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Impact of Transformational Leadership on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment and the Re-Enlistment Intention of Virginia Army National Guard Soldiers

Kervin Gregory Sider
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**IMPACT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ON JOB SATISFACTION
AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND THE RE-ENLISTMENT
INTENTION OF VIRGINIA ARMY NATIONAL GUARD SOLDIERS**

by

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of
Old Dominion University in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirement for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION

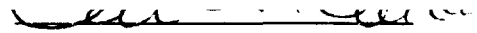
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ABSTRACT

IMPACT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ON JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND THE RE-ENLISTMENT INTENTION OF VIRGINIA ARMY NATIONAL GUARD SOLDIERS

Kervin G. Sider
Old Dominion University, 2014
Director: Dr. Cynthia Tomovic

A key component to the success of the Army National Guard (ARNG) is the retention of its soldiers. The ARNG must maintain enough soldiers to accomplish their mission of supporting the active duty Army. Leadership is one of the important factors that influence soldiers' level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and ultimately their intention to remain or leave the ARNG. This research study sought to determine the impact of transformational leadership on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention. The research questions guiding this study included: (1) Does transformational leadership impact the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (2) Does transformational leadership impact the job satisfaction of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (3) Does job satisfaction mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (4) Does transformational leadership impact the organizational commitment of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (5) Does organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (6) Does job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers; mid-term

soldiers; and careerist soldiers? (7) Is there a significant difference amongst the transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

Data for this study were collected using a survey that included closed form Likert scale questions and demographic questions. Two hundred sixty-one Virginia Army National Guard (VAARNG) soldiers completed the survey. Descriptive statistics and multiple regression analyses were used to address the research questions.

The findings of this study indicated that transformational leadership does have a significant impact on the job satisfaction and organizational commitment of VAARNG soldiers, but the impact decreases as a soldier's time in the military increases. Transformational leadership also had a significant direct effect on re-enlistment intention, but the direct effects of transformational leadership on re-enlistment intention are mediated by job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Transformational leadership's impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment revealed military leaders at all levels should be taught how to be transformational leaders because it can help improve the retention of soldiers.

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worked with me to identify aspects of my dissertation that I had not considered and more importantly she forced me to push beyond my comfort level because that was what I needed to conduct a quality study and create a comprehensive dissertation. She always made sure I understood her suggestions to improve or clarify my dissertation and I truly appreciate the significant amount of time she took to help me complete my dissertation.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The National Guard has the distinction of being the first volunteer force of the United States of America. The origins of the National Guard can be traced back to the militias of the original 13 colonies. The National Defense Act of 1916 officially formed these militias into what is now known as the National Guard (Army National Guard, 2009).

Griffith (2009a) stated that traditionally, National Guard service in the U.S. Army has been, by and large, a part-time endeavor. National Guard members attend monthly weekend drill training and two weeks of annual training. The National Guard of the past had relatively low demands, compared to present day National Guard military service (Griffith, 2009a). The Global War on Terrorism (GWOT) has changed the role the Army National Guard (ARNG) takes in the defense of the United States of America.

During the Korean War, over 140,000 National Guard soldiers were mobilized in support of the conflict. Since 11 September 2001, over 336,342 National Guard soldiers have been called to duty to support the Global War on Terrorism (U.S. Department of Defense, 2009), which is comprised of three operations: Operation Iraqi Freedom (OIF) in Iraq, Operation Noble Eagle for Homeland Security, and Operation Enduring Freedom (OEF) in Afghanistan. As of April 2008, the ARNG had 16,900 soldiers in Iraq, which represented seven percent of the U.S. troops on the ground and 5,800 soldiers in Afghanistan, which represented 18% of the U.S. troops on the ground (Waterhouse, 2008). The amount of ARNG soldiers mobilized to support the GWOT is the largest in

the history of the ARNG. In 2007 the Defense Science Board report stated:

During this period, the frequency of deployments has become a point of deep concern both in and outside of the military. The questions at the forefront are whether the increased use can be sustained by the service members called to duty, its impact on families and employers, as well as its impact on the long run viability of the all-volunteer force. (Defense Science Board, 2007, p. 5)

A key component to the success of the ARNG is the retention of its soldiers.

Imbalances in the retention rate can cause problems within the military personnel system.

A common retention concern is that too few people will stay in, thereby creating a shortage of experienced leaders, decreasing military efficiency, and lowering job satisfaction (Kapp, 2013). An ARNG soldier has to consider deployments, duty to country, family obligations, civilian employer, economic issues, social pressures, benefits of being a member of the ARNG, and a variety of other variables when they decide if they are going to remain in the ARNG.

Voluntary employee turnover refers to the situations when an employee or soldier chooses to leave an organization. Civilian employees can choose to leave immediately when an unexpected job opportunity appears, but soldiers obligate themselves to a specified period of service where impulsive choices are limited (Holt, Reg, Lin, & Miller, 2007). Even though soldiers are obligated to a specific period of service, there are some soldiers who choose to leave that report their decision was avoidable (Maertz & Campion, 1998) and if the organization had made some changes then the soldier would not have left. The ARNG must take all reasonable measures to maintain quality soldiers because the specific mission of ARNG units cannot be accomplished without each unit

having a specified minimum amount of quality soldiers. Leaders must first identify the factors which detract from a soldier's desire to remain in the ARNG and then counter these detractors to improve soldier retention which positively impacts the ability of the ARNG to accomplish missions.

There have been other studies (Bolton, 2002; Griffith, 2005; 2009b; Zangaro & Kelley, 2010) done on how particular variables may impact employee retention. The purpose of this study is to analyze the relationship that leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment has on the re-enlistment intention of Virginia ARNG (VAARNG) soldiers. By identifying the impact of transformational leadership on soldiers' level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and his or her re-enlistment intention, the ARNG can develop strategies to help them meet their retention goals and help ensure the ARNG is an organization people want to work.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine whether transformational leadership, and its impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, impacts soldiers' re-enlistment intention in the VAARNG.

Research Question

To guide this research the following questions were developed:

RQ₁: Does transformational leadership impact the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

RQ₂: Does transformational leadership impact the job satisfaction of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

RQ₃: Does job satisfaction mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

RQ₄: Does transformational leadership impact the organizational commitment of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

RQ₅: Does organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

RQ₆: Does job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers; mid-term soldiers; and careerist soldiers?

RQ₇: Is there a significant difference amongst the transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

Background and Significance

Following the events of 11 September 2001 (9/11), the U.S. expanded its military commitments to include fully waged wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, as well as domestic security based responsibilities, adding to the pressure to retain service members (Hosek & Mattock, 2004). Every individual who is retained in a military organization reduces the need for acquiring replacements and allows personnel and training resources to be redirected to other functions (Eitelberg & Mehay, 1994). The average cost of training a new recruit, from the time the individual walks into a recruiting station until reaching their first duty station, is \$73,000, if the trainee goes to Basic Training (BT)/Advanced Individual Training (AIT) (United States Army, 2012a). Imbalances in the retention rate

can cause problems within the military personnel system (Kapp, 2013). The retention of quality soldiers is a necessity that the Department of Defense (DoD) realizes is required to maintain the military at a level that can support the U.S. missions domestic and abroad:

The pressure for retention is further increased by the constant introduction, at a steadily accelerating pace, of highly complex and sophisticated new equipment that requires skilled and experienced personnel to maintain and operate. To train and familiarize a recruit with the very technical tools of modern war takes far more time and money than to instruct him in the traditional military skills of shooting and marching. Yet, even as the requirement for maintaining high retention has increased, the attractions of highly paid, less hazardous civilian positions constantly lure more and more technicians and other experienced professionals from both the enlisted and officer ranks. (U.S. Commission on National Security, 2002, p. 74)

To combat soldier voluntary turnover and retain quality soldiers, the Army has initiated programs to increase re-enlistment bonuses and improve educational benefits (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2005). And despite offering these benefits the military did struggle to retain soldiers in the post 9/11 period. Because of the pivotal role that the ARNG now performs in supporting the active duty force, it is paramount the ARNG has enough personnel to enables them to continue supporting the active duty force.

The amount of personnel in the Armed Forces is tracked through retention or attrition. The term retention refers to the rate at which military personnel voluntarily choose to stay in the military after their original obligated term of service has ended

(Kapp, 2013). The military tracks retention rates by initial term (first enlistment, regardless of length), mid-career (second or subsequent enlistment with up to 10 years of service), and career (second or subsequent enlistment with 10 or more years of service) (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2005). Attrition rates are a measure of the percentage of people who leave the reserves in a given year; rather than the number of people who stay (Kapp, 2013). The annual attrition rate formula used by the military organizations is “number of voluntary separations during the year” divided by “the average number of employees during the year” the answer is multiplied by 100 to obtain the attrition rate percentage (United States Army, 2009a). The DoD uses attrition rates rather than retention rates to determine if the ARNG has enough personnel to perform its mission, because it is much easier for personnel to leave the ARNG compared to the active duty force of the military.

Attrition goal is the maximum rate or ceiling the ARNG tries not to exceed. The ARNG attrition goal or ceiling set by the DoD and what the attrition rate was in FY2005 through FY 2011, which was 19.5%. This was a particular concern during the mid-2000's, as the stress of combat deployments raised concerns about the willingness of military personnel to continue serving. Data displays that the ARNG has been under its attrition ceiling for the last several years, except in FY2005 and FY2007. The reduction of the attrition rate in FY2010 can be related to “a relatively weak civilian job market” (Kapp, 2013, p. 11), which makes service in the ARNG more attractive despite the existence of other factors that have an impact on the retention of soldiers. See Table 1.

Table 1

Attrition Data for ARNG Enlisted Personnel

Attrition (Target Ceiling)	FY2005	FY2006	FY2007	FY2008	FY2009	FY2010	FY2011	
	19.5%	20.2%	18.8%	19.7%	18.9%	19.3%	17.3%	16.2%

Source: Kapp, 2013

The amount of soldiers in the VAARNG from FY 2006 to FY 2012 varied between 7,800 and 8,200. During this period of time the VAARNG exceeded its attrition ceiling from FY 07 to FY 09; the FY 07 – 09 periods coincides with the fact that many four and six year enlistments which followed 11 September 2001 were being completed and units were returning from deployments. Enlisted soldiers attritions rates and actual numbers of the VAARNG are listed in Table 2.

Table 2

Attrition Data for the Virginia ARNG Enlisted Personnel

Attrition (Target Ceiling)	FY2006	FY2007	FY2008	FY2009	FY2010	FY2011	FY2012	
	19.5%	15.1%	19.7%	20.9%	21.1%	17.8%	16.3%	17.4%
	1,238	1,614	1,713	1,730	1,459	1,336	1,108	

Source: VAARNG SIDPERS, 2013

After 11 September 2001, there was an overwhelming amount of patriotism and a large initial rush of citizens joined the military, but over time the level of enlistments into the military began to lessen. Defense Watch, an online periodical journal, interviewed Cline, a retired Army recruiter, and he stated that declines in both recruitment and retention are particularly apparent in the Northeast and Western states, especially New

York, New Jersey, California, Washington, and Oregon (Helms, 2004). In November 2004 the ARNG implemented their Stop-Loss Program, which prevented soldiers who were in units that had been identified as going to deploy from leaving the military until after their deployment was complete (Henning, 2009). This was a pre-emptive move done by the ARNG, because the ARNG was aware retention would become an issue by 2004, since many of the citizens that enlisted after 11 September 2001 would be eligible to get out of the ARNG. But on 18 March 2009, Secretary of Defense Robert Gates announced the goal was to reduce the number of Reserve soldiers on Stop-Loss to zero by March 2011. While the Stop-Loss program was active from 2004 to 2009 between 2,000 to 4,000 ARNG soldiers were impacted each month and prevented from leaving the ARNG, even if they wanted to end their service (Henning, 2009). The Stop-Loss Program did keep deploying ARNG units at mission strength and improved the retention of ARNG soldiers, the attrition rate of ARNG soldiers never exceeded the ceiling rate after FY2007. The negative aspect of the Stop-Loss Program is that it promotes retention against the will of some of the soldiers.

The significance of National Guard retention can be found in the primary role that the reserve component serves in supporting the active duty force in the GWOT. For example, many of the civil affairs functions are the responsibility of the Reserve components, and without these functions the active Army may not be able to meet national objectives in a timely, effective, and efficient manner (Chun, 2005). The level of integration that the ARNG has with the active Army is greater than it has ever been in any past conflict, so maintaining a strong ARNG is part of the United States of America defense strategy (Chun, 2005).

To maintain this support, leadership needs to ensure they understand the needs of their soldiers, so the soldier will not seek employment elsewhere. In the private sector, retention is also important and many of the same factors impact retention in the military.

Retention is the result of mutual satisfaction between the employee and the employer. The employer seeks to retain the satisfactory worker whose abilities serve its needs while at the same time the employee seeks to remain in the organization that fulfills his or her needs. To keep the workforce satisfied and at the same time advance organizational effectiveness, companies must promote employee learning and development and try to satisfy other employee needs.

(Constantine & Kalomyra, 2009, p. 29)

There have been studies (Chen & Ployhart, 2006; Griffith, 2005; Grissmer & Kirby, 1985; Kapp, 2013; Perry, Griffith, & White, 1991) done by the Department of Defense or individual researchers on the factors of retention in the National Guard, but most of these have been done on a national level. The ARNG is made up of 54 different states, territories, and the District of Columbia and each of these organizations have some traits that are unique to their region and mission. What might be a major retention factor in one state may only be a minor factor in a different state.

Bolton (2002) studied several retention factors (job satisfaction, conflict, unit support, perceived support, and perceived opportunity) in the VAARNG, but he only studied Non-Prior Service soldiers who did or did not reenlist in the VAARNG. The Bolton (2002) study determined that family support or approval of service in the ARNG and perceived support from the ARNG were statistically significant factors for soldiers

who decided to remain in the VAARNG. Since 2002, there have been many changes in the GWOT, the mission of the ARNG, and the economic picture of the United States.

The significance of this study is that it assesses the impact of transformational leadership, a variable that the VAARNG can effect through its selection and training of leaders, and whether this variable impacts soldiers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which in turn impacts the re-enlistment intention of VAARNG soldiers currently serving. Additionally, this study will assess whether soldiers at different stages of their career are impacted differently. This study can provide VAARNG empirical information on whether they should focus on the selection and training of leaders as a strategy to retain soldiers at all stages of their careers.

A conceptual model was developed for this study. The model predicts a direct relationship between transformational leadership and re-enlistment intention. In addition, the model also predicts a mediating effect, in which the antecedent independent variable, transformational leadership, affects the dependent variable, re-enlistment intention, through the mediating variables job satisfaction and organizational commitment. See Figure 1.

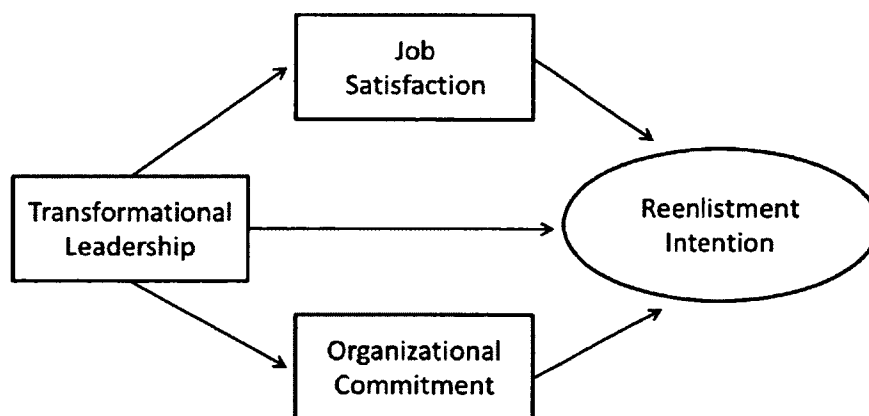


Figure 1. Conceptual National Guard military retention intention model

Limitations

This study presents several limitations to participants and the subject matter of this study:

1. Only the VAARNG was used as the population for this study.
2. This study does not include every possible organizational variable that could impact a soldier's decision about remaining in the VAARNG. It focused on transformational leadership, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.
3. This study did not include soldiers who had more than 18 years of service, because retirement can be earned after 20 years of service and the majority of soldiers with 18 years of service will remain at least until retirement.
4. This study did not include commission officers because they do not reenlist; they remain until retirement, remain until they are involuntarily removed from the military, or they resign their commission and leave the military.
5. The survey was used to assess soldiers' retention decisions at one particular moment in time, as opposed to over a certain period of time.
6. The retention decision soldiers selected on the survey may not be the same decision made when it was time to actually reenlist.
7. The study only included soldiers who had less than 12 months before their expiration term of service (ETS) date.

Assumptions

There were several assumptions made in this study. These assumptions had to hold true for the study to reach its research objectives. The following were the assumptions:

1. The instrument used in the study accurately measured variables that contribute to the re-enlistment decision of a VAARNG soldier.
2. Respondents answered all the survey items truthfully.
3. Voluntary respondents truly represent the entire VAARNG population.
4. Transformational leadership is an organizational variable that the VAARNG can impact which affects a soldier's choice to remain or separate from the VAARNG.

Procedures

A stratified random sample was used for this study. The three groups for the study were first-term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers. This was an empirical study and a survey was used to collect data from the participants. The survey asked the soldiers questions about transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and their re-enlistment intention. The survey contained closed-ended questions from reliable scales that have been used in other retention studies. The survey used a Likert Scale to rate how the soldiers felt these different variables affected their decision about reenlisting in the VAARNG. A letter was sent to all the participants with a link to the questionnaire located on a Survey Monkey™ website.

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data from the participants. Regression analyses were used to determine which of the variables in the study were significantly correlated and impacted soldiers' re-enlistment intention; and if there were differences between the soldiers in different career statuses.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are key terms used to design this study:

ARNG: The Army National Guard is one of the seven reserve components of the United States armed forces. It is also the organized militia of 54 separate entities: the 50 states, the territories of Guam and the U.S. Virgin Islands, the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia. (United States Army, 2006)

Attrition: Measure the percentage of soldiers who leave in a given year (Kapp, 2013, p.13).

Careerist: A soldier on their second or subsequent enlistment who will have more than 10 years of military service on their separation date (United States Army, 2006).

Company: A subdivision of a military regiment or battalion that constitutes the lowest administrative unit. It is usually under the command of a captain and is made up of at least two platoons. The amount of personnel is usually between 50 to 100 soldiers (United States Army, 1994).

Employer Support of The Guard and Reserve (ESGR): a Department of Defense agency that promotes cooperation and understanding between Reserve Component Service members and their civilian employers and to assist in the resolution of conflicts from an employee's military commitment (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011).

Expiration Term of Service (ETS): The point at which a service member's contractual obligation for military service expires. This is the contractual point at which the service member concludes their participation (departs) or extends their contractual obligation to remain in the organization (United States Army, 2006).

First Term: A soldier on her/his first period of military service (United States Army, 2006).

Global War on Terrorism (GWOT): After the Al Qaeda terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, President Bush announced a Global War on Terrorism, requiring the collective instruments of the entire federal government to counter the threat of terrorism. Ongoing military and diplomatic operations overseas, especially in Iraq and Afghanistan, constitute a key part of GWOT. These operations involve a wide variety of activities, such as combating insurgents, training the military forces of other nations, and conducting small-scale reconstruction and humanitarian relief projects (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2008).

Job Satisfaction: the outcome of employee perceptions about the importance of things that are provided by their jobs and the emotional response to the job that can only be inferred (Luthans, 2005).

Mid-Term: A soldier on a second or subsequent period of military service who has 10 or less years of military service at her/his separation date (United States Army, 2006).

Non-Prior Service: soldiers who are currently enlisted into the military and are serving on their first military duty enlistment contract (United States Army, 2009b).

Organizational Commitment: an individual's psychological attachment to an organization (Myer & Allen, 1991).

Re-enlistment: All voluntary enrollments after the initial enlistment/induction (United States Army, 2006).

Reserve Component (RC): The Armed Forces of the United States Reserve Component consists of the ARNG of the United States, the Army Reserve, the Navy

Reserve, the Marine Corps Reserve, the Air National Guard of the United States, the Air Force Reserve, and the Coast Guard Reserve. (U.S. Department of Defense, 2012).

Retention: The rate at which military personnel voluntarily choose to stay in the military after their original obligated term of service has ended (Kapp, 2013).

SIDPERS: The U.S. Army personnel database. The database includes significant quantifiable elements on each soldier (U.S. Department of Defense, 2012).

Stop Loss Program: A Department of Defense program which enables the military to prevent service members from leaving active duty after they have completed their obligations (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2006).

Transformational Leadership: a process in which leaders and followers help each other to advance to a higher level of morale and motivation and create significant change in the life of people and organizations (Burns, 1978).

VAARNG: the Army National Guard organization for the state of Virginia.

Summary and Overview

This chapter highlighted the role of the ARNG in supporting the active Army, and the VAARNG in particular, and how maintaining the appropriate number of personnel impacts Army success. The specific focus of this study was to determine if transformational leadership impacts soldiers' re-enlistment intentions; and whether job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on re-enlistment intentions. The ARNG support of the active Army has significantly increased since the start of the GWOT. The important role performed by the ARNG in supporting the active Army requires leaders to understand how to retain quality soldiers to ensure the ARNG can continue to perform their missions. The seven research

questions developed to guide this study were: (1) Does transformational leadership impact the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (2) Does transformational leadership impact the job satisfaction of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (3) Does job satisfaction mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (4) Does transformational leadership impact the organizational commitment of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (5) Does organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (6) Does job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers; mid-term soldiers? (7) Is there a significant difference amongst the transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

The organizational variables being studied are transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention. Background information was provided to explain the need to research the retention of ARNG soldiers' because factors that impact ARNG soldiers are different from civilian employees and even active-duty Army soldiers. Data will be gathered from VAARNG soldiers within 12 months of their expiration term of service and less than 18 years of service using a questionnaire on a Survey Monkey TM website. The data will be analyzed using descriptive statistics and multiple regression analyses.

Chapter II will review the literature on retention, focusing on the relationship between the three organizational variables and how these variables impact employees' retention. Chapter III will address the methods and procedures utilized to conduct this study. Chapter IV will present the findings of this empirical study. Chapter V will summarize the results of the research, draw conclusions of the findings, and list recommendations based on these conclusions.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a review of the literature on transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and retention. This chapter also discussed the relationship between these three variables and how they impact retention. The literature review was divided into three sections. The first section described the existing foundations of voluntary employee turnover (civilian and military); the second section discussed the three organizational variables in question, namely transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment; and the third section discussed the relationship among the three organizational variables and retention.

Foundations of Voluntary Employee Turnover

Voluntary employee turnover is one of the most studied behaviors in management research (Griffith, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; March & Simon, 1958). All voluntary turnover follows a process model or content model. Process models focus on how individuals arrive at their final decisions to quit, while content models focus on why individuals remain or separate from organizations (Maertz & Campion, 2004). Most of the early voluntary turnover theories and models focused on the individual characteristics of satisfaction, commitment, and intention as the key antecedents to employee turnover (Peterson, 2004). Later voluntary turnover theories found work environment factors (role conflict, relations with coworkers, unemployment rates, and autonomy) were also important and began including environmental factors (Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001).

The first voluntary employee turnover theory was when March and Simon (1958) introduced their theory of organizational equilibrium, suggesting that job satisfaction reduced the desirability of moving, which reduces employee turnover. If an employee's monetary inducements match or exceed their individual input into the organization, then an individual will remain a member of the organization (March & Simon, 1958). The equilibrium or balance is affected by two major considerations: (1) the perceived desirability of leaving the job, and (2) the perceived ease of movement from the organization (Tosi, 2009). The March and Simon (1958) model shows that the decision to leave the organization is most likely to occur when the individual believes it will be easy to move to another organization and they want to move to another organization.

A new theory about voluntary employee turnover did not emerge until Porter and Steers (1973) developed the Met Expectations hypothesis. The theory of met expectations proposes that the more congruent an individual's expectations are with the individual's reality once on the job, the greater the individual's satisfaction and adjustment (Porter & Steers, 1973). This hypothesis states that when an individual's job expectations are not substantially met, then their propensity to leave an organization should increase (Porter & Steers, 1973). The fulfillment of work expectations impacts employee job satisfaction, work commitment, and other job-related attitudes which affect job performance and, ultimately, turnover (Olsen & Crawford, 1998).

Since the Met Expectation hypothesis there has been numerous models and theories developed to explain voluntary employee turnover in the civilian and military workforce. One of the civilian models was the Price Model (Price, 1977) of turnover, a process that begins with a series of structural and individual determinants of job

satisfaction. An individual's satisfaction level determines the probability of an individual leaving an organization or staying with it is contingent upon the state of the economy (Bluedorn, 1982). Increased turnover in an organization occurs when pay is low, there is no primary group participation, communication is low, and there is a high centralization of power within one group or section of the organization (Price, 1977). Job satisfaction appears to mediate the impact of these variables. Nonetheless, if these variables create more dissatisfaction than satisfaction, and there are jobs in the environment then turnover is likely to occur (Griffeth & Hom, 2004).

The Intermediate Linkage Model (Mobley, 1977), also a process model of turnover, begins with an employee evaluating their existing job, then the employee searches for, evaluates and compares alternatives and the turnover process ends with the employee making a decision to stay with or leave an organization. The model takes into account a variety of cognitive and behavioral phenomena that occur between the emotional experience of job dissatisfaction and the withdrawal decision (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978). This model is consistent with Locke's task motivation model, which theorizes that the most immediate motivational determinant of choice is the individual's goal or intention, which in this case is the intention to stay with or leave an organization (Locke, 1968)

The Unified Model of Turnover (Bluedorn, 1982) synthesized the most influential variables of existing turnover models to create a unified model of turnover. The unified turnover model is comprised of 15 determinant variables followed by five criterion variables. Of the 15 determinant variables, four were identified as the most significant and directly related to turnover: environmental opportunity, intentions to stay,

routinization, and age (Bluedorn, 1982). The criterion variables: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job search, and intent to leave, were all significant variables of turnover (Bluedorn, 1982). The Unfolding Model (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) assumes the basis for leaving an organization is linked to a precipitating event referred to as a shock. A shock is a jarring event that makes an individual reassess their current situation; the shock can be negative or positive, job related or non-job-related, internal or external to an individual, and expected or unexpected (Lee, Gerhart, Weller, & Trevor, 2008). The shock causes the individual to make deliberate decisions about their job; if the shock is significant enough then the individual may quit their job despite other positive factors.

The Job Embeddedness Model (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001) represented embeddedness as a variable that impacted an employee's intention to leave an organization. The Job Embeddedness Model has two dimensions, the relationship of the individual to the organization and the relationship of the individual to the community. The Job Embeddedness Model helps determine how deep people feel attached, regardless of why they feel that way, how much they like it, and whether they chose to be very attached to an organization or community (Mitchell et al., 2001). The greater the relationship the individual has with the community and organization the lower their level of turnover intention.

Some of the military turnover models are the Bluedorn Military Retention Model (Bluedorn, 1979) which has four exogenous variables and one intervening variable. The exogenous variables are pay, organizational control (organizational structure), environmental pull, and environment push (organizational environment) (Bluedorn, 1979). The intervening variable is job satisfaction. The four exogenous variables had an

indirect effect on turnover through the intervening variable “job satisfaction” and job satisfaction had a positive direct effect on turnover (Bluedorn, 1979). This study incorporated job satisfaction and an individuals’ expectancies about what would occur if they remained in or left the military. The study also showed how a person’s perception acts as a selective filter that accepts incoming material that supports their feelings and rejects material that does not reinforce their feelings (Motowidlo & Lawton, 1984). The Motowidlo & Lawton Military Turnover Model (Motowidlo & Lawton, 1984) determined job satisfaction had casual effects on the expectancy variables used in the study and job satisfaction impacted turnover intention through its effects on expectancies. This model suggested that the two expectancies (reenlist and leave) influence turnover intention independently of each other (Motowidlo & Lawton, 1984).

The Personal Choice Military Retention Model (Capon, Chernyshenko, & Stark, 2007) explained voluntary turnover as a motivated personal choice. Each of the antecedents in the model place either a direct or indirect effect on the soldiers’ intentions to remain in the Army. The distal predictors were perceived organizational support, work-family conflict (WFC), dispositions, and met expectations. The proximal predictors were community involvement, job involvement, organizational commitment, and work satisfaction. The Capon, Chernshenko, and Stark (2007) study showed that the proximal predictors, community involvement, work satisfaction, and organizational commitment, had the strongest effects on intentions to remain in the Army.

The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) Proposed Model of Military Retention (Sumer & Ven, 2007) classifies the factors anticipated to play an important role in military turnover under three categories: distal factors (e.g., job and organizational

characteristics, perceived job alternatives), mediating factors (e.g., person-environment fit, quality of life concerns, work attitudes, job satisfaction, continuance commitment, affective commitment), and proximal factors (e.g., turnover intentions, unemployment rate, shocks). The model approaches voluntary turnover as a micro-level decision that may be impacted by macro-level labor market parameters. Ultimately the individual soldier's experiences on the job and in the organization are much better indicators of voluntary turnover than the macro-level approach (Sumer & Ven, 2007).

By focusing on the micro-level decisions, leaders are better able to understand how the proximal factors impact turnover intentions and then develop human resource activities such as recruitment, selection, and continuous monitoring of the retention rate to identify the negative trends (Sumer & Ven, 2007). Most people who offer conceptual models to explain the employee voluntary turnover process (civilian or military) suggest the process includes behavioral, attitudinal, and decisional components (Barak, Nissly, & Levin, 2001). Nonetheless, turnover intention is regarded as the best predictor of actual turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Numerous variables have been used in employee turnover models. The Price (1977) causal model used pay, communication, centralization, and job satisfaction as some of the variables. The Mobley (1977) intermediate linkage model used job satisfaction, search for alternatives, and evaluation of alternatives as some of the variables. The Bluedorn (1982) unified model of turnover used equity, pay, role conflict, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment as some of the variables. The Lee and Mitchell (1994) unfolding model used shock, image violation, and job satisfaction as some of the variables. The Job Embeddedness model used a form of organizational

commitment as one of the variables to determine turnover intention (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001). The Bluedorn (1979) military retention model included pay and job satisfaction as some of the variables. The Motowidlo and Lawton (1984) military turnover model used job satisfaction, perception, and expectancy as variables. The Personal Choice model used leadership, work-family conflict, job involvement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction as variables (Capon, Chernyshenko, & Stark, 2007). The NATO proposed model of military retention used leadership, group cohesion, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and unemployment rate as variables (Sumer & Ven, 2007).

Throughout most of these turnover models a type of leadership, job satisfaction, and/or organizational commitment was used as a variable. This study focused on organizational variables that the Virginia Army National Guard could impact: transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and their relationship to re-enlistment intention. Variables such as pay, shock, role conflict, image violation, or unemployment rate were not included. Transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment were selected because their impact was shown in previous employee turnover studies and they are variables that the VAARNG can influence.

This study will research transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and determine their impact/relationship on one another and turnover intention or in the case of this study, re-enlistment intention. Turnover intention is defined as an attitudinal orientation or a cognitive manifestation of the behavioral decision to quit (Wang & Yi, 2011). There is considerable amount of empirical support

for the belief that turnover intention is the most important and immediate antecedent of turnover decisions (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino 1979; Bluedorn, 1982). Mobley et al. (1979) suggested that intentions may be a better explanation of turnover, because they encompass a person's perception and judgment. Most researchers now accept the antecedent that intention to stay or leave an organization for employees is the final cognitive step in the process of voluntary turnover (Steel & Ovalle, 1984). As a result, turnover intention has been incorporated in most turnover models developed in the past 20 years (Lambert, Hogan and Barton, 2001). The next section will review the organizational variables employed in this study.

Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment

In this section of the literature review, the three independent and mediating variables under consideration in this study are reviewed: Transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Leadership

The Army defines leadership as the process of influencing people by providing purpose, direction, and motivation to accomplish the mission and improve the organization (United States Army, 2012b). Leaders must balance successful mission accomplishment with how the soldiers in the organization are treated and cared for. Soldiers expect their leadership to be competent, professional, and ethical individuals who respect the soldier as a valued member of the organization (Reed & Bullis, 2009). The hierarchal structure of the military requires that good order and discipline be maintained for successful mission accomplishment; poor or toxic leadership can impact successful mission accomplishment and the attitudes of soldiers to remain in the

organization. There are two major types of leadership discussed in the literature: transactional leadership and transformational leadership.

Transactional Leadership. The concept of transactional leadership grew out of the exchange-based theories of leadership that dominated leadership literature until the 1980's (Hargis, Watt, & Piotrowski, 2011). Transactional leadership involves a relationship between the leader and their team that is a carrot-and-stick in nature (Bass & Avolio, 1993). This means that team members are rewarded when they carry out an action that benefits the team's performance, and they are punished when they take an action detrimental to the team's performance (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Transactional leadership involves a single exchange/transaction process between the leader and the follower. Transactional leadership refers to a dynamic exchange between leaders and their subordinates, in which the leader establishes specific goals, monitors progress, and identifies rewards that can be expected upon goal achievement (Bass, 1985). The exchange process between the leader and the followers is intended to increase followers' compliance to the leader and the organizational rules (Yukl, 1998).

Transactional leadership consists of three dimensions: contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception (Bass, 1985). Contingent reward is the exchange of rewards from leaders to followers for accomplishing objectives (Bass & Avolio, 1993). The leadership set clear goals and objectives and clearly specifies what rewards (financial or non-financial) can be expected by achieving the goals (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Leaders transact with followers by rewarding effort contractually, telling them what to do to gain rewards, punishing undesired action, and giving extra feedback and promotions for good work (Bass, 1985).

By providing contingent rewards, a transactional leader might inspire a reasonable degree of involvement, loyalty, commitment and performance from subordinates (Bass, 1985).

Management by exception is the degree to which a leader takes corrective action on the basis of results of leader-follower transactions (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). The leader monitors the follower and corrects them if necessary. Leaders transact with followers by intervening only when followers deviate from expectations and gives them negative feedback for failure to meet the standards (Keskes, 2014). When the leader gets involved is the distinction made between active and passive management by exception.

Active management by exception is used when the leader does not want a mistake/error done by the follower to jeopardize a project. The leader has the time to micro-manage followers and the followers may be less experienced in the work area. The leader actively receives statuses, problems, challenges, develops processes, ensures adherence of project processes, and conducts interviews to ensure no error goes beyond a certain time period (Bass, 1990). Active management by exception may be necessary when safety is an issue during a project.

Passive management by exception is used when a leader does not really care much about the errors or deviance as soon as it occurs because the team will have time to correct the errors and the errors are not critical (Bass, 1990). The leader only intervenes when procedures and standards for accomplishing tasks are not being met (Bass, 1990). Leaders who have experienced team members will often follow this model.

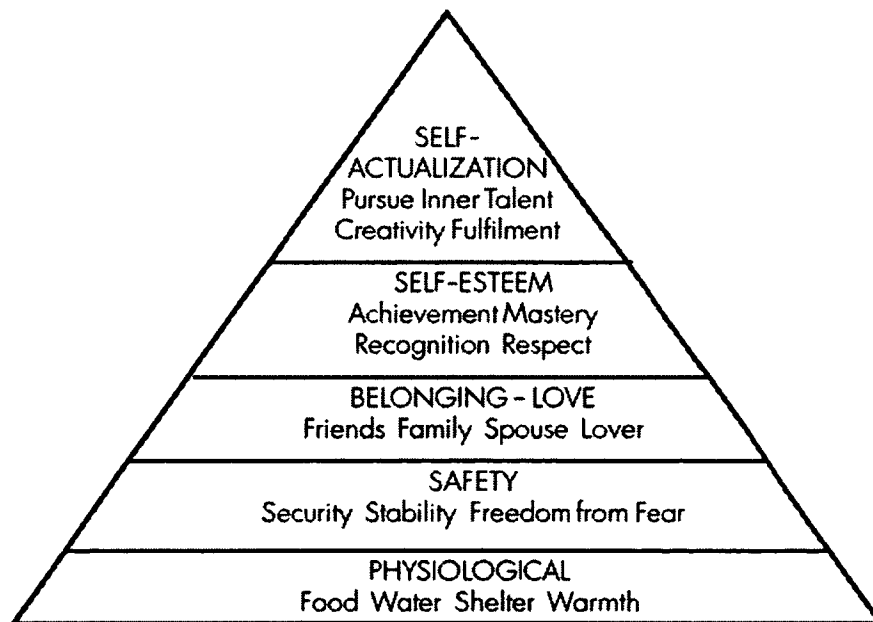
Transactional leaders are more effective at operating an existing system; they set goals, articulate explicit agreements regarding expectations and rewards, and provide constructive feedback to keep everybody on task (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Transactional

leaders are negotiating agents who conciliate and sometimes compromise to obtain greater decision-making power within the group (Ruggieri, 2013). To achieve this goal transactional leaders perform actions that enable them to influence and convince the followers, who are capable of providing valuable support (Ruggieri, 2013). Transactional leaders exercise interpersonal transactions in which tasks, expectations, and related awards are clearly stated and understood. The aim of rewards and punishments is not to transform the followers but to ensure that the expected results are achieved (Ruggieri, 2013).

Transformational Leadership. Many leadership theories exist and an approach attracting significant attention over the past several decades is transformational leadership. James MacGregor Burns first introduced the term transformational leadership in 1978. The term was subsequently developed by Bass, Avolio, Jung and Berson, (2003). Transformational leadership describes a leader who identifies change, develops a vision and plan of action for achieving the desired change, and executes the change with the help and commitment of group members/followers (Burns, 1978). Transformational leaders transforms the self-concept of their followers by building the personal and social identity among followers with the mission and goals of the leader and organization (Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993). The followers' feelings of involvement, cohesion, commitment and performance are enhanced (Bass et al., 2003). Transformational leadership develops followers to believe in themselves and their mission. Transformational leaders enhance the performance capacity of their followers by setting higher expectations and generating a greater willingness to address more difficult

challenges (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998). The desired outcome of transformational leadership is dedication and enthusiasm and not obedience and indifference (Yukl, 1989).

Burns was influenced by Maslow's Theory of Human Needs when he introduced the term transformational leadership. Maslow recognized that people have a range of needs, and the extent to which they performed effectively in the workplace was affected by the extent to which these needs were satisfied (Maslow, 1954). Transformational leaders rely upon the higher order needs of their followers and encourage their followers to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization (Wright, Moynihan & Pandey, 2011). Transformational leadership fits into the higher two levels of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, a leader needs to create a high level of self-esteem and self-actualization in their followers to successfully be an authentic transformational leader (Convey, 2007). See Figure 2.



*Figure 2. Maslow Hierarchy of Needs. Adapted from "Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs: A Framework for Achieving Human Potential in Hospice", by R. J. Zalenski and R. Raspa, 2006, *Journal of Palliative Medicine*, 9, p. 1121., originally based on "A Theory of Human Motivation" by A. H. Maslow, 1943, *Psychological Review*, 50, p 372-383.*

Bass (1985) categorized transformational leadership into four components: (a) charisma or individualized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration. Individualized influence is the degree to which the leader behaves in admirable ways that cause followers to identify with the leader (Bass, 1985). Charismatic leaders gain respect, pride, trust, and confidence of their followers by communicating a strong sense of vision and mission (Gardner & Avolio, 1998). These leaders excite, arouse, and inspire their followers to the point that the relationship between the leader and follower is based on personal understanding as opposed to formal, institutional rules, regulations, rewards, or punishments (Bass, 1985). Their communication style is effective because it involves powerful nonverbal tactics that mobilize followers into action by linking current behaviors to past events (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Inspirational motivation involves how well the leader articulates a vision that is appealing and inspiring to followers (Bass, 1985). Leaders with inspirational motivation challenge subordinates with high standards, communicate optimism about future goals, and provide meaning for the task at hand (Bass, 1985). Intellectual stimulation is the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions, takes risk and solicits subordinates' ideas (Bass, 1985). Leaders with this trait stimulate and encourage critical thinking in their subordinates (Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005). Encouraging followers to discover new ways to approach their jobs motivates the followers to become more involved in their jobs, resulting in higher levels of performance, commitment, and satisfaction (Walumbwa et al., 2005). Individualized consideration is the degree a leader attends to their subordinates' needs, acts as a mentor or coach to their subordinates and listens to their subordinates' concerns and needs (Bass,

1985). A leader displaying individualized consideration pays special attention to an individuals' abilities, aspirations, and needs to further enhance the followers' confidence in responding to problems facing the organization (Avolio, Bass, Walumbwa & Zhu, 2004). In subsequent writings Bass (1988) noted that although charismatic and inspirational leadership were unique constructs, they were often not empirically distinguishable, thus reducing the transformational leadership components to three factors (charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration).

Between the two leadership styles, transformational leadership was selected for this study because transactional leadership can be characterized as leadership of the status quo. Transactional leaders derive their authority from established power relationships and organizational structures, while transformational leadership is focused on change – change within leaders, within their subordinates, and within their organization (Bashman, 2012). Transactional leadership environment is highly structured with an emphasis on managerial authority. This type of environment leads to an uncreative climate and impedes creative expansion of the organization due to the assumption that people are largely motivated by simple rewards for specific job performance (Bashman, 2012).

The major disadvantage of transactional leadership is that it does not take into account people's desire for self-actualization (Bashman, 2012). Transactional leadership in people oriented industries like hotels can lower the employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment, resulting in the delivery of poor customer service and the decline of overall performance (Patiar & Mia, 2009). Transformational leadership taps into core value systems and these value systems are used by employees to determine their level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment with the organization.

Transformational leadership better addresses the variables used in this study impacting an individual's decision about remaining with an organization.

Job Satisfaction

The concept of job satisfaction was first addressed by Hoppock (1935) in the book entitled *Job Satisfaction*. Hoppock believed that job satisfaction is the employee's psychological and physical satisfaction of environmental factors and subjective response to the individual's working situation (Hoppock, 1935). Job satisfaction is also defined as the outcome of perceptions of the employees about the importance of the things that are provided by their jobs and that it is an emotional response to the job that can only be inferred (Luthans, 2005). A third definition of job satisfaction provided by Spector (1985) states that employees attitudes are influenced by pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Job satisfaction is one of the most studied work attitudes by organizational behavior researchers (Ghazzawi, 2008).

Spector (1997) listed three important features of job satisfaction. The first feature is human values; organizations should treat workers fairly and with dignity and respect. Organizational assessments indicating high levels of job satisfaction are usually a sign of good emotional and mental states of employees (Kumari, 2013). The second feature is the behavior of workers; their level of job satisfaction will affect the functioning and activities of the organization. From this it can be concluded that job satisfaction will result in positive behavior and vice versa; dissatisfaction from work will result in negative behaviors of employees (Kumari, 2013). The third feature is employee support of organizational activities such as family day, or bring a child to work day, or the annual

holiday party. A low employee participation rate or low enthusiasm while attending these events could indicate low job satisfaction (Spector, 1997).

Numerous theories of job satisfaction have been developed by behavioral scientist. Some of these theories are the Affect Theory of Job Satisfaction and the Dispositional Theory of Job Satisfaction which looked at personal factors as the source of job satisfaction. The Needs Hierarchy Theory and Motivation-Hygiene (two-factor) Theory of Job Satisfaction looked at implicit and explicit factors as the source of job satisfaction. The Affect Theory of Job Satisfaction developed by Silvan Tomkins is built on the premise that emotions have positive and negative effects on individuals' behaviors (Ahmed, 2011). The Disposition Theory of Job Satisfaction stated the disposition of an employee towards their job satisfaction is generally determined by such factors as self-esteem, general self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (Judge, 2000).

The Needs Hierarchy Theory of Maslow (1954) theorized that people have five classifications or levels of needs which act as motivators. The first level of needs is physiological, such as the need for food, air, and water. The second level are the safety needs. These can encompass things such as security, stability, protection; freedom from fear, anxiety, and chaos. (Rezvani. & Mansourian, 2011). The third level of need is belonging and love. These needs involve the giving and receiving of affection and when the third level of needs is not satisfied then a person will intensely feel the absence of friends, mate, or children (Rezvani. & Mansourian, 2011). The fourth level is the need for esteem, which is achieved by mastery of the environment and societal recognition (Rezvani. & Mansourian, 2011). The fifth level, the need for self-actualization, deals with a person existing at their maximum potential. Achieving this need can lead to

transcendence, such as the experience of deep connection with others, nature, or God, and the perception of beauty, truth, goodness, and the sacred in the world (Rezvani. & Mansourian, 2011).

The three basic assumptions of Maslow's theory are: first - unsatisfied needs stimulate behavior while satisfied needs are not motivators; second - people's needs are hierarchically arranged from the most basic being physical needs upward to the more complex being self-actualization; and third - individuals must at least minimally satisfy a lower level of need before moving upward and activating a new area of need (Berl & Williamson, 1987). When the Needs Hierarchy Theory of Maslow (1954) is applied to an organizational setting, organizations need to attempt to fulfill the needs of the employees by providing appropriate leadership, pay, and training for example.

Herzberg's Motivational-Hygiene Theory was developed in 1959 and based on his study involving a series of interviews with 200 accountants and engineers (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Herzberg's theory argued that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction resulted from different causes. Satisfaction depends on motivators, while dissatisfaction is the result of hygiene factors (Udechukwu, 2009). According to Gu and Gu (2011), motivators are concerned with the content of the job itself and are the factors used to satisfy people's growth needs. These motivators include: (1) achievement, (2) recognition, (3) responsibility, (4) work itself, (5) advancement, and (6) personal growth (Gu & Gu, 2011). The hygiene factors are contextual in nature in that they involve those things surrounding the job but are not directly involved in the work itself. These are the basic conditions to drive people to work. These hygiene factors include: (1) salary, (2)

work conditions, (3) status, (4) interpersonal relationships, (5) company policy, (6) safety, and (7) security (Gu & Gu, 2011).

Motivators are expected to boost job satisfaction levels and employee performance; but a lack or absence of motivators does not necessarily decrease job satisfaction levels. The existence of poor hygiene factors is expected to result in low or reduced job satisfaction levels and low employee performance; but a lack of poor hygiene factor does not increase job satisfaction (Lee, Shin, & Lee, 2009). According to Herzberg's theory, an employer could not improve job satisfaction by improving hygiene factors; an employer can only improve job satisfaction by increasing the motivators (Smerek & Peterson, 2007). See Figure 3.

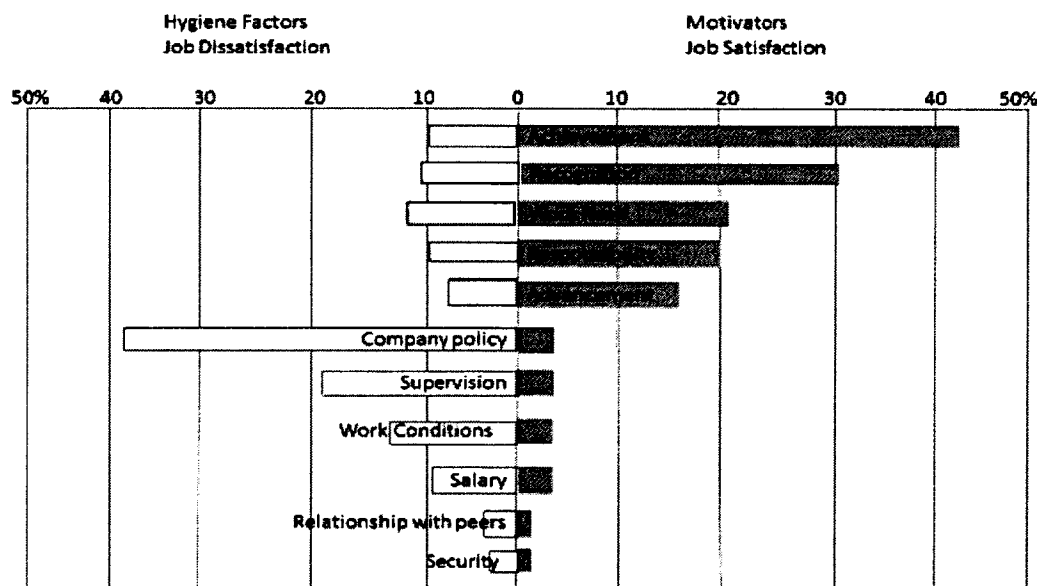


Figure 3. Herzberg's Motivational-Hygiene Theory Model. Adapted from "One more time: How do you motivate employees?" by F. Herzberg, 1968, *Harvard Business Review*, 46, p. 57.

Several studies have focused on the Herzberg's Motivational-Hygiene Theory to explain job satisfaction. Lee, Shin, and Lee (2009) conducted a study of 478 people in South Korea from various demographics to assess factors that improved user satisfaction

level with their mobile data services and what factors decreased the user satisfaction level. The study determined content richness, usage skill of wireless internet, content quality, and service quality were motivators. Access speed & reliability, convenient menu system, affordability, and suitable pricing were hygiene factors that decrease satisfaction level if they are poor. Udechukwu (2009) conducted a study in a U. S. correctional facility to determine why correctional officers either liked or disliked their job, which may lead to employee turnover. The study determined the motivators were promotion, achievement, responsibility, and recognition. The hygiene factors were working conditions, interpersonal relations, company policies, salary, and supervision. Smerek and Peterson (2007) conducted a study of 2,700 employees in business operations at a large public university. A factor analysis determined recognition, work itself, opportunity for advancement, professional growth opportunities, responsibilities, and clarity of mission were the motivators. Effective senior management, benefits, effective supervisor, salary, and good relations with co-workers were hygiene factors. Collectively, the findings of these studies validated Herzberg view of job satisfaction.

A job either misses, meets, or exceeds the expectations and attitudes the individual has toward the job. Soldiers generally report lower levels of job satisfaction than their civilian counterparts doing the same job. Overall job satisfaction depends on the weight an individual attaches to the various aspects in the organization that provide the individual satisfaction and dissatisfaction; the net difference between the two is the individual's level of job satisfaction (Bluedorn, 1979).

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is one of the most widely examined variables; it has been researched as much as job satisfaction because of how many different facets of an organization it can impact. There have been numerous definitions offered for organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is an individual's psychological attachment to an organization (Myer & Allen, 1991). Organizational commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Organizational commitment is the totality of normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interest (Wiener, 1982). All of the definitions of organizational commitment in general make reference to the fact that commitment is a stabilizing or obliging force, which gives direction to behavior (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Organizational commitment has been used to predict employees' absenteeism and other behaviors. Hausknecht, Hiller, and Vance (2008) conducted a study of 12,500 state department employees to determine the impact of organizational commitment on absenteeism. Organizational commitment had a correlation of $-.45$ with absenteeism that was statistically significant $p < .05$. The higher the levels of organizational commitment the lower the absenteeism. Organizational commitment account for ($R^2 = .04$) 40% of the variance in absenteeism. Each unit increase in organizational commitment was associated with a decrease of approximately $.27$ in absenteeism. Another study by Somers (1995) of 422 staff nurses in the Northeast United States analyzed the impact of organizational commitment or absenteeism. Organizational commitment had a statistically significant $p < .05$ correlation of $-.15$ with absenteeism; and organizational

commitment accounted for ($R^2 = .27$) 27% of the variance in absenteeism. Both of these studies show organizational commitment has a statistically significant negative correlation with employee absenteeism. Organizational commitment also has a significant correlation with turnover intention, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Meyer and Allen (1991) developed a three component model based on observation that there were both similarities and differences in existing one-dimensional conceptualizations of organizational commitment. The key differences were in the mind-sets presumed to characterize the commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Meyer and Allen (1991) explained that commitment might be accompanied by one or more of these mind-sets and therefore incorporated all three into their model. The three mind-sets were labeled affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

Affective commitment is an emotional attachment. Affective commitment is the bond an individual feels toward the organization, characterized by identification and involvement with the organization as well as enjoyment in being a member of the organization (Myer & Allen, 1991). Individuals experiencing affective commitment identify with the organization's goals and values. For soldiers this can be a sense of pride because of serving their country or a sense of fulfillment from accomplishing a task or mission that supports the organization's goals. (Griffith, 2009b). Employees, whose experiences within the organization are consistent with their expectations and satisfy their basic needs, tend to develop a stronger affective commitment to the organization than employees whose experiences don't meet expectations or their needs (Meyer, Allen &

Smith, 1993). Employees with a strong affective commitment tend to continue employment with the organization because they want to continue (Myer & Allen, 1991).

Continuance commitment is cost based and deals with the extent a person needs to stay with the organization due to the costs of forgoing benefits associated with an individual's investments in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Continuance commitment also includes a lack of alternative employment opportunities for an individual, so a high unemployment rate will impact this form of commitment. Soldiers exhibiting this type of commitment feel they need to remain with the organization because of educational benefits, pay, military retirement, job skill training, or the existence of a tough civilian job market (Griffith, 2009b). Continuance commitment develops as employees recognize that they have accumulated investments that would be lost if they were to leave the organization, or they recognize that the availability of comparable alternatives are limited (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). Employees whose primary link to an organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to continue their association with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Normative commitment reflects a perceived obligation to remain in the organization (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). These employees have internalized the importance of loyalty to the organization they belong to and feel a debt to be paid to the people they work with and to the larger organization. Reasons relating to loyalty and moral obligation to the organization and its members, as in camaraderie, would reflect soldiers having this type of commitment (Griffith, 2009b). Normative commitment develops as the result of socialization experiences that emphasize the appropriateness of remaining loyal to one's employer or through the receipt of

benefits (e.g., tuition payments or skills training) that create within the employee a sense of obligation to reciprocate (Scholl, 1981). Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to continue with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The next section will discuss the relationship amongst transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and their impact on turnover intention, expressed in this study as re-enlistment intention.

Relationships Amongst Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Re-enlistment Intention

Over the past twenty years, transformational leadership has been studied by leadership researchers and has been found positively associated with a number of important organizational outcomes in many different types of organizations and situations, across different levels of analysis, and across cultures (Avolio et al., 2004; Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Many empirical studies have shown that transformational leadership is positively associated with important work-related attitudes and behaviors, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust, job performance, and fewer turnover intentions (Avolio et al., 2004). The relationships between transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention is discussed next.

Transformational Leadership Relationship with Job Satisfaction

Several empirical studies have shown transformational leadership has a significant influence on employee job satisfaction (Yusof, 1989; Walumbwa et al., 2005; Zahari & Shurbagi, 2012; Shibru, 2011; & Yang, 2012). The Yusof (1989) study participants were 308 college coaches and the results determined transformational

leadership had a correlation to job satisfaction; in fact transformational leadership improved the prediction of the dependent variable job satisfaction. The study showed there was a significant relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors of athletic directors and the job satisfaction of coaches. Athletic directors who provided a vision for their coaches of the future of the program and actively involved their coaches in the decision making process for the athletic program, had coaches with a higher confidence level and feeling of ownership about the program. Athletic directors who engaged in transformational leadership behaviors had coaches who were more satisfied with their jobs (Yusof, 1989).

The Walumbwa et al. (2005) study had a total of 164 respondents in Kenya and 197 respondents in the United States who were tellers and clerks at banks. Part of the study tried to determine if there was a positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Regression analyses results indicated the variables age, educational level, organization tenure, position level, and sex accounted for 5 and 12 percent of the variance in job satisfaction in Kenya and the United States respectively. Adding transformational leadership to the regression analyses increased R^2 to .22 for Kenya and .64 for the United States, which resulted in a 17 percent (Kenya) and 42 percent (United States) increase of how much the variables accounted for the variance in satisfaction with supervisor, which was significant ($p < .05$) (Walumbwa et al., 2005). The results of this study determined transformational leadership had a significant impact on employee job satisfaction.

Zahari and Shurbagi (2012) looked at 50 employees in Libya's petroleum industry. The Pearson correlation between transformational leadership and job

satisfaction was 0.91, $p = 0.01$. Transformational leadership was measured using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and job satisfaction was measured using the Job Satisfaction Survey, both of these measurement instruments have a 5-point Likert scale. The mean of transformational leadership was 2.81 with a standard deviation of .93 and the mean of job satisfaction was 2.67 with a standard deviation of .68. The study reported the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction is significant and positive (Zahari & Shurbagi, 2012).

There have also been studies conducted to show the relationship between the components of transformational leadership (charisma or inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) and job satisfaction. Shibru (2011) looked at 145 subordinate employees from 22 leather companies in Ethiopia. The outcomes of the study found statistically significant correlations between each dimension of transformational leadership and followers' job satisfaction. Charisma ($r = .597$, $df = 143$, $p < .001$), intellectual stimulation ($r = .506$, $df = 143$, $p < .001$), individualized consideration ($r = .575$, $df = 143$, $p < .001$) and the summated transformational leadership ($r = .631$, $df = 143$, $p < .001$) all correlated positively with job satisfaction (Shibru, 2011). In this study the R^2 was 0.406 which indicates transformational leadership factors contributed 40.6% of the variation in subordinate job satisfaction. The results of the study specifically concluded that charisma and individualized consideration had significant contribution to achieve the objectives of creating subordinate job satisfaction (Shibru, 2011).

Yang (2012) conducted a study of 305 employees from the public relations industry in Taiwan. The results of the study showed positive significant regression

coefficients for charisma ($\beta = 0.582, p < .001$) and individual consideration has ($\beta = 0.242, p < .001$) on job satisfaction (Yang, 2012). However in this study intellectual stimulation was found not to have a significant impact on job satisfaction (Yang, 2012). Transformational leadership factors explained a significant amount of both intrinsic (achievement, responsibility, work itself, status) (51.2%) and extrinsic (working conditions, wages job security) (65.4%) job satisfaction (Yang, 2012). The results displayed positively significant regression coefficients for inspirational motivation and charisma so the higher the level of these transformational leadership factors perceived by employees, the greater will be the intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (Yang, 2012).

Transformational Leadership Relationship with Organizational Commitment

Transformational leadership can make an employee trust and respect their superior and make the extra effort to exceed performance expectations (Bo, 2013). Employees influenced by transformational leadership internalize the sense of worth and goal of leaders (Bo, 2013). Transformational leadership can inspire the follower motivation of achievement and need to strengthen their organizational commitment (Bo, 2013). Many empirical studies across different industries have revealed a strong correlation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Kim, Magnusen, Andrew, & Stoll, 2012; Bo, 2013; Khasawneh, Omari, & Abu-Tineh, 2012; Simosi & Xenikou, 2010).

Bo (2013) conducted a study of 675 college teachers in China. The study chose college deans and their subordinate teachers as the research object and determined that deans who engage in transformational leadership impacted the organizational commitment level of the teachers. The study reported transformational leadership had a

significant correlation ($r = .522$ at $p < .01$) with organizational commitment. The study confirmed that transformational leadership can directly influence organizational commitment. The results indicated it is important for every leader in universities to adjust their leadership style to become a leader who is charismatic, noble in character, considers personnel work and development, and demonstrates and models striving to meet organizational goals and mission (Bo, 2013).

There were also studies reporting how the components of transformational leadership (charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) impacted organizational commitment and the different components of organizational commitment (affective, normative, and continuance). Rafferty and Griffin (2004) conducted a study of 1,398 public sector employees in Australia. The study reported intellectual stimulation was positively correlated to affective commitment ($r = 0.17$ at $p < .001$) and continuance commitment ($r = 0.20$ at $p < .001$). Intellectual stimulation correlates with affective commitment when leaders encourage employees to actively engage in organizational problem solving; thus, employees' level of feeling valued increases (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Intellectual stimulation correlates with continuance commitment when, as a result of being involved in organizational problem solving, employees experience an increased sense of investment in an organization based on the increased effort they are exerting; thus, employees level of commitment increases (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Charisma was positively correlated to affective commitment ($r = 0.34$ at $p < .001$). Expressing positive and encouraging messages about the organization was positively associated with emotional attachment or affective commitment to the organization (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004).

Kim et al. (2012) conducted a study of 325 college athletic department employees and reported that individualized consideration ($r = 0.362$ at $p < .01$) and intellectual stimulation ($r = 0.229$ at $p < .05$) were significantly correlated to organizational commitment. There was no significant correlation between the charismatic dimension of transformational leadership and organizational commitment, but there was a significant correlation between charisma and commitment to individual leaders, which shows charismatic leadership generates a strong sense of connectedness and purpose among followers that is directed toward the leader and not the organization as a whole (Kim et al., 2012).

Khasawneh et al. (2012) conducted a study of teachers 340 vocational teachers in Jordan and reported the categories of transformational leadership were correlated with organizational commitment. The category most highly related was inspirational motivation ($r = 0.42$, $p = 0.000$), followed by individualized consideration ($r = 0.38$, $p = 0.000$), intellectual stimulation ($r = 0.31$, $p = 0.000$) and individualized influence ($r = 0.28$, $p = 0.000$) (Khasawneh et al., 2012). All of these correlations were statistically significant. The results indicate that vocational teachers who work with principals with high levels of transformational leadership behavior tend to have higher levels of organizational commitment (Khasawneh et al., 2012).

Simosi and Xenikou (2010) conducted a study with 300 respondents from a Greek service organization. The results reported transformational leadership was significantly and positively correlated with affective commitment ($r = .15$, $p < .05$) and normative commitment ($r = .20$, $p < .01$). These results further substantiate the argument that feelings of obligation to remain with an organization develop not only from familial and

societal norms (prior to organizational entry) or at the early stages of organizational socialization (Simosi & Xenikou, 2010). Rather, such feelings can also be enhanced by positive work experiences which are accumulated throughout an employee's tenure with a particular organization (Simosi & Xenikou, 2010). Also the results suggest that the same work experiences that contribute to employees' strong affective commitment may also induce a sense of obligation toward their organization (Simosi & Xenikou).

Transformational leaders are able to influence followers' organizational commitment by promoting higher levels of intrinsic value associated with goal accomplishment, emphasizing the linkages between follower effort and goal achievement, and by creating a higher level of personal commitment from the follower (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Transformational leaders influence followers' organizational commitment by encouraging followers to think critically by using novel approaches, involving followers in decision-making processes, and inspiring loyalty (Avolio, 1999). Prior research showed organizational commitment was higher for employees whose leaders used transformational leadership.

Transformational Leadership Relationship with Turnover Intention

The concept of employee intention to quit was developed by Jackofsky and Slocum (1987). Turnover intention is defined as the mediating factor between attitudes affecting intent to quit and actually quitting an organization (Glissmeyer, Bishop, & Fass, 2008). There have not been many studies nationally and internationally investigating the relationship between transformational leadership and retention intention (Abualrub & Alghamdi, 2012). Some believe transformational leadership is the most effective leadership style to achieve long-term success and improve retention intention (Forest &

Kleiner, 2011). Studies have been conducted reporting conflicting results about whether or not transformational leadership does impact turnover intention (Tremblay, 2010; Abualrub & Alghamdi, 2012; Gill, Mathur, Sharma, & Bhutani, 2011; Vandenberghe, Stordeur, & D'hoore, 2002; Hamstra, Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2011).

Tremblay (2010) conducted a study of 1,443 soldiers from Army units. The study reported transformational leadership had a significantly negative correlation ($r = -.19, p < .01$) with turnover intention. Transformational leadership was linked to leader trust through its relations to fairness perceptions; fairness perceptions were linked to unit commitment through leader trust (Tremblay, 2010). The study illustrated that when military leaders utilize transformational leadership then fairness principles influence trust and commitment and reduce the impact of perceived unfairness and reduce turnover intention (Tremblay, 2010).

Gill et al. (2011) study consisted of 188 food service workers in India. The study reported a negative relationship between transformational leadership and employee intention to quit ($\beta = -0.150, p < .05$). The degree of perceived intention to quit was negatively related to the improvement in the degree of perceived transformational leadership used by hospitality managers in the Indian hospitality industry (Gill et al., 2011). The food service managers utilizing transformational leadership made their employees feel empowered to deal with issues in the organization, which also reduced their intention to leave the organization. (Gill et al., 2011).

Hamstra et al. (2011) study participants were 104 psychology students with full and part-time jobs. The study reported transformational leadership was significantly and negatively correlated ($r = -.44, p < .001$) with turnover intention (Hamstra et al., 2011).

Participants in the study were considered either highly promotion focused or low in promotion focus. High transformational leadership negatively related to the turnover intentions for highly promotion-focused followers, but high transformational leadership was not related to low in promotion focused followers (Hamstra et al., 2011). And low transformational leadership made no difference in the turnover intentions of highly promotion-focused followers (Hamstra et al., 2011). This study demonstrated that the ambition level of the follower must also be considered when determining how effective transformational leadership will reduce turnover intention.

A Vandenberghe et al. (2002) study analyzed how the components of transformational leadership related to turnover intention. Vandenberghe et al. (2002) conducted a study with 1,059 nurses at Belgian hospitals. The study reported the transformational leadership components charisma ($r = -.32, p < .01$), intellectual stimulation ($r = -.33, p < .01$), and individualized consideration ($r = -.32, p < .01$) were all significantly and negatively related to nurses intent to leave their position.

Transformational leadership components being negatively related to turnover intention confirmed that by providing employees with a sense of mission, empowerment, and input are efficient ways to retaining employees within an organization (Vandenberghe et al., 2002).

Contrary to many other studies about transformational leadership and turnover intention, Abualrub and Alghamdi (2012) conducted a study of 308 nurses in Saudi Arabia and reported transformational leadership and the level of intent to stay was statistically insignificant ($r = .08, p = .14$). This means that transformational leadership did not have an effect on the level of intent to stay or leave the organization. An

explanation for these findings is the study was conducted in six hospitals affiliated with the Ministry of Health in Saudi Arabia. Governmental health institutions in Saudi Arabia have a centralized structure that has several layers of management that control the work flow by maintaining a high level of authority and, therefore, nurses are not afraid of any disciplinary actions that might be enacted by their direct managers (Abualrub & Alghamdi, 2012). So the nurse managers do not have enough authority to affect job security, salaries, or nurses intention to stay (Abualrub & Alghamdi, 2012).

Two studies about the impact of poor leadership on the turnover intention of military officers at different stages of their career were conducted. Reed and Bullis (2009) conducted a study of lieutenant colonels and colonels who had experienced toxic leadership. The study's participants' measures of satisfaction did decline, but the bad experiences did not translate to an inclination to leave military service. The participants identified with their roles and found their positions so gratifying that bad leadership from their bosses was not enough to move them into another line of work (Reed & Bullis, 2009). Also the many years of good leadership experience offset the negative experiences. The second study was by Reed and Olsen (2010) and consisted of Army majors. More than half of the participants responded positively about considering leaving the service because of receiving poor leadership from their supervisor (Reed & Olsen, 2010). Unlike the senior officers from the previous study by Reed and Bullis (2009), the mid-grade officers were significantly less inclined to remain in the service when they experienced toxic leadership.

Transformational leadership clarifies mission, goals, and objectives to followers, which reduces the tensions related to their daily tasks and thus reduces employee

intention to quit (Gill et al., 2011). Transformational leadership helps inspire loyalty to an organization. And transformational leadership empowers employees to make changes that are in line with the vision of the organization, morale to improve, a sense of meaning is established, and retention intention is improved (Forest & Kleiner, 2011). Due to the limited research on the relationship between transformational leadership and retention intention, the study on the impact of transformational leadership on re-enlistment intention is critical for the ARNG

Job Satisfaction Relationship with Turnover Intention

Job satisfaction is a common reason impacting if individuals leave or stay with their organizations or professional fields. Based on Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) model and Mobley's (1977) model, job satisfaction does not directly impact turnover. Instead, job satisfaction attitudes affect intentions to quit, which in turn leads to turnover (Zimmerman, 2008). There is a substantial amount of empirical evidence supporting a relationship between job satisfaction and intent to stay (Zangaro & Kelly, 2010). The empirical evidence provided by many studies found that there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. The early works of March and Simon (1958), Locke (1968, 1976), and Mobley (1977) suggested that the consequences of job dissatisfaction is increased thoughts of quitting, intention to search for other jobs, searching for jobs, the intention to quit, and finally quitting a job.

Studies by Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, and Bliese (2011), Prevosto, (2001), and Dupre and Day (2007) on military organizations have supported previous empirical studies about the significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. The Chen et al. (2011) study participants were 800 soldiers in the

U.S. Army. The study reported a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. The study determined turnover intention changes over time as job satisfaction changes. The study showed as a soldier's tenure in the organization increases the impact of job satisfaction changes and their turnover intention decreases (Chen et al., 2011). A decrease in job satisfaction may cause soldiers with 1 year of service to experience a level of turnover intention causing them to leave the military, but soldiers with 8 years of service who experiences the same decrease in job satisfaction will experience a reduced turnover intention when compared to the soldier with 1 year of service.

The Prevosto (2001) study involved 218 Army reserve nurses. The study randomly selected a sample of nurses who had mentors and compared them to nurses without mentors. The nurses with mentors had a higher level of job satisfaction and were more likely to remain in the Army compared to the nurses without mentors. There was a significantly strong correlation ($r = .62$) between job satisfaction and intent to stay. (Prevosto, 2001). The results of the study demonstrated job satisfaction has an impact on retention intention and the nurses who believed they were receiving support from the organization had lower intentions to leave their position.

Dupre and Day (2007) reported soldiers who experience higher levels of job satisfaction reported better health and fewer intentions to leave the organization. Job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between the human resource practices in the study and the outcomes of turnover intention (Dupre & Day, 2007). Soldiers' satisfaction with the organization were determined by their experiences and the expectations they had of the organization. As soldiers dealt with situations in their

organization, they would either cope and adapt to the situation or determine the situation did not match up with their expectations, leading to dissatisfaction and the decision to leave the organization (Griffith, 2009a).

Employees who are satisfied are more likely to be committed to their organization and have a decreased intention to quit a job (Fah, Foon, Leong, & Osman 2010). Cox, Relf, Chen, & Zangaro (2010) reported job satisfaction has the strongest influence on intent to stay with an organization in several studies. The relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention has been demonstrated in numerous empirical studies.

Organizational Commitment Relationship with Turnover Intention

Organizational commitment has been extensively studied, conceptualized and measured in various ways, but common to all the conceptualizations of commitment is a link with turnover intention because employees who are strongly committed are those who are least likely to leave the organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Studies have consistently reported organizational commitment to be negatively associated with turnover intentions (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Several studies have confirmed the important role of organizational commitment as a major antecedent of intention to leave and several studies have also found a significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and intention to leave (Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Cho, Johanson, & Guchait, 2009; Jourdain & Chenevert, 2010; Newman, Thanacoody, & Hui, 2012; Laschinger, Leiter, Day, & Gilin, 2009; Fah, Foon, Leong, & Osman, 2010).

Cho, Johanson, and Guchait (2009) conducted a study of managerial employees from restaurants and hotels. The results of the study supported the belief that if

employees are strongly committed to their organization then they would be less likely to leave the organization (Cho, Johanson, & Guchait, 2009). The study reported organizational commitment was significantly and negatively correlated ($r = -.31, p < .01$) to intention to leave; but organizational commitment did not have the same effect on their intent to stay within the organization (Cho, Johanson, & Guchait, 2009). Jourdain and Chenevert, (2010) conducted a study of nurses in Canada and reported a negative relationship between organizational commitment and the nurses intention to leave the nursing profession. Laschinger, Leiter, Day, and Gilin (2009) conducted a study of hospital employees and reported organizational commitment was negatively and significantly correlated ($r = -.398, p < .05$) to intent to leave.

Another study done by Fah, Foon, Leong, and Osman (2010) used the three component organizational commitment scale to determine organizational commitment, job stress, job satisfaction, and turnover intention of private sector employees in Malaysia. The results of the study determined 12 respondents had a low level of commitment and 23 respondents had a high level of commitment. The correlation was 32 respondents experienced a high level of turnover intention and 51 respondents experienced a low to moderate level of turnover intention (Fah, Foon, Leong, & Osman, 2010). This study reinforces previous research about the significant relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention (Fah, Foon, Leong, & Osman, 2010).

A review of the three components of commitment revealed that affective commitment is more correlated to turnover intention than the other forms of commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). This is understandable because affective commitment reflects the desire to continue employment, which is presumed to

be a stronger motive than the perceived cost of failing to do so (continuance commitment) or the perceived obligation to stay (normative commitment) (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Vandenberghe and Bentein, (2009) studied the staff of a pharmaceutical company in Canada and reported affective organizational commitment was significantly and negatively ($r = -.36, p < .01$) correlated to turnover intention. Myer et al. (1993) studied nurses and reported affective commitment and normative commitment were significantly and negatively correlated ($r = -.59$ and $r = -.32$) respectively at ($p < .01$) to turnover intention. Continuance commitment was negatively related to turnover intention, but not significantly. Newman, Thanacoody, and Hui (2012) studied employees at multinational enterprises in China and reported affective commitment was negatively and significantly ($r = -.63, p < .001$) correlated to turnover intention.

Organizational commitment is an important predictor of employee turnover intention and it is important to predict turnover considering the high costs associated with turnover in many industries (Wagner, 2007). The three types of organizational commitment have reported different levels of impact on turnover intention. The importance of organizational commitment was reported in a meta-analysis by Wagner (2007) which found that organizational commitment was a stronger predictor of turnover intention than job satisfaction.

Summary

A comprehensive review of literature demonstrates there is a significant amount of information available about voluntary turnover. The foundations of voluntary turnover began with the March and Simon (1958) theory of organizational equilibrium positing

that job satisfaction reduced the desirability of moving, thus reducing employee turnover. There have been a multitude of voluntary turnover models created since 1958 and most of the conceptual models explaining employee voluntary turnover processes include behavioral, attitudinal, and decisional components. Turnover intention is an attitudinal orientation or a cognitive manifestation of the behavioral decision to quit (Wang & Yi, 2011). There is considerable amount of empirical support for the belief that turnover intention is probably the most important and immediate antecedent of turnover decisions (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino 1979; Bluedorn, 1982). The three variables transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment have been examined through numerous studies to determine how they impact turnover intention and how they relate to each other. The goal of this study was to determine which of these variables significantly impact the re-enlistment intention decision of Virginia Army National Guard soldiers and provide new knowledge about military retention in the Army National Guard. The next chapter describes the population, instrument design, data collection procedures, and statistical analyses used in this study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methods and procedures used in this study. This chapter includes a description of the research design, population, instrument design, method of data collection, and statistical analysis procedures. The aim of this study was to identify whether or not transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organization commitment have a significant impact on the re-enlistment intention of Virginia Army National Guard (VAARNG) soldiers.

Research Design

This study used a stratified sample and a survey designed to obtain a numeric description of VAARNG soldiers' beliefs regarding the impact of transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on their re-enlistment intention. The survey responses will provide VAARNG leadership data that will help them to develop strategies that will assist the organization with meeting its retention goals. Survey research was the preferred method of collecting data for this study because of the improved response rate and the ease of design (Babbie, 1990).

Population

The population for this study were 818 VAARNG enlisted soldiers within 12 months of their expiration term of service (ETS) date and had less than 18 years of military service that were identified by the VAARNG database SIDPERS. A stratified random sample was taken of the population and the population was divided into three strata. The three strata of this study were first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers to represent a true cross section of the VAARNG enlisted corps. There

were 400 eligible participants for the first term soldier stratum, 283 eligible participants for mid-term soldier stratum, and 135 eligible participants for the careerist soldier stratum. The formula developed by Krejcie & Morgan (1970) was used to determine the appropriate minimum sample size for this study, which was 262 participants. A proportionate stratification was used to ensure the sample size of each stratum was proportionate to the population size of the sample. Thirty-two percent of the eligible participants from each stratum was needed to provide a statistically relevant amount of responses for this study. The study needed 128 respondents from the first term stratum; 91 respondents from the mid-term stratum; and 43 respondents from the careerist stratum. A number was assigned to all the eligible participants in each stratum and a random number generator program on the Stat Trek™ website was used to select the list of participants for the study.

Instrument Design

A pilot test was conducted with 11 VAARNG enlisted soldiers from all three strata to determine if the questionnaire designed for this study was easily understood. Revisions were made to the questionnaire based on feedback from the pilot test participants. The questionnaire for this study used the Global Transformational Leadership scale (Carless, Wearing, & Mann, 2000), the Overall Job Satisfaction scale (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951), and the Three Component Model scale (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

The questionnaire was designed to address the seven research question of this study: (1) Does transformational leadership impact the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (2) Does transformational

leadership impact the job satisfaction of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (3) Does job satisfaction mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (4) Does transformational leadership impact the organizational commitment of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (5) Does organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (6) Does job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers; mid-term soldiers; and careerist soldiers? (7) Is there a significant difference amongst the transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

Scales should have a Cronbach's Alpha of at least 0.70 reliability for use in research studies. The scales in this study had a Cronbach's Alpha of at least 0.70 or above. Cronbach's Alpha is a coefficient of internal consistency and is commonly used as an estimate of the reliability of a psychometric test for a sample of examinees. Estimates of Cronbach's Alpha can take on any value less than or equal to 1 and the closer to 1 the more reliable the scale.

Transformational leadership was addressed by the Global Transformational Leadership (GTL) scale designed by Carless, Wearing, and Mann (2000). The GTL is a seven item scale that assess the extent a person is viewed by other organizational employees as visionary, innovative, supportive, participative, and worthy of respect (Carless, 1998). This shortened and validated scale was preferred over the widely used

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1996) because of its brevity. The GTL has been found to have a high degree of convergent validity with the more established and lengthier MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1996) and the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). Convergent validity is the degree to which two measures of constructs are related (Carless et al., 2000). The GTL subscales correlate with the components of transformational leadership (charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration). See Table 3.

Table 3

Intercorrelations of the GTL Items and the Total GTL Score with the Sub-Scales of the LPI and the MLQ

GTL Items	1. Vision	2. Staff Develop	3. Supportive	4. Empower	5. Innov. Thinking	6. Lead by Example	7. Charisma	Total GTL score
LPI								
Challenging	0.68	0.61	0.60	0.63	<u>0.71</u>	0.57	0.67	0.76
Inspiring	<u>0.79</u>	0.67	0.66	0.67	0.67	0.59	0.68	0.80
Enabling	0.62	0.79	0.77	<u>0.80</u>	0.62	0.65	0.78	0.86
Modeling	0.69	0.68	0.66	0.71	0.68	<u>0.71</u>	0.73	0.83
Encourage	0.62	0.76	<u>0.87</u>	0.73	0.58	0.58	0.72	0.83
MLQ								
Ind Consid	0.65	<u>0.82</u>	0.75	0.77	0.69	0.65	0.80	0.87
Charisma	0.67	0.77	0.71	0.78	0.70	0.71	<u>0.84</u>	0.88
Intell. Stim.	0.68	0.70	0.66	0.69	<u>0.80</u>	0.61	0.73	0.83

Note: underlining indicates the correlation between the item and the construct it represents. Challenging = Challenging the Process; Inspiring = Inspiring a Shared Vision; Enabling = Enabling Others; Modeling = Modeling the Way; Encourage = Encouraging the Heart; Ind. Consid = Individual Consideration; Intell. Stim = Intellectual Stimulation. Adapted from "A Short Measure of Transformational Leadership" by S. A. Carless, A. J. Wearing, and L. Mann, 2000, *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 14, p. 399.

The high correlations with the GTL and the similar sub-scales of the LPI and MLQ support the convergent validity of the GTL. Table 3 reports the total GTL score on the right hand column and the individual scores range from 0.76 to 0.88, with a mean of 0.83 ($SD = .04$) (Carless et al., 2000). The GTL has an internal reliability, as assessed by

Cronbach's alpha of 0.93 (Carless et al., 2000). The GTL has also been used in several studies to assess transformational leadership (Vallejo, 2009; Tucker, Turner, Barling, Reid, & Elving, 2006; Fitzgerald & Schutte, 2010; Nielsen, Yarker, Randall & Munir, 2009).

Job satisfaction was addressed by a modified version of the Overall Job Satisfaction scale designed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951), which is a 5-item scale with a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of .82. The Overall Job Satisfaction scale created by Brayfield and Rothe (1951) had been cited or used in 412 articles and studies about job satisfaction and job satisfaction's impact on retention according to the Article Linker™ software.

The validity of the scales for the Overall Job Satisfaction scale was determined through construct validity. Construct validity is the inference that observations or measurement tools actually represent or measure the construct being investigated. And a subset of construct validity is convergent validity, which is the degree to which two measures of constructs are related. Convergent validity measures of the Brayfield and Rothe (1951) Overall Job Satisfaction scale have been conducted with many existing job satisfaction scales. The Overall Job Satisfaction scale was significantly correlated to many job satisfaction scales, which supports the validity of the Overall Job Satisfaction scale. See Table 4.

Table 4

Convergent Validity and Correlations of Brayfield-Roth Overall Job Satisfaction Scale with Other Job Satisfaction Scales

General measure	Brayfield-Roth correlation
Job in general scale	0.80
Faces scale	0.65
Adjectival scale	0.67
Numerical scale	0.60
McCloskey/Mueller Satisfaction scale	0.41
Job Descriptive Index work scale	0.79
Job Descriptive Index pay scale	0.22
Job Descriptive Index promotions scale	0.38
Job Descriptive Index supervision scale	0.21
Job Descriptive Index coworkers scale	0.38

Note. All correlations are significant, $p < .01$. Adapted from Construction of a Job in General Scale: A Comparison of Global, Composite, and Specific Measures by G. H. Ironson, M. T. Brannick, P. C. Smith, W. M. Gibson, & K. B. Paul, 1989, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74, p. 196.

Organizational commitment was addressed by the modified Three Component Model designed by Meyer and Allen (1991), which is an 18-item scale with a Cronbach's Alpha of .82. The Meyer and Allen (1991) three component model has been cited or used in 772 articles and studies related to organizational commitment according to the Article Linker™ software. Across varied turnover studies the correlation range of affective commitment has been - 0.29 to - 0.61, normative commitment has been - 0.20 to -0.38, and continuance commitment has been 0.00 to - 0.42 and all these correlations were significant (Allen & Meyer, 1996). All of these correlations demonstrate the validity of the Meyer and Allen (1991) organizational commitment scale. See Figure 4

Correlations between Commitment Measures and Turnover Variables

Turnover variable	Commitment Measures			Reference
	ACS	CSS	NCS	
Turnover intention	-.41*	-.11*	-.38*	Allen & Lee (1993)
	-.60*	-----	-----	Carson & Bedeian (1994)
	-.45*	-.08	-.20*	Cohen (1993)
	-.42	-.08*	-.24*	Hackett et al. (1994)
	-.35	-----	-----	Jenkins (1993)
	-.33*	-----	-----	Kelloway & Barling (1992)
	.47*	.00	-----	Konovsky & Cropanzano (1991)
	-.29*	-.15*	-.32*	Lee (1992)
	-.49*	-.42*	-.24*	McDonald (1993)
	-.45*	-.02	-.34*	Myer, Allen, & Smith (1993)
	-.61*	-.22*	-----	Whitener & Walz (1993)
Intention to remain	.39*	.13*	.32*	Somers (1993b) ^a
Turnover	-.19*	-.07	-.17*	Somers (1993b)
	-.26*	-.16*	-----	Whitener & Walz (1993)

^aSomers (1993) correlated commitment scales with intentions to remain 1, 2, and 5 years. All nine correlations were significant ($p < .05$). The mean correlations across the three intention measures are reported here.

* $p < .05$

Figure 4. Validity measures of three component organizational commitment scale. From Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment to the Organization: An Examination of Construct Validity, by N. J. Allen and J. P. Meyer, 1996, *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49, p. 266.

Turnover intention was measured by a two item scale developed by Firth, Mellor, Moore, and Loquet (2004). The scale was adapted from the five item Mobley et al. (1973) turnover intention scale. The Firth et al., (2004) scale measured how often an individual thinks about quitting and what are their current plans for continuing with the organization. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale was 0.75. Another study by Gill et al., (2011) used the two item scale and based on confirmatory factor analysis loading scores both items were included in the final questionnaire. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale in the Gill et al., (2011) study was 0.88.

A list of the scales used in the questionnaire, the subscales of the questionnaire, the applicable scale survey items, Cronbach's Alpha score of the scales, and the prior studies using the scales to support the validity of the scales is shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Scales for the Study Questionnaire

Scale	Sub-Scale	Survey Items	Reliability	Previous Studies Using Scale
Global Transformational Leadership			0.93	Carless, 1998; Carless et al., 2000; Vallejo, 2009;
	Charisma	#11,13,14	0.89	Tucker, Turner, Barling, Reid, & Elving, 2006;
	Intellectual Stimulation	#8, 12	0.84	Fitzgerald & Schutte, 2010;
	Individualized Consideration	#9, 10	0.91	Nielsen et al., 2009
Overall Job Satisfaction		#15- 19	0.82	Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Stempien & Loeb, 2002; Judge et al., 2005; Yucel, 2012
Organizational Commitment			0.82	Myer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993; Karrasch, 2003; Cho, Johanson, & Guchait, 2009; Fah, Foon, Leong, & Osman, 2010
	Affective	#20-25	0.87	
	Continuance	#26-31	0.79	
	Normative	#32-37	0.73	
Turnover Intention		#38-39	0.88	Firth et al., 2004; Gill et al., 2011

The questionnaire for this study consisted of 39 items divided into four sections to provide a logical flow for the participants. The first section of the questionnaire

addresses the demographic information of the participants, followed by the scale measuring transformational leadership, then job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention. The format for answering the questionnaire is based on a five-point Likert-scale. See Appendix A for a copy of this study's questionnaire.

Data Collection

The researcher placed the questionnaire on a Survey Monkey TM website, a commercial product, to collect the study participant responses. Survey Monkey TM was selected because of the efficiency and economic advantages of using an online survey. The Survey Monkey TM product gave the researcher an opportunity to design the survey and easily collect the descriptive information for further analysis (Creswell, 2009).

Before contacting any eligible participants of the study, permission was obtained from the Brigadier General, who is the Land Component Commander of the VAARNG, and Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was granted from Old Dominion University. The eligible participants of each stratum were assigned a number and a random number generator was used to identify which numbers would participate in the study. The soldiers whose number was selected by the random number generator were sent a letter requesting their participation in the study. Each participant was contacted via regular mail using the address information provided by SIDPERS. Each participant received a letter explaining the purpose of the study, how their participation was voluntary, how their responses to the questionnaire would be anonymous, how their responses can improve the retention environment of the VAARNG, and provided a link to access the questionnaire (see Appendix B). The link to the questionnaire remained active for 45-days and every 14 days additional letters were sent out to other participants

identified by the random number generator until 30-percent of each stratum had responded to the survey.

The survey link to the questionnaire was activated in the winter of 2013. Respondents who chose to participate submitted their responses to a Survey Monkey TM website. After the survey link was closed, the researcher, who was the only person with access to the survey results, downloaded the data from the Survey Monkey TM website and transferred it to SPSS software for statistical analysis. The computer used for the statistical analysis required the researcher's identification card and a password to gain access to the data from the study.

Statistical Analyses

Descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations, analysis of variance (ANOVA), linear regression, and multiple regression analyses were conducted on the data collected using SPSS Version 21 Gradpack Statistical Software. The descriptive statistics measured the distribution, central tendency (mean), and measures of validity (standard deviation) of the survey questions and the participants' demographic information (gender, age, race, military term, marital status, military occupation, and education level). The descriptive statistics also displayed how the participants, broken down by strata (first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers), responded to questions in the survey and how the participants addressed the dependent variable (re-enlistment intention). Cross tabulations were constructed to summarize categorical data using the demographic information, the three independent variables (transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment), and the dependent variable (re-enlistment intention).

Bivariate correlations determined the strength, direction, significance of the association between two variables. Bivariate correlations determined if there were positive, negative or no relationship between all the variables of this study. The bivariate correlations also indicated which variables to use when running the linear regressions, because variables that did not have a significant correlation did not need to be used in the linear regression models.

Simple linear regressions were done to determine the direction and the association between two variables and to identify the least squares regression line that best fits the data. The simple linear regression determined if there were significant dependence between each independent variable and the dependent variable. The simple linear regression revealed how much each independent variable impacted the dependent variable through the coefficient of determination (R^2). Simple linear regressions were used to answer the following research questions: RQ₁: Does transformational leadership impact the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? RQ₂: Does transformational leadership impact the job satisfaction of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? RQ₄: Does transformational leadership impact the organizational commitment of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

Multiple linear regressions showed the effect of two or more of the three independent variables (transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment) on the dependent variable (re-enlistment intention) and in particular how many of the three independent variables explained re-enlistment intention to a statistically significant degree ($p < .05$). The multiple linear regression also revealed if job

satisfaction and organizational commitment were mediating variables to transformational leadership's impact on re-enlistment intention. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment could either partially mediate or fully mediate the impact of transformational leadership on re-enlistment intention. This was determined by conducting a step-wise multiple regression, with the first model containing transformational leadership and the second model controlling for transformational leadership and entering job satisfaction or organizational commitment. Multiple linear regressions were used to answer the following research questions: RQ₃: Does job satisfaction mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? RQ₅: Does organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? RQ₆: Does job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers; mid-term soldiers; and careerist soldiers?

The ANOVA was used to determine whether there were any significant differences between the means of groups (first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers.) Post-Hoc test will also be done to determine exactly which groups' means had a significant difference between them. ANOVAs were used to answer the following research question: RQ₇: Is there a significant difference amongst the transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? Conducting all these

statistical analysis provided the empirical information necessary to answer the seven research questions.

Summary

The methods and procedures used to gather and analyze data for this study were outlined in Chapter III. Enlisted VAARNG soldiers who were within 12-months of their ETS date were the sample population for this study. This chapter described how the survey was reliable, validated, administered, and how the data was collected. The survey was administered using a Survey Monkey™ website and contained 39 Likert-scale questions to address the seven research questions of the study. The final part of this chapter described the statistical analyses used to interpret the results of the data collected for the study. The statistical analyses were descriptive statistics, bivariate correlation, ANOVA, and linear regression. The measures determined the relationships between variables and the effect of the independent variables upon the dependent variables. Data collected in this study will be used to report findings in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether transformational leadership, and its impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, impacts soldiers' re-enlistment intention in the Virginia Army National Guard (VAARNG). This chapter reported the data collected with the intent of answering the following research questions:

RQ₁: Does transformational leadership impact the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

RQ₂: Does transformational leadership impact the job satisfaction of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

RQ₃: Does job satisfaction mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

RQ₄: Does transformational leadership impact the organizational commitment of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

RQ₅: Does organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

RQ₆: Does job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers; mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

RQ₇: Is there a significant difference amongst the transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

This chapter is divided into the following sections: response rate of the survey, demographics of the respondents, statistical responses to the research questions, and a summary of the results.

Response Rate

The population of this study were VAARNG enlisted soldiers within 12 months of their Expiration Term of Service (ETS) date and having less than 18 years of military service. The first week of the study 400 eligible participants were randomly selected and sent letters inviting them to participate in the study. An additional 100 eligible participants were randomly selected every two weeks and sent letters until enough participants had responded to the survey. The study continued for 45 days collecting responses to the survey until enough responses had been collected for the study. By the end of the 45 day collection period all 818 of the eligible participants had been sent a letter inviting them to respond to the survey.

The population used for the study consisted of 400 first term soldiers; 283 mid-term soldiers; and 135 careerist soldiers. The overall response rate for all the soldiers participating in the study was 32%. Careerist soldiers had the lowest response rate to the survey (30%). Table 6 provides a breakdown of the response rate for the study.

Table 6

Eligible Participants Responding to the Questionnaire

Stratum	Population	Responded	Response Rate (%)
First Term Soldier	400	130	32
Mid-Term Soldier	283	90	32
Careerist Soldier	135	41	30
Total	818	261	32

Demographics of Respondents

Survey question #1 asked participants to identify their gender. Two hundred and twenty-nine (88%) of the participants were male. Thirty-two (12%) of the participants were female. This is similar to the gender distribution of the entire VAARNG, which is 84% male and 16% female. The breakdown of the genders amongst the three strata of respondents (first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers) is displayed in Table 7.

Table 7

Gender Breakdown of the Questionnaire Respondents

Stratum	Male		Female	
	n	%	n	%
First Term	113	87	17	13
Mid-Term	80	89	10	11
Careerist	36	88	5	12
Total	229	88	32	12

Survey question #2 asked the participants to identify their age. A majority of the first term soldiers (72%) were between the ages of 18 and 21. A majority of the mid-term soldiers (94%) were between the ages of 22 and 30. The majority of the careerist soldiers (78%) were between the ages of 31 and 39. The age group providing the majority of the responses (48%) in the study were the 22 to 30 year old range and this is the largest age group (50%) comprising the VAARNG. Table 8 displays the age distribution of the respondents.

Table 8

Age Breakdown of the Questionnaire Respondents

Stratum	18 to 21		22 to 30		31 to 39		Above 40	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
First Term	94	72	36	28	0	0	0	0
Mid-Term	0	0	85	94	5	6	0	0
Careerist	0	0	5	12	32	80	4	8
Total	94	36	126	48	37	14	4	2

Survey question #3 asked the participants to identify their race. The racial composition of the VAARNG is diverse with White Americans comprising the largest group of soldiers and soldiers identifying themselves as Native American comprising the smallest group. Table 9 is the racial distribution of the respondents, which is very similar to the VAARNG racial composition.

Table 9

Racial Composition of the Questionnaire Respondents

Stratum	White		African American		Asian		Native American		Hispanic		Other	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
First Term	82	63	35	27	3	2	1	1	5	4	4	3
Mid-Term	62	69	18	20	2	2	1	1	6	7	1	1
Careerist	27	66	10	24	2	5	0	0	2	5	0	0
Total	171	65	63	24	7	3	2	1	13	5	5	2

Survey question #4 asked the participants to identify which one of the three military occupational specialty (MOS) categories they are currently working. The first category was combat arms, these are soldiers who participate in direct tactical land combat, such as the Infantry, Cavalry, and Artillery units. The second category was combat support, these are soldiers who provide fire support and operational assistance to combat arms units, examples of combat support units are Chemical, Combat Engineers, and Intelligence. The third category was combat service support, these are soldiers providing factors which directly influence combat operations, such as maintenance, transportation, and health services. The overall distribution of the respondents' MOS category was combat arms (35%), combat support (37%), and combat service support (28%). Table 10 provides a detailed display of the respondents' MOS category.

Table 10

Military Occupational Specialties of the Questionnaire Respondents

Stratum	Combat Arms		Combat Support		Combat Service Support	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
First Term	52	40	44	34	34	26
Mid Term	28	31	32	36	30	33
Careerist	13	32	18	44	10	24
Total	93	35	94	37	74	28

Survey question #5 asked for the marital status of the respondents. A majority (54%) of the respondents were single. The percentage of soldiers married increased as the time in service of soldiers increased. Table 11 displays the marital status of the respondents.

Table 11

Marital Status of the Questionnaire Respondents

Stratum	Single		Married		Divorced		Widowed	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
First Term	109	82	21	18	0	0	0	0
Mid-Term	26	29	64	71	0	0	0	0
Careerist	5	12	31	76	4	10	1	2
Total	140	53.6	116	44	4	2	1	0.4

Survey question #6 asked for the highest level of education completed. There were some soldiers who entered into the VAARNG already having some college

education, some who made use of the VAARNG tuition assistance program to increase their education level, and some who did not increase their education level. A majority (77%) of the first term soldiers had high school diplomas. The majority (54%) of the mid-term soldiers had completed some college and the majority (42%) of careerist had an associate degree. There was also a large percentage (39%) of careerist who had completed a bachelor degree, revealing they had made use of the tuition assistance offered by the VAARNG. Table 12 displays the education level of the respondents.

Table 12

Education Level of the Questionnaire Respondents

Stratum	High School		Some College		Associate Degree		Bachelor Degree		Graduate Degree	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
First Term	100	77	26	20	2	2	1	0.5	1	0.5
Mid-Term	14	20	49	54	26	29	1	1	0	0
Careerist	0	0	7	17	17	42	16	39	1	2
Total	114	44	82	31	45	17	18	7	2	1

Statistical Responses to the Research Questions

The overall objective of this study was to determine how the independent variables (transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment) impacted the re-enlistment intention of VAARNG soldiers. Additional descriptive statistics determined the mean and standard deviation of the variables in each stratum; these are displayed in Table 13.

Table 13
Means and Standard Deviations of the Independent and Dependent Variables

Stratum	Mean	Std. Deviation
First Term		
Transformational Leadership	3.13	.75
Job Satisfaction	3.12	.78
Organizational Commitment	3.05	.78
Retention Intention	3.02	.87
Mid-Term		
Transformational Leadership	3.31	.74
Job Satisfaction	3.26	.73
Organizational Commitment	3.25	.75
Retention Intention	3.07	.85
Careerist		
Transformational Leadership	3.71	.62
Job Satisfaction	3.58	.56
Organizational Commitment	3.65	.63
Retention Intention	4.12	.88

Based on the means of the responses to the survey questions, first term and mid-term soldiers “occasionally experienced transformational leadership”, “occasionally experienced job satisfaction”, “slightly agreed they were committed to the organization”, and “would reenlist but not stay in until retirement” Careerist soldiers “occasionally experienced transformational leadership”, “occasionally experienced job satisfaction”, “slightly agreed they were committed to the organization”, and “probably stay in until retirement”. The respondents experienced increased levels of transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and retention intention as their time in the military increased. The mean and standard deviation for each questionnaire item is displayed in Appendix C.

Survey question #39 ask the respondents did they intend to remain in the VAARNG or leave the VAARNG. The percentage of soldiers intending not to re-enlist decreased as the amount of time a soldier had been in the military increased. First term

respondents not intending to reenlist were 31.5%, mid-term respondents were 31.1%, and careerist were 9.8%. Soldiers definitely planning to remain until retirement were 7.7% of the first term, 11.1% of the mid-term, and 73.2% of the careerist soldiers. These results supports the findings of the studies by Reed and Bullis (2009) and Reed and Olsen (2010); both of these studies determined lower ranking soldiers and soldiers with less time in the military have a higher probability of not reenlisting compared to higher ranking soldiers and soldiers with more time in the military. Table 14 displays the re-enlistment intention of the respondents.

Table 14

Re-enlistment Intention of Questionnaire Respondents

Stratum	Not Re-enlist		Re-enlist at least once		Probably stay until retirement		Definitely stay until retirement	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
First Term	41	31.5	55	42.3	24	18.5	10	7.7
Mid-Term	28	31.1	25	27.8	27	30	10	11.1
Careerist	4	9.8	0	0	7	17.1	30	73.2
Total	73	28	80	31	58	22	50	19

Seventy-two percent of the study respondents have intentions to re-enlist in the VaARNG. Twenty-eight percent of the study respondents do not intend to remain in the military, which is above the VaARNG attrition ceiling rate of 19.5%.

Bivariate analyses were conducted to determine if there were significant associations ($p < .05$) between the organizational variables (transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention). Pearson

correlations were conducted between the variables in each stratum and all of the correlations were positive and significant ($p < .05$), indicating all the variables could be used for further statistical analysis. The only variables that were not significantly ($p > .05$) correlated were some components of transformational leadership with a component of organizational commitment. Charisma and individualized consideration did not significantly correlate with continuance commitment of careerist soldiers. Table 15 displays the correlations of the variables.

Table 15
Pearson Correlations Between the Independent and Dependent Variables

	First Term				Mid-Term				Careerist			
	TL	JS	OC	TI	TL	JS	OC	TI	TL	JS	OC	TI
TL	1.0	.			1.0	.			1.0			
JS	.957	1.0			.933	1.0			.707	1.0		
OC	.945	.945	1.0		.911	.931	1.0		.481	.526	1.0	
TI	.896	.860	.913	1.0	.856	.892	.894	1.0	.516	.644	.686	1.0

Note. TL = transformational leadership; JS = job satisfaction; OC = organizational commitment; TI = turnover intention. All correlations were significant ($p < .05$).

Simple linear regression was conducted to answer RQ₁ Does transformational leadership impact the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers; mid-term soldiers; and careerist soldiers? The regression model for the first term soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .755$, $F [1, 128] = 393.747$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.906, 1.107]). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers. Transformational leadership accounted for 75% of the variance in the retention intention of first term soldiers. There was a 95%

confidence that for every single unit increase in transformational leadership, the average re-enlistment intention increases between 0.906 and 1.107.

The regression model for mid-term soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .733$, $F [1, 88] = 242.156$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.860, 1.112]). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers. Transformational leadership accounted for 73% of the variance in the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers. There was a 95% confidence that for every single unit increase in transformational leadership, the average re-enlistment intention increases between 0.860 and 1.112.

The regression model for careerist soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .266$, $F [1, 39] = 14.163$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [.339, 1.127]). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers. Transformational leadership accounted for 26% of the variance in the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers. There was a 95% confidence that for every single unit increase in transformational leadership, the average organizational commitment increased between 0.925 and 1.045. See Appendix D, Table 1, for the regression analysis of research question 1.

The components of transformational leadership (charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration) impact on re-enlistment intention were also analyzed. The regression models for charisma's impact on re-enlistment intention were statistically significant ($p < .05$) for first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. The regression models for intellectual stimulation's impact on re-enlistment intention were statistically

significant ($p < .05$) for first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. The regression models for individualized consideration's impact on re-enlistment intention were statistically significant ($p < .05$) for first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. The variance in re-enlistment intention, which all these components accounted for, decreased as the time in service of the individual increased. See Appendix D, Table 2, for the regression analyses of global transformational leadership components on re-enlistment intention.

Simple linear regressions were conducted to answer RQ₂ Does transformational leadership impact the job satisfaction of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? The regression model for the first term soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .916$, $F [1, 128] = 1395.480$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.947, 1.053]). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant effect on the job satisfaction of first term soldiers. Transformational leadership accounted for 91% of the variance in the job satisfaction of first term soldiers. There was a 95% confidence that for every single unit increase in transformational leadership, the average job satisfaction increased between 0.947 and 1.053.

The regression model for mid-term soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .870$, $F [1, 88] = 589.209$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.844, .994]). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant effect on the job satisfaction of mid-term soldiers. Transformational leadership accounted for 87% of the variance in the job satisfaction of mid-term soldiers. There was a 95% confidence that for every single unit increase in transformational leadership, the average job satisfaction increased between 0.844 and 0.994.

The regression model for careerist soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .500$, $F [1, 39] = 39.073$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.436, .853]). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant effect on the job satisfaction of careerist soldiers.

Transformational leadership accounted for 50% of the variance in the job satisfaction of careerist soldiers. There was a 95% confidence that for every single unit increase in transformational leadership, the average job satisfaction increased between 0.436 and 0.853. See Appendix D, Table 3, for the regression analyses of research question 2.

The components of transformational leadership (charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration) impact on job satisfaction were also analyzed. The regression models for charisma's impact on job satisfaction were statistically significant ($p < .05$) for first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. The variance in job satisfaction, which charisma accounted for, decreased as the time in service of the individual increased. The regression models for intellectual stimulation's impact on job satisfaction were statistically significant ($p < .05$) for first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. The variance in job satisfaction, which intellectual stimulation accounted for, was greatest for mid-term soldiers and least for the careerist soldiers. The regression models for individualized consideration's impact on job satisfaction were statistically significant ($p < .05$) for first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. The variance in job satisfaction, which individualized consideration accounted for, decreased as the time in service of the individual increased. See Appendix D, Table 4, for the regression analyses of global transformational leadership components on job satisfaction.

Simple linear regressions were conducted to answer RQ₄ Does transformational leadership impact the organizational commitment of first term soldiers; mid-term

soldiers; and careerist soldiers? The regression model for the first term soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .892$, $F [1, 128] = 1059.108$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.925, 1.045]). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant effect on the organizational commitment of first term soldiers. Transformational leadership accounted for 89% of the variance in the organizational commitment of first term soldiers. There was a 95% confidence that for every single unit increase in transformational leadership, the average organizational commitment increased between 0.925 and 1.045.

Transformational leadership had a statistically significant ($p < .05$) effect on all the components of organizational commitment (affective, normative, and continuance) for first term soldiers. Transformational leadership accounted for 84% of the variance in affective commitment, 85% of the variance in normative commitment, and 85% of the variance in continuance commitment of first term soldiers.

The regression model for mid-term soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .831$, $F [1, 88] = 431.247$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.801, .970]). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant effect on the organizational commitment of mid-term soldiers. Transformational leadership accounted for 83% of the variance in the organizational commitment of mid-term soldiers. There was a 95% confidence that for every single unit increase in transformational leadership, the average organizational commitment increased between 0.801 and 0.970. Transformational leadership had a statistically significant ($p < .05$) effect on all the components of organizational commitment (affective, normative, and continuance) for mid-term soldiers. Transformational leadership accounted for 79% of the variance in affective commitment,

82% of the variance in normative commitment, and 69% of the variance in continuance commitment of mid-term soldiers.

The regression model for careerist soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .231$, $F [1, 39] = 11.742$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [.202, .783]). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant effect on the organizational commitment of careerist soldiers. Transformational leadership accounted for 23% of the variance in the organizational commitment of careerist soldiers. There was a 95% confidence that for every single unit increase in transformational leadership, the average organizational commitment increased between 0.202 and 0.783. Transformational leadership had a statistically significant ($p < .05$) effect on all the components of organizational commitment (affective, normative, and continuance) for careerist soldiers. Transformational leadership accounted for 40% of the variance in affective commitment, 31% of the variance in normative commitment, and 19% of the variance in continuance commitment of careerist soldiers. See Appendix D, Table 5, for the regression analyses of research question 4.

The components of transformational leadership (charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration) impact on organizational commitment were also analyzed. The regression models for charisma's, intellectual stimulation's, and individualized consideration's impact on organizational commitment were statistically significant ($p < .05$) for first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. See Appendix D, Table 6, for the regression analyses of global transformational leadership components on organizational commitment. The variance in organizational commitment, which all these components accounted for, decreased as the time in service of the individual increased. All the components of transformational leadership had a statistically significant ($p < .05$)

effect on all the components (affective, normative, and continuance) of organizational commitment for first term and mid-term soldiers. Intellectual stimulation was the only component of transformational leadership that had a statistically significant ($p < .05$) effect on all the components of organizational commitment for careerist soldiers. Charisma and individualized consideration had a significant ($p < .05$) effect on the affective and normative commitment of careerist soldiers, but not on their continuance commitment.

Step-wise multiple linear regressions were conducted to answer RQ₃ Does job satisfaction mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? Job satisfaction had a statistically significant effect on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers ($R^2 = .739$, $F [1, 128] = 362.276$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.854, 1.053]). Regression model 1 for the first term soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .755$, $F [1, 128] = 393.747$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.906, 1.107]), indicating transformational leadership had a statistically significant direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers. Regression model 2 controlled for transformational leadership and included job satisfaction. Regression model 2 was statistically significant ($R^2 = .764$, $p = .000$). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant ($p = .000$) direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers. Job satisfaction had a statistically significant ($p = .026$) effect on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers. The data determined job satisfaction does not mediate the effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers.

Job satisfaction had a statistically significant effect on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers ($R^2 = .796$, $F [1, 88] = 344.295$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.931, 1.154]). Regression model 1 for the mid-term soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .856$, $F [1, 88] = 242.156$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.860, 1.112]), indicating transformational leadership had a statistically significant direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers. Regression model 2 controlled for transformational leadership and included job satisfaction. Regression model 2 was statistically significant ($R^2 = .801$, $p = .000$). Transformational leadership did not have a statistically significant ($p = .168$) direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers, but transformational leadership still had an indirect effect on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers. Job satisfaction had a statistically significant ($p = .000$) effect on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers. The data determined job satisfaction does fully mediate the direct effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers.

Job satisfaction had a statistically significant effect on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers ($R^2 = .415$, $F [1, 39] = 27.697$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.619, 1.391]). Regression model 1 for the careerist soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .266$, $F [1, 39] = 14.163$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [.339, 1.127]), indicating transformational leadership had a statistically significant direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers. Regression model 2 controlled for transformational leadership and included job satisfaction. Regression model 2 was statistically significant ($R^2 = .423$, $p = .003$). Transformational leadership did not have a statistically significant ($p = .493$) direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers, but transformational leadership still had an indirect effect on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers. Job satisfaction

had a statistically significant ($p = .003$) effect on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers. The data determined job satisfaction does fully mediate the direct effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers. See Appendix D, Table 7, for the stepwise regression analyses of research question 3.

Step-wise multiple linear regressions were conducted to answer RQ₅ Does organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? Organizational commitment had a statistically significant effect on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers ($R^2 = .834$, $F [1, 128] = 644.838$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.936, 1.094]). Regression model 1 for the first term soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .755$, $F [1, 128] = 393.747$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.906, 1.107]). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers. Regression model 2 controlled for transformational leadership and included organizational commitment. Regression model 2 was statistically significant ($R^2 = .835$, $p = .000$). Transformational leadership did not have a statistically significant ($p = .618$) direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, but transformational leadership still had an indirect effect on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers. Organizational commitment had a statistically significant ($p = .000$) effect on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers. The data determined organizational commitment does fully mediate the direct effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers. The component of organizational commitment accounting for the greatest variance on re-enlistment intention was normative commitment ($R^2 = .826$)

Organizational commitment had a statistically significant effect on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers ($R^2 = .800$, $F [1, 88] = 351.119$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.936, 1.094]). Regression model 1 for the mid-term soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .856$, $F [1, 88] = 242.156$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.860, 1.112]). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers. Regression model 2 controlled for transformational leadership and included organizational commitment. Regression model 2 was statistically significant ($R^2 = .810$, $p = .000$). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant ($p = .034$) direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers. Organizational commitment had a statistically significant ($p = .000$) effect on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers. The data determined organizational commitment does partially mediate the direct effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers. The component of organizational commitment accounting for the greatest variance on re-enlistment intention was affective commitment ($R^2 = .803$).

Organizational commitment had a statistically significant effect on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers ($R^2 = .470$, $F [1, 39] = 34.615$, $p = .000$, 95% CI [.624, 1.278]). Regression model 1 for the careerist soldiers was statistically significant ($R^2 = .266$, $F [1, 39] = 14.163$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [.624, 1.278]). Transformational leadership had a statistically significant effect on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers. Regression model 2 controlled for transformational leadership and included organizational commitment. Regression model 2 was statistically significant ($R^2 = .515$, $p = .000$). Transformational leadership did not have a statistically significant ($p = .068$)

direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers. Organizational commitment had a statistically significant ($p = .000$) effect on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers. The data determined organizational commitment does fully mediate the direct effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers, but transformational leadership still had an indirect effect on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers. The component of organizational commitment accounting for the greatest variance on re-enlistment intention was normative commitment ($R^2 = .505$). See Appendix D, Table 8, for the stepwise regression analyses of research question 5.

Step-wise multiple linear regressions were conducted to answer RQ₆ Does job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers; mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? Model 1 indicated transformational leadership had a statistically significant ($p = .000$) direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers. Model 2 indicated when controlling for transformational leadership; transformational leadership did not have a statistically significant ($p = .385$) direct effect on re-enlistment intention, job satisfaction did not have a statistically significant ($p = .432$) effect on re-enlistment intention, and organizational commitment did have a statistically significant ($p = .000$) on re-enlistment intention. The data determined organizational commitment fully mediated the direct effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, but job satisfaction did not mediate the direct effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers.

Model 1 indicated transformational leadership had a statistically significant ($p = .000$) direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term soldiers. Model 2 indicated when controlling for transformational leadership; transformational leadership did not have a statistically significant ($p = .385$) direct effect on re-enlistment intention, job satisfaction was statistically significant ($p = .005$), and organizational commitment was statistically significant ($p = .001$). The data determined organizational commitment and job satisfaction fully mediated the direct effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention for mid-term soldiers.

Model 1 indicated transformational leadership had a statistically significant ($p = .001$) effect on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers. Model 2 indicated when controlling for transformational leadership; transformational leadership did not have a statistically significant ($p = .916$) direct effect on re-enlistment intention, job satisfaction was statistically significant ($p = .020$), and organizational commitment was statistically significant ($p = .001$). The data determined organizational commitment and job satisfaction fully mediated the direct effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers. See Appendix D, Table 9, for the stepwise regression analyses of research question 6.

ANOVAs were conducted to answer RQ₇ Is there a significant difference amongst the transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? The ANOVA determined there was a statistically significant ($p = .000$) difference amongst the transformational leadership of the first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. There was a statistically significant ($p = .002$) difference amongst the job satisfaction of the first

term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. There was a statistically significant ($p = .000$) difference amongst the organizational commitment of the first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. There was a statistically significant ($p = .000$) difference amongst the re-enlistment intention of the first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. But to determine which groups had the significant differences a Post Hoc test was conducted.

The Post Hoc test determined transformational leadership was significantly different ($p < .05$) between first term and careerist soldiers. Job satisfaction was significantly different ($p < .05$) between first term and careerist soldiers. Organizational commitment was significantly different ($p < .05$) between first term and careerist soldiers. Re-enlistment intention was significantly different ($p < .05$) between careerist and first term soldiers and between careerist and mid-term soldiers. See Appendix D, Table 10, for the Post Hoc analyses of research question 7.

Additionally ANOVAs were conducted with each demographic variable to test if there were any significant differences in the re-enlistment intention of members within each group. The groups with a significant difference ($p < .05$) in their re-enlistment intention were the groups divided by age, marital status, and education level. The groups showing no significant difference ($p > .05$) in their re-enlistment intention were groups divided by gender, race or ethnicity, and military occupational specialist.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to identify the demographics of the study participants and answer the seven research questions through statistical analyses. The sample population was 818 soldiers and the study consisted of 261 participants that were

divided into three strata (first term, mid-term, and careerist). The participant demographics described in the study were gender, age, race, military occupational specialty, marital status, education level, military career status.

Simple linear regressions were used to answer RQ₁, RQ₂, and RQ₄.

Transformational leadership had a statistically significant impact on the job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention of first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. Multiple linear regressions were used to answer RQ₃, RQ₅, and RQ₆. The direct effect of transformational leadership on re-enlistment intention was mediated by job satisfaction for mid-term and careerist soldiers, but not for first term soldiers. The direct effect of transformational leadership on re-enlistment intention was mediated by organizational commitment for first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. RQ₇ determined there were significant differences amongst the three groups' (first term, mid-term, and careerist) transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention. These variables and their importance to military retention are further addressed in Chapter V, Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This chapter summarized the study. This included a restatement of the problem, research questions, limitations, and a brief description of the population. Significant points from the literature review were followed by a description of the instrument design, data collection, and statistical procedures. Conclusions were drawn for each of the research questions and outcomes were explained. This chapter concluded with recommendations based on the results of the study and suggestions for future research.

Summary

The problem of the study was to determine whether transformational leadership, and its impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, impacts soldiers' re-enlistment intention in the VAARNG: The seven research questions developed to guide this study were: (1) Does transformational leadership impact the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (2) Does transformational leadership impact the job satisfaction of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (3) Does job satisfaction mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (4) Does transformational leadership impact the organizational commitment of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (5) Does organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers? (6) Does job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the impact of

transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers; mid-term soldiers? (7) Is there a significant difference amongst the transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?

Limitations for this study were it only included VAARNG enlisted soldiers in the study. Not every possible organizational variable that could impact a soldier's decision about remaining in the VAARNG was included. Only soldiers who had less than 18 years of service and were within 12 months of their ETS date were part of the study. The survey was used to assess the soldier's re-enlistment decision at one particular moment in time, as opposed to over a certain period of time. The re-enlistment decision the soldier selected on the survey may not be the same decision made when it was time to actually reenlist.

The research population consisted of 818 VAARNG enlisted soldiers who had less than 18 years of military service and were within 12 month of their ETS date. The population consisted of soldiers at different points in their military career and different military occupational specialties. There were 261 respondents to the survey. The respondents were divided into three strata first term, mid-term, and careerist.

The literature review began with an examination of the foundations of voluntary turnover. The March and Simon (1958) theory of organizational equilibrium was one of the first voluntary turnover models and it proposed that job satisfaction reduced the desirability of moving, thus reducing employee turnover. After the theory of organizational equilibrium several other voluntary turnover models were developed, such as the Porter and Steers (1973) Met Expectations hypothesis, the Price Model (Price,

1977), the Unified Model of Turnover (Bluedorn, 1982), the Bluedorn Military Retention Model (Bluedorn, 1979), the Motowidlo & Lawton Military Turnover Model (Motowidlo & Lawton, 1984), and the Personal Choice Military Retention Model (Capon, Chernyshenko, & Stark, 2007). These voluntary turnover models possessed similar components to analyze voluntary turnover. Authors who offer conceptual models to explain the employee voluntary turnover process (civilian or military) suggest the process includes behavioral, attitudinal, and decisional components (Barak, Nissly, & Levin, 2001). Most researchers now accept the antecedent that intention to stay or leave an organization for employees is the final cognitive step in the process of voluntary turnover (Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

The variables used in the study were transformational leadership, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. These variables have been used in many voluntary employee turnover studies in numerous industries across the globe. Several empirical studies have shown transformational leadership has a significant impact on employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Yusof, 1989; Walumbwa et al., 2005; Zahari & Shurbagi, 2012; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Kim, Magnusen, Andrew, & Stoll, 2012; Bo, 2013). All of these studies reported a positive correlation between the transformational leadership and the two variables job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The literature review ended with a review of how transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment impact the turnover intention of employees. Turnover intention is defined as the mediating factor between attitudes affecting intent to quit and actually quitting an organization (Glissmeyer, Bishop, & Fass, 2008). There

have been several studies conducted reporting transformational leadership does impact turnover intention (Tremblay, 2010; Gill, Mathur, Sharma, & Bhutani, 2011; Vandenberghe, Stordeur, & D'hoore, 2002; Hamstra, Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2011). There were also two studies by Reed and Bullis (2009) and Reed and Olsen (2010), which revealed the impact of transformational leadership or bad leadership on turnover intention lessens as a soldier's time in the military increases.

Both job satisfaction and organizational commitment have a significant impact on turnover intention. Prior studies by Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, and Bliese (2011), Prevosto, (2001), and Dupre and Day (2007) on military organizations reported a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. There have been several studies that confirmed the important role of organizational commitment as a major antecedent of intention to leave and several studies have also found a significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and intention to leave (Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Cho, Johanson, & Guchait, 2009; Jourdain & Chenevert, 2010). Both of these variables have been extensively studied and are two of the most abundantly used variables with voluntary turnover studies.

The instrument design for this study was a 39-item questionnaire. The first section was the demographic information about the participants followed by the Global Transformational Leadership scale (Carless, Wearing, & Mann, 2000), the Overall Job Satisfaction scale (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951), the Three Component Model scale (Meyer & Allen, 1991), and turnover intention was measured by a two item scale developed by

Firth, Mellor, Moore, and Loquet (2004). A five-point Likert scale was used to measure the responses of the participants.

The data collection was done with a 39-item questionnaire placed on a Survey Monkey TM website. The eligible participants of each stratum were assigned a number and a random number generator was used to identify which numbers would participate in the study. The soldiers whose numbers were selected by the random number generator were sent a letter requesting their participation in the study. The letter contained a link to the questionnaire and the link remained active for 45-days. Every 14 days, additional letters were sent out to other participants identified by the random number generator until 32-percent of each stratum had responded to the survey.

The statistical analyses were done using several methods. Descriptive statistics were used to measure the distribution, central tendency, and measures of validity of the survey questions. Bivariate correlations determined the strength, direction, significance of the association between the variables. Simple linear regressions were done to determine the direction and the association between two variables and if there was a significant dependence between each independent variable and the dependent variable. Simple linear regressions were done to answer research questions 1, 2, and 4. Multiple linear regressions were done to determine if transformational leadership's effect on re-enlistment intention was mediated by job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The multiple linear regressions were conducted to answer research questions 3, 5, and 6. ANOVAs and Post Hoc tests were done to determine if there were significant differences between the groups in the study. The ANOVAs and Post Hoc tests were done to answer research question 7.

Conclusions

This study examined some variables that influenced VAARNG soldiers' decision to reenlist. The findings of the data collected provided the factors that need to be known by the leadership of the VAARNG to assist with improving retention and retaining quality soldiers. After examining the results from the descriptive and regression analysis statistics used to answer RQ₁ through RQ₇ the following conclusions emerged.

Research Question 1 asked, "Does transformational leadership impact the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers; mid-term soldiers; and careerist soldiers?" The study found consistent results with prior work of research indicating a positive correlation between transformational leadership and retention intention. Linear regressions determined transformational leadership has a statistically significant impact on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers ($p < .05$), mid-term soldiers ($p < .05$), and careerist soldiers ($p < .05$).

Transformational leadership significantly impacts re-enlistment intention. Some believe transformational leadership is the most effective leadership style to achieve long-term success and improve retention intention (Forest & Kleiner, 2011). The impact of transformational leadership on re-enlistment intention was greatest for first term soldiers and then decreased for the mid-term soldiers and decreased even more for careerist soldiers. The time in service of a soldier is an important variable to consider when examining the impact of transformational leadership on re-enlistment intention. VAARNG leaders practicing transformational leadership improve the re-enlistment intention of soldiers, especially for first term soldiers who may still be trying to determine if the VAARNG meets their expectations. The decreased impact of

transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term and careerist soldiers is linked to the changing expectations of soldiers who have been in the VAARNG for a while

The group with the smallest percentage of participants stating they would not re-enlist were the careerist at 9.8%. The direct effect of transformational leadership on the variance of re-enlistment intention was the least (26%) for careerist soldiers in comparison to first term and mid-term soldiers. The lowered direct effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers did not result in the percentage of careerist soldiers claiming they were not going to reenlist being higher than first term and mid-term soldiers claiming they were not going to reenlist. Careerist soldiers are highly focused on continuing their military service and this supports a study by Hamstra et al. (2011) about how promotion focused or career oriented individuals are not negatively impacted by low transformational leadership.

Research Question 2 and 4 asked, “Does transformational leadership impact the job satisfaction of first term soldiers; mid-term soldiers; and careerist soldiers?” and “Does transformational leadership impact the organizational commitment of first term soldiers; mid-term soldiers; and careerist soldiers?” The study found consistent results with prior research indicating a high positive correlation between transformational leadership and both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Linear regressions determined transformational leadership had a statistically significant impact on the job satisfaction and organizational commitment of first term soldiers ($p < .05$), mid-term soldiers ($p < .05$), and careerist soldiers ($p < .05$).

The impact of transformational leadership on job satisfaction and organizational commitment is greatest for first term soldiers and decreases from mid-term to careerist soldiers. Newer soldiers require the most guidance and transformational leadership helps develop soldiers, so they believe in themselves and their mission. The impact of transformational leadership on job satisfaction and organizational commitment lessens as a soldier's time in the military increases because other variables, that are beyond the control of the VAARNG leaders such as family conflict, civilian job conflict, or educational benefits, also begin impacting job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Research Question 3 asked, "Does job satisfaction mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?" The study determined job satisfaction did not mediate the direct effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intentions of first term soldiers, but job satisfaction did mediate the direct effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of mid-term and careerist soldiers. First term soldiers are still learning their job so they do not fully understand all the duties and responsibilities their position may require, so they cannot determine if they are being fully engaged and utilized. Transformational leadership involves qualities everyone understands, such as developing a self-concept, personal and social identity, and understanding missions and goals. Between the two variables first term soldiers rely more upon the leadership they have experienced than their job satisfaction level. Mid-term and careerist soldiers understand their job duties and responsibilities and determined being engaged at their job is more important than the leadership they received.

Research Question 5 asked, “Does organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?” The study reported organizational commitment mediated the impact of transformational leadership’s direct effect on the re-enlistment intention of first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. Organizational commitment accounted for a larger amount of the variance in re-enlistment intention than transformational leadership. Normative commitment was the component of organizational commitment that accounted for the greatest variance in the re-enlistment intention of first term and careerist soldiers. These soldiers have internalized the importance of loyalty to the organization, feel a debt to the people they work with, and feel they ought to continue with the organization. Affective commitment was the component of organizational commitment that accounted for the greatest variance in the reenlistment intention of mid-term soldiers. These soldiers have an emotional attachment and identify with the organizations goals and values and they want to continue employment with the organization.

Research Question 6 asked, “Does job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediate the impact of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers; mid-term soldiers?” The study reported transformational leadership’s direct effect on re-enlistment intention is mediated by job satisfaction and organizational commitment for first term, mid-term, and careerist soldiers. Everything in the military begins with leadership and even though transformational leadership does not always directly influence re-enlistment intention, it does directly influence organizational commitment and job satisfaction, which are the two most used variables in voluntary

employee turnover studies. The importance of organizational commitment was reported in a meta-analysis by Wagner (2007) which found that organizational commitment was a stronger predictor of turnover intention than job satisfaction. Transformational leadership had a positive correlation to organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Transformational leadership is also an important variable because it had a statistically significant impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Transformational leadership plays a vital role in how job satisfaction and organizational commitment impact a soldier's re-enlistment intention.

Research question 7 asked, "Is there a significant difference amongst the transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and re-enlistment intention of first term soldiers, mid-term soldiers, and careerist soldiers?" There were significant differences between the re-enlistment intention of careerist soldiers and mid-term soldiers and the reenlistment intention of careerist soldiers and first term soldiers. Reenlistment intention of soldiers changes after 10 years of service because these soldiers are half way towards their 20-year retirement, which will provide them with a monthly retirement payment the rest of their life and benefits such as commissary, post-exchange, and free medical for life. Soldiers with less than 10 years of service (first term and mid-term) have not dedicated as much of their time to the military, so making a career out of the military is not as important to them as careerist soldiers. First term and mid-term soldiers feel they have other options besides finishing a career in the military.

Based on the findings of the study, the conceptual model developed for the study was not supported because when job satisfaction and organizational commitment were

both used in the regression then they fully mediated the direct effect of transformational leadership on re-enlistment intention and transformational leadership only had an indirect effect on re-enlistment intention. A revised conceptual model was develop to reflect the data findings of the study. See Figure 5.



Figure 5. Revised National Guard military retention model.

Recommendations

The seven research questions of the study identified four main points the VAARNG leaders can utilize to improve the VAARNG soldier retention. The first point is transformational leadership has a significant impact on the retention intention of VAARNG soldiers. The results supported the findings of previous empirical studies about the significant effect of transformational leadership on the retention intention of individuals. Previous studies reported transformational leadership does have a significant effect on employee retention intention (Tremblay, 2010; Gill, Mathur, Sharma, & Bhutani, 2011; Vandenberghe, Stordeur, & D'hoore, 2002; Hamstra, Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2011). Employees who experience transformational leadership have an increased re-enlistment intention toward the organization. A study by Tremblay (2010)

illustrated that soldiers who experience transformational leadership perceive more fairness and trust in their leadership, which increased their re-enlistment intention.

The Army should make changes to the current leadership training courses. There are training courses at all levels of leadership that soldiers are required to attend to progress in the military. The training courses for enlisted soldiers are Warrior Leader Course, Advanced Leader Course, Senior Leader Course, First Sergeant Academy, U.S. Army Sergeants Major Academy, and Command Sergeants Major Academy. The training course for commissioned officers are Basic Officer Leadership Course, Captains Career Course, Intermediate Level Education, and Senior Service College. The curriculums of these training courses need to include transformational leadership principles and continue to build up the transformational leadership knowledge of the soldier. These curriculums should educate soldiers/leaders on the difference between transactional leadership and transformational leadership. The curriculum change would have to be on an Army-wide level and making changes Army-wide usually takes many years, so the leadership of the VAARNG can implement changes in their local leadership training program.

The VAARNG can add modules of transformational leadership to the leadership training courses they control such as the New Company Commander & First Sergeant course, the Non-Commissioned Officer Developmental Program (NCODP), and the Officer Developmental Program (ODP). NCODP and ODP training are controlled by the individual units, so it should be mandated that transformational leadership principles are taught at least three times a year. The training should emphasize that first-term soldiers are impacted the most by transformational leadership and leaders should use

transformational leadership as much as possible when leading first term soldiers, as well as mid-term and careerist soldiers.

The second point is transformational leadership has a significant impact on the job satisfaction of VAARNG soldiers. The significant effect of transformational leadership on the job satisfaction of soldiers supported the findings of many other empirical studies involving different occupations such as college coaches, petroleum industry workers, bank tellers, and public relations personnel (Yusof, 1989; Walumbwa et al., 2005; Zahari & Shurbagi, 2012; Shibru, 2011; & Yang, 2012). The percentage of job satisfaction variance that transformational leadership accounted for decreased as the tenure of the participant in the VAARNG increased. The change in the percentage of variance of 91% for first term soldiers going down to 50% for careerist soldiers reveals how the impact of transformational leadership on job satisfaction lessens as an individual's time in the military increases.

Transformational leadership should be utilized by leaders to help improve the job satisfaction of soldiers. One aspect of transformational leadership is it increases followers' involvement. VAARNG leaders can allow soldiers, during their counseling sessions, to provide input about what they expect from their leader and what goals they want to accomplish while performing the job. First term soldiers will probably not have a lot of input to provide because they are still learning their job, but being given the opportunity by their leaders will increase soldiers' confidence level and more importantly the soldiers will have helped determine how engaged they will be in their job. The mid-term and careerist soldiers have a much better understanding of their job, so allowing them to have input towards the functions and responsibilities of their job will increase

their engagement. Higher engagement levels are one of the keys to high job satisfaction and transformational leadership can provide soldiers with a higher level of engagement at their jobs.

The third point is transformational leadership has a significant impact on the organizational commitment of soldiers. The results supported the findings of previous empirical studies about the significant effect of transformational leadership on organizational commitment. Previous studies reported transformational leadership does have a significant effect on organizational commitment (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Kim, Magnusen, Andrew, & Stoll, 2012; Bo, 2013; Khasawneh, Omari, & Abu-Tineh, 2012; Simosi & Xenikou, 2010). The percentage of organizational commitment variance that transformational leadership accounted for decreased as the tenure of the participant in the VAARNG increased. The change in the percentage of variance of 89% for first term soldiers down to 23% for careerist soldiers reveals how the impact of transformational leadership on organizational commitment lessens as an individual's time in the military increases.

VAARNG leaders can utilize transformational leadership to help soldiers embrace and internalize the goals and mission of the organization to make them their own. VAARNG leaders should not only tell soldiers what they are doing, but also provide an explanation of why they are performing a certain task and the importance of the task, so the soldiers will gain a greater sense of pride in their mission and the organization. Establishing that sense of pride and loyalty to the organization is the effect transformational leadership has on organizational commitment.

VAARNG leaders should ensure they know whether their soldiers are first term, mid-term, or careerist because transformational leadership's impact on organizational commitment is greatest for first term soldiers. First term soldiers' level of organizational commitment is usually the least, so VAARNG leaders should utilize transformational leadership as often as possible to improve the organizational commitment of first term soldiers. VAARNG leaders should also use transformational leadership to help improve the organizational commitment of mid-term and careerist soldiers, but the impact of transformational leadership on organizational commitment will be less than the impact on first term soldiers.

The fourth point is transformational leadership's effect on re-enlistment intention is mediated by job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Studies by Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, and Bliese (2011), Prevosto, (2001), Dupre and Day (2007) on military organizations have supported previous empirical studies about the relationship between job satisfaction and re-enlistment intention. The study by (Chen et al., 2011) reported the impact of job satisfaction on re-enlistment intention increases as a soldier's time in the military increase, which helps explain why job satisfaction mediated the effect of transformational leadership on the re-enlistment intention of soldiers beyond the first term. Several studies have also confirmed the important role of organizational commitment as a major antecedent of intention to leave/re-enlistment intention (Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Cho, Johanson, & Guchait, 2009; Jourdain & Chenevert, 2010; Newman, Thanacoody, & Hui, 2012; Laschinger, Leiter, Day, & Gilin, 2009; Fah, Foon, Leong, & Osman, 2010). The strong correlation organizational commitment has been shown to have with turnover intention

(re-enlistment intention) supports why at every level transformational leadership' effect on re-enlistment intention was mediated by organizational commitment.

VAARNG leaders should begin evaluating the job satisfaction and organizational commitment of soldiers who choose to re-enlist and who choose to not remain in the VAARNG. Shortly after a soldier has re-enlisted they should be given a survey with questions focusing on the level of transformational leadership they have experienced and their level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment with the organization. Soldiers who choose not to re-enlist should also be given a survey within 1 or 2 months of their expiration term of service (ETS) date that focuses on the level of transformational leadership they experienced and their level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment with the organization. These surveys can help the VAARNG leaders get a better picture of how soldiers who are stayers and leavers view certain organizational factors in the VAARNG. Understanding what motivates the leavers will let the VAARNG leaders identify what areas leaders may require more training in to improve transformational leadership, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which ultimately will help increase soldiers' re-enlistment intention.

Suggestions for Future Research

The limitations of this study provided some of the possible future research studies. One limitation of this study was it only involved VAARNG soldiers, so another study could be done with the National Guard soldiers from another state to determine if these findings are just in Virginia or does it apply to ARNG soldiers in other states. Every states' National Guard have some differences between them, but do those

differences include the impact of transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on the re-enlistment intention of soldiers.

A second limitation of the study was it only included enlisted soldiers. Another study could be done with commissioned officers as the population to determine how transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment impact the desire for commissioned officers to remain in the military. Commissioned officers do not have an expiration of term service (ETS) date, so officers can leave military service whenever they want if they do not have any other contractual obligations. Determining if commissioned officers are impacted the same way as enlisted soldiers, would be useful knowledge to help improve the retention of quality commissioned officers.

A two-part study could be done, the first part would be to determine what leadership style (transactional or transformational) leaders believe they are using, the second part would be for the soldiers of these leaders to determine what style of leadership (transactional or transformational) they are experiencing. The questionnaire for the soldiers would also include questions about their re-enlistment intention. The study will help show both sides of how an organization functions, those who give the orders and those who perform the orders and reveal if the perception of leaders are the same as the perception of their soldiers.

A final study focusing on the impact of transformational leadership could be done as a longitudinal study. Several thousand soldiers could be identified when they first enter into the military and every three to four years these soldiers would be surveyed. The survey questionnaire should include items about the leadership the soldier has experienced and other factors such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment,

family-work conflict, and re-enlistment intention. When a soldier who is a member of this study does not re-enlist they should receive an exit survey focusing on why they chose not to remain in the service.

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APPENDIX A

Impact of Transformational Leadership on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment and the Retention Intention of Virginia Army National Guard Soldiers

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather feedback from VAARNG Soldiers in regard to what factors impact your intentions to reenlist or extend your service in the VAARNG. All of these questions are directed toward your feelings and interactions at the company level of your organization. The responses of this study will be anonymous. The information you provide will be statistically summarized with other responses and will not be attributable to any single individual. Participation is voluntary and your completion of this survey indicates your willingness to participate in this study. The information you provide is greatly appreciated. Thank you for taking your time to assist in this research.

DEMOGRAPHICS

1. What is your gender? Male; Female
2. What is your age: 18-21; 22-30; 31-40; above 40
3. What is your racial/ethnic background? White; Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander; Native American; Other
4. Which of the following does your Military Occupational Specialty fall into? Combat Arms; Combat Support; Combat Service Support
5. What is your marital status? Single; Married, Divorced, Widowed
6. What is your highest level of education completed? High School Graduate/GED; Some College; Associates Degree; Bachelor's Degree; Graduate Degree
7. What is your military career status? First Term (first enlistment), Mid Term (On at least your 2nd enlistment and less than 10 years of service), Careerist (More than 10 years of service)

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

(1= Never; 2= Rarely; 3 = Occasionally 4= Often; 5= Always)

8. My leadership communicates a clear and positive vision of the future.
9. My leadership treats members as individuals, supports and encourages their development.
10. My leadership gives encouragement and recognition to unit members
11. My leadership fosters trust, involvement and cooperation among unit members.

- 12. My leadership encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions.
- 13. My leadership is clear about their values and practices what they preach.
- 14. My leadership instills pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent.

JOB SATISFACTION

(1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3 = Occasionally; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree)

- 15. Most drills I am enthusiastic about my work.
- 16. I feel fairly satisfied with my present job
- 17. I consider my job rather pleasant.
- 18. I find real enjoyment in my work
- 19. Each day of drill my work seems like it ends at the right time.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

(1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Slightly Agree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree)

Affective Commitment Scale

- 20. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
- 21. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- 22. I feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.
- 23. I feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
- 24. I feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
- 25. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Continuance Commitment Scale

- 26. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
- 27. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
- 28. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
- 29. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
- 30. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
- 31. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

Normative Commitment Scale

- 32. I feel an obligation to remain with my current employer.
- 33. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
- 34. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
- 35. This organization deserves my loyalty.

36. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.

37. I owe a great deal to my organization.

Turnover Intention

38. How often do you think about not re-enlisting or extending? (1= Always; 2= Often; 3= Occasionally; 4= Rarely; 5=Never)

39. Right now you plan to (1= Leave before the end of my present obligation, 2= Leave upon completion of my present obligation, 3= Stay in the VAARNG beyond my present obligation but not necessarily until retirement, 4 = Probably stay in VAARNG until retirement, 5 = Definitely stay in until retirement or longer

APPENDIX B

<<Date>>

<<Rank>> <<First name>> <<Last name>>

<<Address 1>>

<<Address 2>>

<<City>>, <<State>> <<Zip>>

Dear Virginia Army National Guard Soldier,

There are compelling questions about what factors impact the decision of whether or not a Virginia Army National Guard (VAARNG) Soldier extends their service in the military through re-enlistment or an extension. The purpose of this research study is to determine which factors have the greatest impact on a VAARNG soldier's retention decision. One of the strengths of the VAARNG is the retention of quality soldiers who help the organization continue its mission of supporting the Commonwealth of Virginia and the international mission of the United States Armed Forces. By taking a few moments of your time, you can provide information that will aid the VAARNG leadership in understanding the needs of Soldiers when it comes to factors that impact retention, which can lead to improvements that will increase soldier retention. Soldiers like yourself have insight and truly understand what motivates a Soldier to remain in the Guard and what motivates them to leave the Guard.

As a graduate student at Old Dominion University and a VAARNG Soldier conducting a research study, I would greatly appreciate your help answering some questions about the retention of VARNG Soldiers. It will only take about 5 minutes of your time to complete the survey located at the following web address _____, you will be able to add your input to create a better understanding of what factors impact retention.

The link on Survey Monkey will remain active until 31 January 2014. Participation is voluntary and your completion of this survey indicates your willingness to participate in this study. The identity of who completes the questionnaire is completely anonymous and information you provide will be statistically summarized with other responses and will not be attributable to any single individual. If you would like a copy of the completed research paper or have any questions about the study please contact me at kervin.g.sider.mil@mail.mil or 434 298-6229. Thanks in advance for your cooperation and support of this research study.

Sincerely

Dr. Cynthia Tomovic
Professor, Department of STEM Education
Old Dominion University

Kervin Sider
ODU Graduate Student
Email: kside003@odu.edu

APPENDIX C

SURVEY RESPONSE RAW DATA

The tables in this appendix provide descriptive statistical data for the responses to the survey questions. The responses are broken down by the stratum. The mean and standard deviation of each response is listed.

Transformational Leadership

Table C1.

Question 8: My leadership communicates a clear and positive vision of the future.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Never	0			0			0		
Rarely	22			8			2		
Occasionally	48	3.3	.77	39	3.4	.66	12	3.6	.68
Often	57			42			24		
Always	3			1			3		

Table C2

Question 9: My leadership treats members as individuals, supports and encourages their development.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Never	0			1			0		
Rarely	38			19			2		
Occasionally	48	3	.82	31	3.2	.87	11	3.6	.58
Often	41			35			28		
Always	2			4			3		

Table C3

Question 10: My leadership gives encouragement and recognition to unit members.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Never	1			1			0		
Rarely	36			22			1		
Occasionally	56	3	.78	27	3.2	.92	14	3.7	.70
Often	36			35			21		
Always	1			5			5		

Table C4

Question 11: My leadership fosters trust, involvement and cooperation among unit members.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Never	0			1			0		
Rarely	36			18			1		
Occasionally	56	3	.77	28	3.2	.86	11	3.7	.62
Often	37			40			26		
Always	1			3			3		

Table C5

Question 12: My leadership encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Never	0			0			1		
Rarely	28			9			3		
Occasionally	35	3.3	.87	25	3.6	.80	2	3.9	.90
Often	60			47			25		
Always	7			9			10		

Table C6

Question 13: My leadership is clear about their values and practices what they preach.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Never	1			0			2		
Rarely	36			17			0		
Occasionally	38	3.1	.92	33	3.2	.75	15	3.5	.83
Often	48			40			21		
Always	7			9			3		

Table C7

Question 14: My leadership instills pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Never	1			1			2		
Rarely	37			21			0		
Occasionally	49	3.0	.82	28	3.1	.83	9	3.6	.78
Often	42			40			28		
Always	1			0			2		

Job Satisfaction

Table C8

Question 15: Most drills I am enthusiastic about my work.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	0			0			1		
Disagree	38			12			2		
Occasionally Agree	39	3.1	.83	32	3.3	.71	5	3.7	.67
Strongly Agree	53			46			33		
	0			0			0		

Table C9

Question 16: I feel fairly satisfied with my present job.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	2			0			1		
Disagree	33			18			1		
Occasionally Agree	25	3.3	.99	32	3.2	.80	12	3.6	.70
Strongly Agree	60			38			26		
	10			2			1		

Table C10

Question 17: I consider my job rather pleasant.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	0			0			1		
Disagree	32			16			0		
Occasionally Agree	55	3.0	.77	34	3.2	.76	16	3.5	.63
Strongly Agree	42			38			24		
	1			1			0		

Table C11

Question 18: I find real enjoyment in my work.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	1			0			1		
Disagree	38			24			0		
Occasionally Agree	48	3.0	.86	23	3.2	.90	15	3.5	.66
Strongly Agree	39			39			24		
	4			4			1		

Table C12

Question 19: Each day of drill my work seems like it ends at the right time.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	0			1			3		
Disagree	38			22			1		
Occasionally Agree	50	3.0	.78	28	3.1	.83	10	3.4	.86
Strongly Agree	41			39			27		
	0			0			0		

Organizational Commitment

Table C13

Question 20: I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	3			0			1		
Disagree	38			21			3		
Slightly Agree	41	3.0	.89	29	3.2	.81	6	3.6	.78
Strongly Agree	46			38			29		
	2			1			2		

Table C14

Question 21: I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	3			0			1		
Disagree	38	2.8	.78	29	2.9	.74	3		
Slightly Agree	59			40			18	3.3	.72
Agree	30			21			19		
Strongly Agree	0			0			0		

Table C15

Question 22: I feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	3			0			2		
Disagree	39	2.9	.81	29	2.9	.80	16		
Slightly Agree	52			33			22	3.5	.63
Agree	36			28			1		
Strongly Agree	0			0			0		

Table C16

Question 23: I feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	4			0			2		
Disagree	41	2.8	.83	31	2.9	.80	1		
Slightly Agree	51			32			20	3.3	.79
Agree	34			26			17		
Strongly Agree	0			0			1		

Table C17

Question 24: I feel like "part of the family" at my organization.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	5			0			1		
Disagree	37	2.9	.86	30			0		
Slightly Agree	48			30	3.0	.84	12	3.6	.65
Agree	40			29			27		
Strongly Agree	0			1			1		

Table C18

Question 25: This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	0			0			0		
Disagree	37			11			2		
Slightly Agree	28	3.3	1.0	25	3.5	.73	5	3.8	.62
Agree	50			52			30		
Strongly Agree	15			2			3		

Table C19

Question 26: Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	0			0			3		
Disagree	34			13			1		
Slightly Agree	46	3.1	.83	27	3.4	.78	2	3.7	.93
Agree	46			47			31		
Strongly Agree	3			3			4		

Table C20

Question 27: It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	0			0			4		
Disagree	31			14			0		
Slightly Agree	53	3.1	.77	32	3.3	.73	1	3.7	.93
Agree	45			44			34		
Strongly Agree	1			0			1		

Table C21

Question 28: Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	1			0			4		
Disagree	37			14			1		
Slightly Agree	48	3.0	.83	29	3.3	.75	3	3.6	1.0
Agree	42			46			30		
Strongly Agree	2			1			3		

Table C22

Question 29: I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	0			0			2		
Disagree	36			19			2		
Slightly Agree	55	3.0	.76	31	3.2	.79	5	3.6	.79
Agree	38			39			32		
Strongly Agree	0			1			0		

Table C23

Question 30: If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	0			0			3		
Disagree	39			21			2		
Slightly Agree	47	3.0	.80	22	3.2	.82	3	3.6	.93
Agree	44			47			31		
Strongly Agree	0			0			2		

Table C24

Question 31: One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	0			0			2		
Disagree	24			12			1		
Slightly Agree	61	3.1	.71	33	3.3	.71	4	3.7	.74
Agree	45			45			34		
Strongly Agree	0			0			0		

Table C25

Question 32: I feel an obligation to remain with my current employer.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	1			1			2		
Disagree	39			19			1		
Slightly Agree	23	3.2	1.0	13	3.4	.91	2	3.8	.82
Agree	53			52			32		
Strongly Agree	13			4			4		

Table C26

Question 33: Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	2			0			2		
Disagree	42	2.9	.84	29			2		
Slightly Agree	43			11	3.2	.92	7	3.5	.80
Agree	43			49			30		
Strongly Agree	0			1			0		

Table C27

Question 34: I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	5			1			2		
Disagree	37	2.9	.85	26			2		
Slightly Agree	50			19	3.1	.89	12	3.4	.84
Agree	38			43			24		
Strongly Agree	0			0			1		

Table C28

Question 35: This organization deserves my loyalty.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	1			0			1		
Disagree	40	2.9	.79	25			2		
Slightly Agree	52			18	3.2	.86	9	3.6	.73
Agree	37			46			28		
Strongly Agree	0			0			1		

Table C29

Question 36: I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	1			0			3		
Disagree	40			19			1		
Slightly Agree	37	3.1	.95	18	3.3	.83	2	3.8	.95
Agree	44			51			30		
Strongly Agree	8			1			5		

Table C30

Question 37: I owe a great deal to my organization.

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Strongly Disagree	0			0			3		
Disagree	41			12			1		
Slightly Agree	33	3.1	.89	22	3.5	.75	0	3.8	.91
Agree	53			54			33		
Strongly Agree	3			2			4		

Table C31

Question 38: How often do you think about not re-enlisting or extending?

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Always	5			2			3		
Often	30			23	2.9	.77	2		
Occasionally	56	3.0	.89	45			3	3.7	.98
Rarely	34			19			29		
Never	5			1			4		

Table C32

Question 39: Right now you plan to__

Response	First Term			Mid-Term			Careerist		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Leave upon completion of my present obligation	41			28			4		
Stay beyond my present obligation, but not necessarily until retirement	55	3.0	.89	25	3.2	1.0	0		
Probably stay in until retirement	24			27			7	4.5	.92
Definitely stay in until retirement or longer	10			10			30		

APPENDIX D

REGRESSION ANALYSES FOR RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Table D1

Results of the Regression of Transformational Leadership on Re-enlistment Intention

Stratum / Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	Sig.
First Term					
Trans. Leadership	1.007	.051	.869	19.843	.000*
Mid-Term					
Trans. Leadership	.986	.063	.856	15.561	.000*
Careerist					
Trans. Leadership	.733	.195	.516	3.763	.001*

Note: N=261, * = $p < .05$

Table D2

Results of the Regression of Transformational Leadership Components on Re-enlistment Intention

Stratum / Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	Sig.
First Term					
Charisma	.943	.049	.863	19.337	.000*
Intel. Stimulation	.913	.060	.801	15.159	.000*
Indiv. Consideration	.906	.057	.816	15.910	.000*
Mid-Term					
Charisma	.953	.062	.853	15.357	.000*
Int. Stimulation	1.036	.080	.811	12.996	.000*
Ind. Consideration	.760	.063	.791	12.124	.000*
Careerist					
Charisma	.565	.186	.438	3.043	.004*
Intel. Stimulation	.714	.160	.581	4.461	.000*
Indiv. Consideration	.679	.220	.443	3.089	.004*

Note: N=261, * = $p < .05$

Table D3

Results of the Regression of Transformational Leadership on Job Satisfaction

Stratum / Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	Sig.
First Term					
Trans. Leadership	1.000	.027	.957	37.356	.000*
Mid-Term					
Trans. Leadership	.919	.038	.933	24.274	.000*
Careerist					
Trans. Leadership	.644	.103	.707	6.251	.000*

Note: N=261, * = $p < .05$

Table D4

Results of the Regression of Transformational Leadership Components on Job Satisfaction

Stratum / Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	Sig.
First Term					
Charisma	.934	.028	.948	33.674	.000*
Intel. Stimulation	.886	.046	.863	19.327	.000*
Indiv. Consideration	.924	.034	.923	27.016	.000*
Mid-Term					
Charisma	.877	.040	.918	21.696	.000*
Int. Stimulation	.991	.049	.906	20.063	.000*
Ind. Consideration	.707	.045	.859	15.754	.000*
Careerist					
Charisma	.579	.095	.700	6.123	.000*
Intel. Stimulation	.529	.094	.671	5.652	.000*
Indiv. Consideration	.576	.127	.587	4.524	.000*

Note: N=261, * = $p < .05$

Table D5

Results of the Regression of Transformational Leadership on Organizational Commitment

Stratum / Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	Sig.
First Term					
Trans. Leadership	.985	.030	.945	32.544	.000*
Mid-Term					
Trans. Leadership	.885	.043	.911	20.766	.000*
Careerist					
Trans. Leadership	.492	.144	.481	3.427	.001*

Note: N=261, * = $p < .05$

Table D6

Results of the Regression of Transformational Leadership Components on Organizational Commitment

Stratum / Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	Sig.
First Term					
Charisma	.912	.032	.928	28.164	.000*
Intel. Stimulation	.905	.043	.883	21.244	.000*
Indiv. Consideration	.891	.040	.892	22.290	.000*
Mid-Term					
Charisma	.849	.044	.901	19.456	.000*
Int. Stimulation	.940	.056	.872	16.697	.000*
Ind. Consideration	.685	.046	.844	14.778	.000*
Careerist					
Charisma	.388	.135	.418	2.874	.007*
Intel. Stimulation	.462	.121	.522	3.823	.000*
Indiv. Consideration	.464	.160	.420	2.892	.006*

Note: N=261, * = $p < .05$

Table D7

Results of the Step-wise Regression of Transformational Leadership on Re-enlistment Intention Being Mediated by Job Satisfaction

Stratum / Variable	β	R^2	ΔR^2	Sig.
First Term				
Step 1		.755	.	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.869			
Step 2		.764	.009	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.548			.000*
Job Satisfaction	.335			.026*
Mid-Term				
Step 1		.733	.733	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.856			
Step 2		.801	.067	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.185			.168
Job Satisfaction	.720			.000*
Careerist				
Step 1		.266	.	.001*
Trans. Leadership	.516			
Step 2		.423	.156	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.121			.493
Job Satisfaction	.559			.000*

Note: N=261, * = $p < .05$

Table D8

Results of the Step-wise Regression of Transformational Leadership on Re-enlistment Intention Being Mediated by Organizational Commitment

Stratum / Variable	β	R^2	ΔR^2	Sig.
First Term				
Step 1		.755	.	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.869			
Step 2		.835	.080	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.055			.618
Org. Commitment	.862			.000*
Mid-Term				
Step 1		.733		.000*
Trans. Leadership	.856			
Step 2		.810	.076	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.245			.034*
Org. Commitment	.671			.000*
Careerist				
Step 1		.266	.	.001*
Trans. Leadership	.516			
Step 2		.515	.249	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.242			.068
Org. Commitment	.569			.000*

Note: N=261, * = $p < .05$

Table D9

Results of the Step-wise Regression of Transformational Leadership on Re-enlistment Intention Being Mediated by Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Stratum / Variable	β	R^2	ΔR^2	Sig.
First Term				
Step 1		.755	.	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.869			
Step 2		.836	.081	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.120			.385
Job Satisfaction	-.109			.432
Org. Commitment	.903			.000*
Mid-Term				
Step 1		.733		.000*
Trans. Leadership	.856			
Step 2		.827	.093	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.245			.810
Job Satisfaction	.430			.005*
Org. Commitment	.465			.001*
Careerist				
Step 1		.266	.	.001*
Trans. Leadership	.516			
Step 2		.582	.315	.000*
Trans. Leadership	.016			.916
Job Satisfaction	.382			.020*
Org. Commitment	.477			.001*

Note: N=261, * = $p < .05$

Table D10

Results of Post Hoc Test to Determine Differences Between the Stratum Groups of Each Variable

Variable	Stratum (I)	Stratum (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Trans. Leadership	First Term	Mid-Term	-.18040	.10027	.200
		Careerist	-.57913*	.13097	.000
	Mid-Term	First Term	.18040	.10027	.200
		Careerist	-.39872*	.13777	.016
	Careerist	First Term	.57913*	.13097	.000
		Mid-Term	.39872*	.13777	.016
Job Satisfaction	First Term	Mid-Term	-.14004	.10119	.385
		Careerist	-.46152*	.13218	.003
	Mid-Term	First Term	.14004	.10119	.385
		Careerist	-.32148	.13904	.071
	Careerist	First Term	.46152*	.13218	.003
		Mid-Term	.32148	.13904	.071
Org. Commitment	First Term	Mid-Term	-.20058	.10185	.146
		Careerist	-.59346*	.13304	.000
	Mid-Term	First Term	.20058	.10185	.146
		Careerist	-.39288*	.13995	.021
	Careerist	First Term	.59346*	.13304	.000
		Mid-Term	.39288*	.13995	.021
Re-enlistment Int.	First Term	Mid-Term	-.04530	.11916	.930
		Careerist	-1.09503*	.15565	.000
	Mid-Term	First Term	.04530	.11916	.930
		Careerist	-1.04973*	.16373	.000
	Careerist	First Term	1.09503*	.15565	.000
		Mid-Term	1.04973*	.16373	.000

Note: N=261, * = The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

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