing enquiry into organizational commitment and contribute the results concerning leadership styles and job satisfaction in the setting of community hospitals in Thailand, the paper focuses on community hospitals and does not explore hospitals in other categories, which the researcher assumes to have different characteristics from the population investigated here. Further research is thus needed to explore public hospitals of other types and even private hospitals, which are likely to have administrative and cultural distinctions. Different research results will add up the knowledge embodiment. Comparative study is also recommended to generate a comprehensive understanding on the sectoral differences in Thailand. Apart from this, a comparison between Thai community hospitals and hospitals with equivalent status in western countries can validate the cultural differences that the present research has noted as an exogenous variable affecting results of the study.

Third, the present research relies on leadership style theories, including transformational, transactional, servant, and laissez-faire leadership. Future research may adopt other theoretical frameworks, such as exemplary leadership theory and innovative leadership theory. Researchers may consider exploring the effect of leadership on job satisfaction and organizational commitment within the proposed framework.

Moreover, while the present research deals with the respondents' rating of immediate supervisors' leadership styles, future study may consider focusing instead on top leaders of community hospitals. Though they do not have direct correspondence or contact with operational staff, top-ranking executives and directors are significant to organizations in several aspects. First, top leaders are held responsible for formulating policy pertinent to every organizational unit. Second, they could have an agenda-setting effect. In other words, top leaders set what the important issues are and what members should look at or take as a priority. Third, they play an

essential role in how vision, mission, and policy are translated into practice. In this sense, a survey in which top-ranking executives and directors are a center of the analysis will explain the general trend and statistics on leadership in community hospitals, which certainly has implications for the future direction of Thai public healthcare.

In terms of variables, the present research places emphasis on the independent variables of four leadership styles, namely transformational leadership, transactional leadership, servant leadership, and laissez-faire leadership, as well as job satisfaction level. The emphasis as such offers a heuristic value to leadership study and insight into how leaders can positively or negatively influence members' commitment level. Although the researcher takes into account the control variables of years of service and limitation of employment alternatives, it should be noted that there are yet some other factors lying beyond the scope of the present research that would result in commitment variation, for instance organizational climate, organizational culture, relationship in the workplace, and organizational politics. Future research can be conducted to explore other aforementioned aspects of commitment or develop a parsimonious model of what affects organizational commitment to capture a comprehensive understanding of the concept.

Finally, the model of the present research can be extended to further seek the impact of organizational commitment on performance effectiveness. Is organizational commitment a key to improving performance and sustaining competitive advantage? Does commitment lead to better public healthcare service? Is it possible that, in light of high commitment, employees are so satisfied and secure that they stay passively in organizations, do not embark on any innovative ideas, and would want simply to operate on a day-to-day basis? These questions remain a challenge to management studies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
Questionnaire in Thai

แบบสอบถาม

เรื่อง

ภาวะผู้นำ ความพึงพอใจในการปฏิบัติงาน และความผูกพันต่อองค์กร
กรณีศึกษา โรงพยาบาลชุมชนในประเทศไทย

.....

คำชี้แจง

1. แบบสอบถามฉบับนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาภาวะผู้นำของผู้บริหาร ความพึงพอใจในการปฏิบัติงาน และความผูกพันต่อองค์กรของบุคลากรในโรงพยาบาลชุมชน สังกัดกระทรวงสาธารณสุข

2. แบบสอบถามชุดนี้ มีทั้งหมด 6 ตอน

ตอนที่ 1 เป็นแบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับสถานภาพส่วนบุคคลของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

ตอนที่ 2 เป็นแบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับโอกาส หรือทางเลือกในการหางานทำใหม่

ตอนที่ 3 เป็นแบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับภาวะผู้นำของผู้บริหาร โรงพยาบาลชุมชน

ตอนที่ 4 เป็นแบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับความพึงพอใจในการปฏิบัติงานของบุคลากรในโรงพยาบาลชุมชน

ตอนที่ 5 เป็นแบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับความผูกพันต่อองค์กรของบุคลากร โรงพยาบาลชุมชน

3. คำตอบของท่านจะไม่มีผลกระทบต่อท่านแต่ประการใดๆ ผู้วิจัยจะนำคำตอบไปวิเคราะห์ในภาพรวมเพื่อให้ประโยชน์ในการพัฒนาการบริหารจัดการ โรงพยาบาลชุมชนให้มีประสิทธิภาพมากยิ่งขึ้น จึงใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์กรุณาตอบแบบสอบถามให้ครบทุกข้อตามความเป็นจริง โดยข้อมูลที่ผู้วิจัยจะเก็บไว้เป็นความลับอย่างที่สุด

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แบบสอบถาม

เรื่อง

ภาวะผู้นำ ความพึงพอใจในการปฏิบัติงาน และความผูกพันต่อองค์กร
กรณีศึกษา โรงพยาบาลชุมชนในประเทศไทย

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ตอนที่ 1

คำชี้แจง โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงใน () หรือ เต็มคำ/ข้อความลงในช่องว่างให้ตรงกับความเป็นจริง

1. เพศ

() ชาย () หญิง

2. อายุปัจจุบันของท่าน (โปรดระบุ)ปี (ถ้าเกิน 6 เดือนให้นับเป็น 1 ปี)

3. ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุด

- () ต่ำกว่าปริญญาตรี
 () ปริญญาตรี
 () ประกาศนียบัตรบัณฑิต
 () ปริญญาโท สาขา (โปรดระบุ)
 () อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)

4. ระยะเวลาที่ท่านทำงานในโรงพยาบาลแห่งนี้จนถึงปัจจุบัน (โปรดระบุ)ปี (ถ้าเกิน 6 เดือนให้นับเป็น 1 ปี)

5. ตำแหน่งงานที่ท่านปฏิบัติงาน

- () แพทย์
 () ทันตแพทย์
 () พยาบาล
 () เภสัชกร
 () เทคนิคเขียน (เทคนิคการแพทย์/กายภาพบำบัด/รังสีเทคนิค)
 () เจ้าหน้าที่สายงานการบริหาร/สนับสนุนการบริการ

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ตอนที่ 2

คำชี้แจง โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในช่องว่างทางขวามือช่องใดช่องหนึ่งให้ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด ข้อละเพียง 1 คำตอบ และขอความกรุณาตอบให้ครบทุกข้อ โดยขอให้ท่านพิจารณาข้อความนั้นๆ เป็นจริง หรือท่านมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร เรียงตามลำดับจากมากที่สุด มาก ปานกลาง น้อย และน้อยที่สุด

ข้อความ	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
	มากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	น้อยที่สุด
1. ท่านทำงานในโรงพยาบาลด้วยความรู้สึกมั่นคง โดยไม่ต้องกลัวถูกไล่ออกจากงานโดยง่าย					
2. ท่านได้รับการส่งเสริมให้มีโอกาสก้าวหน้าในการปฏิบัติงานตามตำแหน่งหน้าที่					
3. หากออกจากโรงพยาบาลในเวลานี้จะประสบความยากลำบากมากในการหางานใหม่					
4. หากออกจากโรงพยาบาลในเวลานี้จะมีความเสี่ยงมากในการหางานที่จะให้ผลประโยชน์ได้ดีเท่ากับงานในปัจจุบัน					
5. ท่านขาดความมั่นใจต่อความสามารถด้านการทำงานของตนเอง					
6. ทางเลือกในการหางานของท่านมีจำกัด					

ตอนที่ 3

คำชี้แจง โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในช่องว่างทางขวามือช่องใดช่องหนึ่งที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านมากที่สุดข้อละเพียง 1 คำตอบ และขอความกรุณาตอบให้ครบทุกข้อ โดยขอให้ท่านพิจารณาพฤติกรรมกรรมการบริหาร หรือการปฏิบัติตนของผู้บริหารโรงพยาบาลทุกระดับ ว่ามีการปฏิบัติตามข้อคำถามนั้นๆ อย่างไร เรียงจาก มากที่สุด มาก ปานกลาง น้อย น้อยที่สุด

พฤติกรรมกรรมการบริหาร	ระดับการปฏิบัติ				
	มากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	น้อยที่สุด
3.1 Transformational Leadership					
3.1.1 Charismatic-Inspirational					
1. ผู้บริหารโน้มน้าว จูงใจให้ผู้ร่วมงานยึดมั่นและร่วมสานต่อวิสัยทัศน์ของโรงพยาบาล					
2. ผู้บริหารกระตุ้นให้เกิดความกระตือรือร้นในการทำงานเป็นพิเศษ					
3. ผู้บริหารกระตุ้นและส่งเสริมให้เกิดจิตวิญญาณในการทำงานเป็นทีม					
4. ผู้บริหารเปิดโอกาสให้มีส่วนร่วมในการกำหนดเป้าหมายและวิสัยทัศน์ของโรงพยาบาลเพื่อเป็นแนวทางปฏิบัติร่วมกัน					
5. ผู้บริหารวางตัวให้เป็นที่ไว้วางใจ และน่าเคารพนับถือ					
6. ผู้บริหารมีลักษณะเป็นมิตร ใจดี และเป็นกันเอง					
7. ผู้บริหารอุทิศตนทำงานเพื่อประโยชน์ส่วนรวม					
8. ผู้บริหารมองโลกในแง่ดี แม้มีอุปสรรคและปัญหา					
3.1.2 Intellectual stimulation					
1. ผู้บริหารค้นหาแนวทางใหม่ๆ เพื่อแก้ปัญหาใหม่ๆ					
2. ผู้บริหารกระตุ้นให้เกิดความคิดสร้างสรรค์และคิดนอกกรอบในการทำงาน					

พฤติกรรมกรรมการบริหาร	ระดับการปฏิบัติ				
	มากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	น้อยที่สุด
3. ผู้บริหารมีการแลกเปลี่ยนเรียนรู้เพื่อกระตุ้นให้เกิดความคิดสร้างสรรค์ด้วยวิถีทางแบบใหม่ๆ					
4. ผู้บริหารได้สร้างบรรยากาศที่สนับสนุนความคิดสร้างสรรค์					
3.1.3 Individualized consideration					
1. ผู้บริหารเอาใจใส่เป็นพิเศษต่อความต้องการของผู้ร่วมงาน แต่ละบุคคล					
2. ผู้บริหารรับฟังและคอยช่วยเหลือผู้ร่วมงาน					
3. ผู้บริหารคำนึงถึงความจำเป็นและความต้องการที่แตกต่างกันไปในแต่ละบุคคล					
4. ผู้บริหารมอบหมายงานตามความเหมาะสมของผู้ร่วมงานแต่ละบุคคล					
5. ผู้บริหารให้ความสำคัญต่อการพัฒนาศักยภาพของผู้ร่วมงานอย่างเต็มที่					
6. ผู้บริหารมีทักษะในการเป็นผู้ให้คำปรึกษาที่ดี					
7. ผู้บริหารสามารถเป็นผู้ฝึกสอนหรือพี่เลี้ยงในการทำงานได้					
3.2 Transactional leadership					
3.2.1 Contingent reward					
1. ผู้บริหารชี้แจงให้ผู้ร่วมงานทราบล่วงหน้าเกี่ยวกับเกณฑ์มาตรฐานของผลการปฏิบัติงานที่จะได้รับการเลื่อนขั้น					
2. ผู้บริหารมอบหมายงานให้แก่ผู้ร่วมงานเพื่อสร้างโอกาสก้าวหน้าในตำแหน่งหน้าที่การงาน					
3. ผู้บริหารให้รางวัลอย่างเหมาะสมแก่ผู้ร่วมงานที่ทุ่มเทในการปฏิบัติงานให้แก่โรงพยาบาล					
4. ผู้บริหารกล่าวชมเชยเมื่อท่านปฏิบัติงานสำเร็จ					

พฤติกรรมกรรมการบริหาร	ระดับการปฏิบัติ				
	มากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	น้อยที่สุด
3.2.2 Management by Exception					
1. ผู้บริหารให้ความสนใจในสิ่งที่ผิดจากมาตรฐานการปฏิบัติงาน					
2. ผู้บริหารให้ความสำคัญในการแก้ไขปัญหาแบบวันต่อวัน					
3. ผู้บริหารให้ความสำคัญกับการแก้ไขงานซึ่งผิดพลาดจากเกณฑ์ที่ตั้งไว้					
4. ผู้บริหารพยายามรักษามาตรฐานในการปฏิบัติงาน					
5. ผู้บริหารให้คำปรึกษาแก่ผู้ร่วมงานเมื่อพบข้อบกพร่อง					
6. ผู้บริหารติดตามการแก้ไขงานที่ผิดไปจากมาตรฐาน					
3.3 Servant leadership					
3.3.1 Altruistic calling					
1. ผู้บริหารเข้าใจถึงความต้องการและจำเป็นของผู้ร่วมงาน					
2. ผู้บริหารปฏิบัติตนต่อผู้ร่วมงานด้วยความเคารพในความแตกต่างระหว่างบุคคล					
3. ผู้บริหารเปิดใจรับรู้ความรู้สึกของผู้ร่วมงานมากกว่าเรียกร้องให้ผู้ร่วมงานมาเข้าใจตนเอง					
4. ผู้บริหารแสดงให้เห็นถึงความเมตตากรุณาและความห่วงใยผู้ร่วมงาน					
5. ผู้บริหารเข้าใจปัญหาและให้กำลังใจผู้ร่วมงานในการแก้ไข ปัญหาต่างๆ					

พฤติกรรมกรรมการบริหาร	ระดับการปฏิบัติ				
	มากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	น้อยที่สุด
3.3.2 Emotional healing					
1. ผู้บริหารให้เวลาและคำแนะนำเพื่อช่วยให้ผู้ร่วมงานสามารถเอาชนะความอ่อนแอและพัฒนาตนเองอย่างเต็มตามศักยภาพ					
2. ผู้บริหารเข้าใจความรู้สึกของผู้ร่วมงานอย่างลึกซึ้ง แม้ในสิ่งที่ผู้ร่วมงานไม่สามารถอธิบายได้ด้วยคำพูด					
3. ผู้บริหารส่งเสริมผู้ร่วมงานให้พัฒนาการทำงานในหน้าที่อย่างมีความสุข					
4. ผู้บริหารเปิดโอกาสให้ผู้ร่วมงานเข้ามาพบเพื่อปรึกษาปัญหาทั้งจากการทำงานและปัญหาส่วนตัว					
5. ผู้บริหารแสดงความสนใจต่อผู้ร่วมงานเพื่อจะทำสิ่งที่ดีที่สุดในให้แก่พวกเขา					
3.3.3 Persuasive mapping					
1. ผู้บริหารมีทักษะในการพุดจูงใจผู้ร่วมงานให้ปฏิบัติตามเป้าหมายที่ตั้งไว้ด้วยความเต็มใจ					
2. ผู้บริหารสร้างแรงบันดาลใจให้ผู้ร่วมงานในการทำกิจกรรมต่างๆ ให้บรรลุผลสำเร็จ					
3. ผู้บริหารสร้างแรงจูงใจให้ผู้ร่วมงานพร้อมที่จะเปลี่ยนแปลงและนำแนวคิดใหม่ๆ มาใช้ในการทำงาน					
4. ผู้บริหารสามารถสร้างความตระหนักถึงความสำคัญและความจำเป็นในการปฏิบัติภารกิจต่างๆ มากกว่าที่จะบังคับให้ผู้ร่วมงานทำอย่างที่ต้องการ					

พฤติกรรมกรรมการบริหาร	ระดับการปฏิบัติ				
	มากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	น้อยที่สุด
5. ผู้บริหารพยายามสร้างความเห็นพ้องต้องกันให้ ผู้ร่วมงาน ร่วมมือร่วมใจกันปฏิบัติงานใน ลักษณะที่เป็นประชาธิปไตย					
3.3.4 Wisdom					
1. ผู้บริหารมองเห็นหรือคาดการณ์สถานการณ์ที่ เป็นปัญหาของโรงพยาบาลในทุกมิติได้อย่าง ลึกซึ้ง					
2. ผู้บริหารกระตุ้นให้มีการสร้างเป้าหมายที่เป็นไป ได้ของโรงพยาบาลอย่างชัดเจน					
3. ผู้บริหารคิดนอกกรอบจากการปฏิบัติงาน ประจำวันหรือวันต่อวัน(day to day management)					
4. ผู้บริหารสร้างเสริมให้ผู้ร่วมงานเข้าใจวิสัยทัศน์ ร่วมกัน					
5. ผู้บริหารรับรู้ถึงความเป็นจริงของสิ่งต่างๆที่ เกิดขึ้นในโรงพยาบาล					
3.3.5 Organizational stewardship					
1. ผู้บริหารอุทิศตนเพื่อความสำเร็จของงานและ พร้อมรับผิดชอบงานร่วมกับผู้ร่วมงาน					
2. ผู้บริหารมุ่งพัฒนาโรงพยาบาลสู่ความเป็นเลิศ เพื่อให้เกิดประโยชน์ต่อชุมชนและสังคม					
3. ผู้บริหารพยายามเสริมสร้างขีดความสามารถ ต่างๆ ของโรงพยาบาลโดยการมีส่วนร่วมของ ผู้ร่วมงาน					
4. ผู้บริหารสนับสนุนให้มีการสังสรรค์ร่วมกันใน โอกาสต่างๆเพื่อก่อให้เกิดความสามัคคีและความ เป็นน้ำหนึ่งใจเดียวกันของกลุ่มผู้ปฏิบัติงานใน โรงพยาบาล					

พฤติกรรมกรรมการบริหาร	ระดับการปฏิบัติ				
	มากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	น้อยที่สุด
3.3.6 Humility					
1. ผู้บริหารยอมรับฟังความคิดเห็นและข้อเสนอแนะจากผู้ร่วมงานเพื่อปรับปรุงการทำงานในโรงพยาบาล					
2. ผู้บริหารให้ความเป็นกันเองกับผู้ร่วมงานโดยถ้อยหน้า					
3. ผู้บริหารมักจะชื่นชมผู้ร่วมงานมากกว่าสรรเสริญเยินยอตนเอง					
4. ผู้บริหารมีความสุภาพ อ่อนน้อมถ่อมตน และมีสัมมาคารวะ					
3.3.7 Trust					
1. ผู้บริหารมอบหมายงานต่างๆให้ผู้ร่วมงานด้วยความไว้วางใจเสมอ					
2. ผู้บริหารมอบความเป็นอิสระในการปฏิบัติงานตามที่ได้รับมอบหมายอย่างเต็มที่					
3. ผู้บริหารมอบความไว้วางใจในการรักษาความลับให้แก่ผู้ร่วมงาน					
4. ผู้บริหารไว้วางใจว่าผู้ร่วมงานมีความซื่อสัตย์สุจริต					
3.4 Laissez fair leadership					
1. ผู้บริหารละเลยการแก้ไขปัญหา แม้ว่าปัญหานั้นจะกลายเป็นปัญหาเรื้อรังแล้ว					
2. ผู้บริหารไม่อยู่หรือไม่เปิดโอกาสให้ผู้ร่วมงานเข้าพบเพื่อขอคำแนะนำ					
3. ผู้บริหารขาดการติดตามคำขอความช่วยเหลือของผู้ร่วมงาน					
4. ผู้บริหารไม่ต้องการแสดงทรศนะของตนในเรื่องสำคัญๆ					
5. ผู้บริหารหลีกเลี่ยงการตัดสินใจใดๆ					

ตอนที่ 4

คำชี้แจง โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในช่องว่างทางขวามือช่องใดช่องหนึ่งที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด ข้อละเพียง 1 คำตอบ และขอความกรุณาตอบให้ครบทุกข้อ โดยขอให้ท่านพิจารณาข้อความว่า ข้อความนั้นๆ เป็นจริง หรือท่านมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร เรียงตามลำดับจาก มากที่สุด มาก ปานกลาง น้อย และน้อยที่สุด

พฤติกรรมการบริหาร	ระดับการปฏิบัติ				
	มากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	น้อยที่สุด
4.1 Professional status					
1. ท่านมีความภูมิใจในวิชาชีพของตน					
2. ท่านคิดว่าวิชาชีพทางด้านสาธารณสุข (วิทยาศาสตร์สุขภาพ) เป็นอาชีพที่มีโอกาสได้ช่วยเหลือผู้คนในสังคมได้มาก					
3. งานในหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบของท่าน มีความสำคัญในการส่งเสริมคุณค่าในการปฏิบัติภารกิจของโรงพยาบาล					
4. ท่านตั้งใจจะทำงานในอาชีพนี้ตลอดอายุการทำงาน					
5. ท่านคิดว่าคนทั่วไปยอมรับว่าอาชีพที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการให้บริการสุขภาพเป็นอาชีพที่มีเกียรติ					
4.2 Interaction					
1. ท่านและเพื่อนร่วมงานให้ความช่วยเหลือซึ่งกันและกันเป็นอย่างดี					
2. ท่านได้รับการยอมรับจากเพื่อนร่วมงานเมื่อทำงานร่วมกันในทีมสุขภาพ (Health Team)					
3. ท่านและเพื่อนร่วมงานมีการติดต่อสื่อสารกันอย่างเปิดเผยและมีประสิทธิภาพ					
4. ท่านและเพื่อนร่วมงานมีความจริงใจต่อกันเสมอ					

พฤติกรรมการบริหาร	ระดับการปฏิบัติ				
	มากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	น้อยที่สุด
5. ท่านและเพื่อนร่วมงานมีโอกาสปรึกษาหารือและแสดงความคิดเห็นร่วมกันเกี่ยวกับระบบการทำงาน					
6. ท่านและเพื่อนร่วมงานชื่นชมและยินดีที่โรงพยาบาลประสบผลสำเร็จในเรื่องต่างๆ					
4.3 Organizational policy					
1. ท่านเห็นว่านโยบายและรูปแบบการบริหารงานของโรงพยาบาลมีผลต่อความสำเร็จในการทำงานของบุคลากรแต่ละคน					
2. ท่านมีโอกาสและมีส่วนร่วมในการกำหนดนโยบายและกระบวนการทำงานภายในหน่วยงานของท่าน					
3. ท่านสามารถตัดสินใจในเรื่องสำคัญๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับหน้าที่ความรับผิดชอบได้ตามที่เห็นว่าเหมาะสม					
4. ท่านคิดว่าการบริหารงานในรูปของคณะกรรมการต่างๆสามารถแก้ปัญหาต่างๆได้เป็นอย่างดี					
4.4 Autonomy					
1. ท่านพอใจกับการมีส่วนร่วมในการวางแผนการดำเนินการเพื่อให้บริการสุขภาพทั้งภายในและภายนอกโรงพยาบาล (ชุมชน)					
2. ท่านสามารถใช้ความคิดริเริ่มสร้างสรรค์ในการปฏิบัติงานที่รับผิดชอบได้อย่างเต็มที่					
3. ท่านมีอิสระในการปฏิบัติงานตามที่ได้รับมอบหมายได้อย่างเต็มที่					

พฤติกรรมกรรมการบริหาร	ระดับการปฏิบัติ				
	มากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	น้อยที่สุด
4. ท่านพอใจเมื่อข้อเสนอแนะและแนวทางการแก้ไขปัญหาที่นำเสนอได้รับการยอมรับจากผู้บริหารและเพื่อนร่วมงาน					
5. ท่านได้รับการมอบอำนาจหน้าที่ที่เพียงพอกับความรับผิดชอบในงานที่ได้รับมอบหมาย					
4.5 Pay					
1. ท่านได้รับค่าตอบแทนเป็นตัวเงินจากการทำงานที่เหมาะสมและยุติธรรม					
2. ท่านพอใจกับการอำนวยความสะดวกในการเบิกจ่ายค่าใช้จ่ายต่างๆ เช่น ค่ารักษาพยาบาล ค่าเดินทางไปราชการค่าเล่าเรียนบุตร ฯลฯ					
3. ท่านพอใจกับการจัดสวัสดิการในเรื่องบ้านพักที่จัดให้แก่บุคลากร					
4.6 Task requirement					
1. ขอบเขตหน้าที่การปฏิบัติงานของท่านมีความชัดเจน					
2. ท่านได้รับการมอบหมายงานที่เหมาะสมกับความรู้ ความสามารถ และทักษะที่มีอยู่					
3. ท่านเห็นว่าปริมาณงานที่ได้รับมอบหมายมีความเหมาะสม					
4. ท่านชอบงานที่ได้รับมอบหมาย					
5. ท่านภูมิใจในการทำงานที่ได้รับมอบหมาย					

ตอนที่ 5

คำชี้แจง โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในช่องว่างทางขวามือช่องใดช่องหนึ่งที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด ข้อละเพียง 1 คำตอบ และขอความกรุณาตอบให้ครบทุกข้อ โดยขอให้ท่านพิจารณาข้อความว่า ข้อความนั้นๆ เป็นจริง หรือท่านมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร เรียงตามลำดับจาก มากที่สุด มาก ปานกลาง น้อย และน้อยที่สุด

พฤติกรรมการบริหาร	ระดับการปฏิบัติ				
	มากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	น้อยที่สุด
5.1 Affective or attitudinal commitment					
1. ท่านต้องการที่จะทำงานอยู่กับโรงพยาบาลนี้ต่อไป					
2. ท่านมีความภาคภูมิใจในชื่อเสียงของโรงพยาบาล					
3. ท่านดีใจที่มีส่วนร่วมในการแก้ปัญหาต่างๆของโรงพยาบาล					
4. โรงพยาบาลนี้มีความหมายต่อตัวท่าน					
5.2 Behavioral or continuance commitment					
1. ท่านจำเป็นต้องอยู่กับโรงพยาบาลเพราะกลัวสูญเสียผลประโยชน์ตอบแทน					
2. ท่านไม่สามารถลาออกจากการทำงานเพราะไม่ต้องการให้ผู้ร่วมงานผิดหวัง					
3. ท่านคำนึงถึงความเสี่ยงกับการสูญเสียในสิ่งที่ได้ลงทุนกับโรงพยาบาลมาตลอดระยะเวลาทำงาน					
4. ท่านคำนึงถึงต้นทุนค่าเสียโอกาส สวัสดิการ และผลประโยชน์ต่างๆ เพื่อผลักดันการทำงาน					
5.3 Normative commitment					
1. ท่านเชื่อว่าความจงรักภักดีเป็นพันธสัญญาให้คงอยู่ในโรงพยาบาล					

พฤติกรรมกรรมการบริหาร	ระดับการปฏิบัติ				
	มากที่สุด	มาก	ปานกลาง	น้อย	น้อยที่สุด
2. ท่านเห็นว่าการทำงานเป็นเวลานานยิ่งก่อให้เกิดความรู้สึกรักภักดีต่อโรงพยาบาลมากขึ้น					
3. ท่านตั้งใจที่จะอุทิศตนให้กับโรงพยาบาล					
4. ท่านยินดีและเต็มใจที่จะปฏิบัติตามแนวทางการดำเนินงานของโรงพยาบาล					
5. ท่านพยายามทำงานให้ดีกว่าเป้าหมายที่ตั้งไว้					

ขอขอบพระคุณอย่างสูง

APPENDIX B
Questionnaire in English

Survey Questionnaire

Title:

**An Empirical Analysis of Leadership, Job Satisfaction and Organizational
Commitment:
a Study of Community Hospitals in Central Thailand**

.....

Part I

Direction: Kindly place ✓ in () or fill in the blanks in the following with the correct details about yourself. Please do not leave any item unanswered.

1. Gender

- () Male () Female

2. Age (Please specify)years (If more than 6 months, please count as 1 year)

3. Education: the highest degree or level of school you have completed.

- () Under Bachelor's degree
() Bachelor's degree
() Graduate Diploma
() Master's degree with a major in (Please specify)
() Other (Please specify)

4. How long have you worked in this hospital ? (Please specify)years (If more than 6 months, please count as 1 year)

5. Current position in this hospital

- () Doctor
() Dentist
() Nurse
() Pharmacist
() Technician (Medical Technologist/Physiotherapist/Radiographer
Technician)
() Public Health Officer

.....

Part II

Direction: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by putting a ✓ in the appropriate box. Please check only one answer per question and answer all of the questions.

Statements	Opinion Level				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. Having security in the current job and not worried about being fired easily					
2. Being given opportunities in the current job					
3. Having difficulties in finding new jobs					
4. Seeing risks in finding other jobs with equivalent benefits					
5. Lacking confidence in seeking new jobs					
6. Having limited career alternatives					

Part III

Direction: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by putting a ✓ in the appropriate box. Please check only one answer per question and answer all of the questions.

Please consider managerial behaviors of executives at all levels in the following statements.

Managerial Behaviors	Operational Level				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
3.1 Transformational Leadership					
3.1.1 Charismatic-Inspirational					
1. Aligning members' with hospital vision					
2. Encouraging enthusiasm at work among members					
3. Fostering team spirit					

Managerial Behaviors	Operational Level				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
4. Promoting followers' engagement in identifying goals and visions					
5. Being reliable and respectable					
6. Being friendly and helpful					
7. Devoted to collective purposes					
8. Being optimistic when facing obstacles and problems					
3.1.2 Intellectual Stimulation					
1. Seeking new solutions					
2. Enhancing a culture of innovative thinking					
3. Exchanging and learning new ideas					
4. Establishing an atmosphere of creativity					
3.1.3 Individualized Consideration					
1. Paying attention to individual needs					
2. Listening and helping members					
3. Taking into account individual preferences and necessities					
4. Assigning work based on skills and ability					
5. Recognizing the significance of members' potential					
6. Having skills in giving advice and suggestions					
7. Being a coach and trainer					
3.2 Transactional Leadership					
3.2.1 Contingent Reward					
1. Explaining standard of rewards and employee promotions					
2. Assigning work to create individual opportunities					
3. Giving appropriate rewards					
4. Giving praise upon success					

Managerial Behaviors	Operational Level				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
3.2.2 Management by Exception					
1. Paying attention to errors					
2. Paying attention to day-to-day problems					
3. Taking corrective action when deviation occurs					
4. Keeping up with the standard					
5. Giving advice when there is a mistake					
6. Monitoring correction					
3.3 servant leadership					
3.3.1 Altruistic Calling					
1. Understanding member's demands					
2. Respecting individual differences					
3. Trying to understand members' feelings rather than himself/herself					
4. Expressing concern to members					
5. Understanding and trying to solve problems					
3.3.2 Emotional Healing					
1. Providing time and suggestions for members to be able to pass from emotional weakness and have self-improvement as much as possible					
2. Understanding clearly what members feel					
3. Fostering happiness in work					
4. Allowing members to meet in person to provide individual counseling concerning both work and personal problems					
5. Expressing genuine interest in doing the best to members					
3.3.3 Persuasive Mapping					
1. Having skills in persuading members to be willing to follow goal setting					

Managerial Behaviors	Operational Level				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
2. Building inspiration for members to achieve any activities success					
3. Motivating members to adopt new ideas					
4. Increasing members' awareness, rather than using force					
5. Contributing to agreement through democratic means					
3.3.4 Wisdom					
1. Being able to foresee potential problems with in-depth understanding					
2. Encouraging feasible goal setting of the hospital					
3. Thinking aside from day-to-day management					
4. Promoting a common understanding of vision					
5. Realizing what really happens in the hospital					
3.3.5 Organizational Stewardship					
1. Being devoted to success					
2. Gearing towards community and social interest					
3. Increasing members' participation					
4. Supporting activities that create unity among members					
3.3.6 Humility					
1. Listening to others' opinions and suggestions to improve performance in the hospital					
2. Being friendly to all members					
3. Praising members rather than himself/herself					
4. Being gentle and humble					

Managerial Behaviors	Operational Level				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
3.3.7 Trust					
1. Assigning work based on trust					
2. Giving independence to members					
3. Believing that members can keep a secret					
4. Believing in members' honesty					
3.4 Laissez-Faire Leadership					
1. Avoiding problem solving activities					
2. Not allowing members to make suggestions					
3. Not responding to members' requests for support					
4. Not expressing attitudes toward critical matters					
5. Avoiding decisions					

Part IV

Direction: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by putting a ✓ in the appropriate box. Please check only one answer per question and answer all of the questions.

Statements	Opinion Level				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
4.1 Professional Status					
1. Being proud of professional status					
2. Aiming to help people through the job (health professions)					
3. Recognizing the significance of work					
4. Intending to carry on the job					
5. Considering the job honorable					

Statements	Opinion Level				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
4.2 Interaction					
1. Helping each other					
2. Being accepted by the health team					
3. Having open communication with colleagues					
4. Expressing sincere attitudes					
5. Having a chance to express opinions about the work system					
6. Being pleased the hospital's success					
4.3 Organizational Policy					
1. Considering the policy critical to personal success					
2. Being involved in policy formulation					
3. Being able to decide					
4. Believing that the management committee can solve problems well					
4.4 Autonomy					
1. Being satisfied with work planning to provide health services both inside and outside of the hospital					
2. Being able to exercise creativity in work					
3. Having autonomy to complete tasks					
4. Being accepted when suggestions are made					
5. Having sufficient power to carry out the job					
4.5 Pay					
1. Receiving fair and appropriate pay					
2. Being satisfied with fringe benefits					
3. Being satisfied with accommodation provided					

Statements	Opinion Level				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
4.6 Task Requirements					
1. Being clearly informed of job description					
2. Being assigned work in proportion to knowledge and ability					
3. Being granted appropriate workload					
4. Preferring the assigned work					
5. Being proud of work					

Part V

Direction: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by putting a ✓ in the appropriate box. Please check only one answer per question and answer all of the questions.

Statements	Opinion Level				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
5.1 Affective or Attitudinal Commitment					
1. Wanting to continue working at the hospital					
2. Being proud of the hospital's reputation					
3. Being pleased to solve the organization's problems					
4. Feeling how much the organization means to him/her					
5.2 Behavioral or Continuance Commitment					
1. Having to remain for fear of losing benefits					
2. Remaining due to a concern about colleagues' feelings					
3. Taking into account the risk and loss of what has been invested in work					

Statements	Opinion Level				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
4. Taking into account the cost, opportunity costs and benefits to drive performance					
5.3 Normative Commitment					
1. Being loyal to the organization					
2. Promising to remain					
3. Intending to serve the organization					
4. Being pleased to comply with the organization's rules and procedures					
5. Trying to perform better than the standard					

Thank you

BIOGRAPHY

NAME	Samita Muadtong
ACADEMIC BACKGROUND	Master of Arts in Speech Communication 2005 Portland State University The Royal Thai Government Scholarship Master of Arts in International Boundaries 2004 University of Durham The Shell Centenary and Chevening Scholarship Bachelor of Arts 2002 Chulalongkorn University First-Class Honors Bachelor of Economics 2002 Sukhothai Thammathirat University
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