

One Step Ahead:
Examining New Predictors of Affective
Organizational and Occupational
Commitment

AMNA YOUSAF
November 2010

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ONE STEP AHEAD:
EXAMINING NEW PREDICTORS OF
AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL AND
OCCUPATIONAL COMMITMENT

DISSERTATION

To obtain
the doctor's degree at the University of Twente,
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Amna Yousaf

born on 20 April 1980

in Lahore, Pakistan

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Enschede, the Netherlands
September, 2010

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General Introduction

1.1 Research rationale: Global problem with academic staff retention

Based on the trend of growth of research organizations both in the public and private sector during the 1980s, studies around the world forecast a shortage of skilled researchers during 1990's (Tan & Meijer, 2001). The forecasts becoming true, various reports hint towards a rising shortage of scientific researchers in European countries which form the backbone of any economy. For example, report presented by European commission (EC, 2003) says that by now (2010) about 1.2 million additional research personnel, including 700,000 additional researchers, are deemed necessary on top of the expected replacement of the ageing workforce in research.

The European political agenda has recently, to a large extent, been dominated by concerns around the loss of scientists from the EU (in particular Germany, France, Italy, and the United Kingdom) to the United States. In a study taking place in UK, comparison with previous years suggests that turnover has grown substantially; between 1994-95 and 1998-99 turnover ranged between 2.8 per cent and 5.3 per cent p.a. (PREST, 2000, using HESA data). Further evidence of a growth in turnover comes from the findings of the Independent Review of Higher Education Pay and Conditions, which, using a survey approach, put the turnover rate for academic staff in 1998 at 6.4 per cent. The present trends in this area indicate future problems in recruiting and sustaining the critical mass needed for further research training and career (Enders & Weert, 2004). This relatively humble number of researchers in the EU poses a serious threat for European R&D in the future.

Apart from rest of Europe, scarcity of scientific staff is observed in Netherlands also in past few years (Ficher & Lohner, 2007; Huisman, Weert

& Bartelse, 2002). To guarantee scientific output (i.e., research and teaching) in the future, it is important to retain researchers in science. Some other recent reports in the United Kingdom (UK) and the Netherlands warn that recruitment and retention of academic staff is worsening by the year, and that the number of students pursuing the doctorate is decreasing (Tan & Meijer, 2001).

The problem of academic staff retention is not specific to EU countries alone rather a global one which affects both developing and industrialized countries. The difficulties within for instance the OECD countries are well documented. In the United States, for example, about 7.7% of all full-time academic staff left their institutions for other places within one academic year – from fall 1997 to fall 1998. Of these, only 29% were retirees; the remaining 71% left for a variety of reasons (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2001). A 2000 survey of full-time faculty members in the US showed that more than 40% of them had contemplated changing careers (Sanderson, Phua & Herda, 2000). In Canada, it has been argued that one of the challenges that universities will face over the next decade or so is academic recruitment and retention (Carleton University, 2000). Similarly, it has been suggested that “early in the 21st century there will be a crisis in Australian higher education with an estimated academic labor shortage of 20,000 if this trend is not addressed” (Mathews, 2003, p. 313). 68% of the academic personnel in a study in Australian higher education institutions indicated that they wished to leave higher education (Anderson, Richard & Saha, 2002). This problematic situation is also experienced in South African higher education institutions, since data indicates that a substantial number (between 5% and 18%) of academics leave higher education institutions (Tetty, 2006).

The issue of academic staff attrition and retention in developing countries has been less well documented in the literature. This is because the issue tends to be subsumed under the general category of ‘brain drain’, without particular attention being devoted to it. This subsumption reflects the close relationship between the brain drain and staff retention in many countries. In fact, the triggers identified for brain drain, in general, are identical to those behind academic staff attrition. Thus, the two processes are intimately intertwined, as many highly skilled emigrants tend to be current academics or potential ones. There is evidence that recruitment and retention problems have been growing in prominence in these countries (HEFCE, 2003) and there has been a long-standing concern that the academic sector faces a ‘retirement bulge’, as academics reach retirement. Similar to developed world, demand for academic staff in Higher Education has been increasing and may be expected to continue to increase given the Government’s intention in these countries that participation in Higher Education should increase substantially amongst those aged 18 to 30 years old. As mentioned before, main causes of shortages of academic staff in developing world are related to the emigration of highly skilled persons from developing to developed countries over the past decade. On the one hand, there has been an accelerating demand for skilled labour in developed economies experiencing labour shortages. On the other hand, better wages and employment conditions, better information, recruitment, and cheaper transportation are encouraging skilled labour to seek jobs in developed economies or to leave academia altogether and join other sectors.

The retention of academics should be a strategic priority as it is difficult to replace the knowledge, skills and experience of academic staff (Simmons, 2002). These skills are only acquired over a long period of time and are accompanied by extensive experience. Recently the world has started

to change, and so must higher education institutions if they are to survive (Gilbert, 2000).

1.2 Main causes of lower academic retention rates

In 1996, the results of an international survey of academic professions which was carried out using data from 14 countries reported that significant changes had taken place in higher education (Altbach, 1996). For example, academics now face demands for greater accountability, value for money, efficiency and quality, and an increase in remote and autocratic management styles. Studies among staff at higher education institutions in the United Kingdom showed the most significant stressors as new management styles, unmanageable workload, too much administrative paper work, lack of information, change in conditions of service, lack of administrative support (Earley, 1994), inadequate resources, uncaring organization, inadequate salary (Daniels & Guppy, 1994), lack of opportunities for promotion, ineffective organizational communication and a rushed pace of work (Jackson & Hayday, 1997; Kinman, 1996). Following sections elaborate on some of the major issues point wise:

1.2.1 Poor working conditions

One explanation for the relative decline in the number of researchers since 1994 given in literature is that the employment conditions are considered less favorable compared to other employment sectors and fewer young people aspire to a research career (Weert, 2001). A study report in Netherlands suggests that poor working conditions such as research infrastructure, poor career prospects both in the private sector and in the public sector with no innovation and investment in R&D on one hand and

very few vacant places in state laboratories and universities on the other and poor social security benefits stimulate academic researchers to quit academia and move some else where else (Weert, 2001).

1.2.2 Low salaries

Insufficient financial compensation was also identified as problem (Ball, 2004; Pienaar & Bester, 2008; Potgieter, 2002). There is noted to be a pronounced wage differential between the public and private sector jobs. This applies especially to the higher-level positions. It has been estimated that wages in positions requiring an academic degree are seven percent higher in the private sector than in the public sector (Weert, 2001). These salary differences are noticed also within sectors. For example, as pointed out by Weert (2001), medical specialists in large public hospitals earn almost twice as much as their counterparts in academic hospitals. Another research also indicates that the greater possibility for computer scientists and engineering researchers to earn high salaries in the private sector is one of the factors that make it difficult to recruit academic staff (Thewlis, 2003). Salary structures, particularly for research trainees are generally considered to be too low and not 'market based.

Amongst academic rank, in a survey, 71% of Dutch professors expressed satisfaction with their employment while majority of university middle-rank and junior staff, as well as staff at other institutions, considered their income as being too low and showed dissatisfaction with it. Weert (2001) concludes that this factor is quite de motivating for the young entrants and it makes the academic career comparatively unattractive for them. To combat the issue of market based remunerations, some of the technical universities have increased the salaries for trainees or offer allowances and fringe benefits - such as computers and other research

facilities, special courses, and extensive opportunities to attend conferences - but does enhancing salaries offer a solution?

1.2.3 Collaborative work arrangements

Collaborative arrangements for doctoral level education are seen increasingly between firms and universities. Different programs are being offered to PhD's which provide them financial support to work on a firm R&D projects in collaboration with universities. Aims of such programs are to increase research carried out in industry, to educate researchers with insight into industrial perspectives on R&D, and to make research an attractive career for people who are not 'normally interested' in a traditional university career (Weert, 2001). Research also shows that as a result of these collaborative PhD programs, doctorate recipients who have obtained funding from private sector companies are more likely to go into private research than seek an academic career compared to those which collect little data or none at all (Weert, 2001). The marked tendency in industrialized countries for doctorate recipients to move into the private sector (in certain scientific disciplines such as engineering sciences) poses the problem for public research systems of recruiting new staff for public research organizations and retention of academic staff against the background of a greying scientific population. Another research shows that doctorate recipients switch between several occupations before settling into stable employment (Recotillet, 2004).

1.2.4 Relationships with supervisors / feedback quantity and quality

Other factors crucial for the PhD candidate/academic in his/her decision to stay committed to the organization and to his career are the quality of the relationship which he/she has with his/her supervisor, supervisor becomes of

fundamental importance because of his key role (Graen & Scandura, 1987). A few studies suggest that academics in the early career stage are dissatisfied with the quantity of feedback regarding career progress and developmental areas that they receive (Barkhuizen, Rothman & Tytherleigh, 2004; Pienaar & Bester, 2008). Respondents also indicated that they would appreciate more support and guidance regarding research and research outputs (Pienaar & Bester, 2008). They want more opportunities to work under the guidance of experienced mentors on research projects. Dissatisfaction of PhD's with the quality and quantity of supervision has been reported to be a major cause of PhD quit rates. Tan and Meijer (2001) explain that the majority of PhD students pay a lot for education and supervision but still most were not satisfied with the supervision styles and relationship quality. The loss of motivated PhD students is not only a bad experience for the students themselves; it is a loss of scientific work and future staff which are desperately needed (Tan & Meijer, 2001). A survey found that 32% of the students said that supervisors did not pay enough time to supervision and 29% did not expect to learn much from them. However, supervisory style and quality is one factor that contributes significantly to student drop out.

1.2.5 Low societal status

The retention of academics is made increasingly difficult because an academic career is probably no longer as desirable and attractive as was previously believed (Pienaar & Bester, 2008). Research done by Anderson *et al.* (2002) among academics in Australian universities confirms this contention, since 79% and 71% of the respondents respectively believe that the image and status of an academic career are declining. Thus on one hand there is not much societal status attached to a PhD unlike countries such as Germany and on the other hand there appears to be a change in people's

attitude towards science and academia thus exacerbating the problem further. The number of young people attracted to careers in science and research is decreasing and the number of women in science at high rank is very low.

1.2.6 Lacking in general skills

The PhD's are trained too narrowly and lack knowledge about employment outside academia. Also added value of being a PhD is nil or even negative in some of cases in Netherlands (Weert, 2004). What does these perceptions of lack of generic skills mean and how it effects the decisions of entrants or early career researchers to choose academia as a career where they perceive lack of employability? The careers where employees do not perceive employability from the organization do not seem to be eye catching for the employees in the face of increased pressure of flexibility upon organization where they no longer offer job security to employees and managing the careers remains employees own responsibility.

1.2.7 Tenure issues

Another cause associated with the lower attractiveness in academia is related to the developments in the nature of contracts from tenured tracks to fixed-term, and part-time appointments. In most European countries universities have placed younger staff in the non tenure-track appointments (Huisman, Weert & Bartles, 2002). This situation makes the career prospects rather uncertain with few possibilities for tenure-track appointments. These limited career prospects within academe have raised questions about the attractiveness of an academic career.

1.2.8 Work overload

Weert (2001) notes that some researchers leave academia and prefer to join private sector also because they want to relieve themselves of the “tensions” associated with academia like the .multi-task requirement of an academic job (teaching, research, and administration ratios). The pressures appear to be particularly higher for women who also are supposed to attain work family balance. Another research also points out that the increasing work load caused by massification of student numbers (Gilbert, 2000), life-long learning and adult learning (Shortlidge, 2003) changes in the market place (Blackmore, 2001) and globalization (Brown, 1999) certainly impact on the well-being of employees at higher education institutions.

1.2.9 Retirement of senior researchers

Another important cause of dearth of academics is the retirement of senior scientists which reinstates the need of attracting and retaining young talent (Dutch Minister of Education, Culture and Sciences, 1995). Thus the aging of the professoriate and the limited career prospects of junior staff and their increasingly lower attractiveness towards academia as a career is making the problem grave. In the last few years the number of vacancies for university places has exceeded the number of candidates, particularly in science and engineering subjects.

1.3 Consequences faced by academia

The above mentioned challenges faced by academia are definitely going to have far reaching consequences on the attitudinal and behavioral intentions of employees. Consequently, the researchers either tend to make a move outside country where they expect better prospects within academia or they decide to leave academia and join industry which also promises better

salaries and working conditions (Weert, 2001). In either case such a population of researchers reflects loss of science to the country and poses retention problems. Weert (2001) further suggests that once the researcher moves away from academia and joins private sector or industry to pursue his career, it gets really difficult to go back, unless an academic profile in terms of research publications patents, participation in conferences and keeps in regular contact with the university is maintained.

1.4 Goal of the present research

Against this background, organizations will continue to lose valuable employees to competitor organizations until academic managers are able to identify and apply appropriate retention strategies that will help in reducing the turnover of key employees. According to Phillips and Connell (2003), it is especially the management responsible for organizations – higher education institutions in this case – who do not pay sufficient attention to this trend. One reason why top management is not addressing this issue sufficiently is that the human resource managers of organizations, underestimate the value and gravity thereof, and the reasons for labour turnover are not correctly identified. Another reason is that the solutions which organizations generate do not always suit the reason for the increased labour turnover. As this dissertation aims to address the issue of retention of academic researchers, commitment with the organization and with the occupation have been predicted to be the strongest indicators of organizational and occupational turnover in past research (Blau & Lunz, 1998; Lee, Carswell & Allen, 2000; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993), therefore commitment is the central topic of this project. Organizational commitment has been viewed to influence a number of organizationally and employee relevant outcomes and has been indicated as greatest determinant of

organizational effectiveness. Higher education institutions– more than any other organizations – are, dependent on the intellectual abilities and commitment of academic staff. In order to function effectively, higher education institutions are, to a large extent, dependent on the commitment of academics (Pienaar & Bester, 2008). Employees that are most committed perform 20 percent better and are 87 percent less likely to resign Lockwood (2006). Commitment to the organization can be seen in terms of social exchange perspective. It seems important to study academic researcher's commitment both with their organization and their occupation to understand the better picture. The study is expected to produce a guide for practitioners and management of universities in determining what initiatives the organization can take to retain its critical employees.

In the light of the above discussion, this dissertation considers how universities' human resourcing policies and practices might affect recruitment and retention in academia by addressing the various 'stressors' identified in section 1.2 from HR perspective. A few studies have reported these 'stressors' being reflected in lower levels of job satisfaction and commitment of academic employees (Kinman & Jones, 2003). We identify a combination of organizational and personality factors that could be considered by human resource managers as important predictors of employee commitment. We expect that these predictors/variables can influence employee commitment and thus play critical role in their decision to leave or stay in the world of science.

Plethora of research at organizational level indicates that HR influences organizational outcomes by shaping employees attitudes and behaviours (Huselid, 1995; Ostroff & Bowen, 2000). The research examines the relative power of various new predictors to determine employee commitment and provides empirical validation of such relationships. For

instance, this dissertation aims to study effects of leadership, organizational and personality factors, and various HR practices that can be specifically employed to affect employee commitment towards organization and occupation. The specific factors consisted of two bundles of organizational variables (leadership and employability) and personality factors (extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, proactive personality and political skills). The outcome of turnover intentions was examined through studying relationship between these predictors and commitment.

1.5 Commitment with the organization and the occupation

Meyer and colleagues, in particular, (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004; Meyer & Hercovitch, 2001; Meyer, Irving & Allen, 1998) have elaborated extensively on commitment, and their conceptualization has dominated the discussions about commitment, largely because of the ease with which their commitment approach can be expanded to several dimensions and foci. Meyer and colleagues operationalize commitment in three basic dimensions: affective (where employees remain in the organization because they *want* to), normative (where a sense of obligation comes – employees feel that they *ought* to remain with the organization), and continuance (where the cost of withdrawal motivates people to do certain things, as not doing them is perceived as having higher costs than continuing to do them - they stay because they feel they *need to* do so).

Despite the evidence of much more research on organizational commitment (Becker, 1960; Cohen, 2007; Meyer & Allen, 1997), other foci of commitment have been increasingly recognized in terms of their importance and have gained some research attention in the recent past.

General introduction

Meyer and Allen's model has not only been used to study the emergence of commitment dimensions, but also to distinguish between different foci of commitment. These foci may include commitment towards the work itself, workgroup, supervisors, occupation, profession, or the union (Becker, 1992; Meyer, Allen & Topolnytsky, 1998; Morrow, 1993). Compared to the other forms of work commitment, there is a paucity of research on occupational commitment (Blau & Lunz, 1998; Cohen, 2003). Occupational commitment is defined as an attachment to and a desire to stay in a current occupation or profession (Meyer *et al.*, 1998).

Understanding the occupational commitment construct is important for several reasons. First, occupations represent a meaningful focus in the lives of many people. This has become increasingly the case as educational levels rise, work becomes more specialized and as employees deal with extensive organizational change. Indeed, Carson and Bedeian (1994) have suggested that coping with the uncertainty associated with changes such as mergers, acquisitions, and layoffs has caused many employees of their working life over which they feel they have more control - their occupation. Given the recent workplace dynamics, including: organizational restructurings, increased employee job insecurity perceptions and contingency workforce growth (Hall & Moss, 1998), several scholars (Johnson, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997) have suggested that employee commitment may be shifting from the organization to one's occupation.

Second, occupational commitment is important because of its potential link to retention—in terms of both occupational and organizational membership. Whether the concern is society's need to retain people in particular occupations or an organization's need to maintain the optimal level of turnover (Colarelli & Bishop, 1990), a link between occupational

commitment and retention would have important human resources management implications.

Third, occupational commitment is important because of its potential links to work performance. Researchers have demonstrated that the development of expertise necessary for consistent high-level performance requires individuals to engage regularly in the relevant activities for long periods of time (Ericsson & Lehmann, 1996). Finally, the occupational commitment construct is important because it contributes to our understanding of how people develop, make sense of, and integrate their multiple work-related commitments, including those that go beyond organizational boundaries (Meyer *et al.*, 1998). Another rationale behind including occupational commitment in the project studies is the particular relevance of this form with respect to the professional group. As noted earlier, most work is done on organizational commitment but especially for professionals the question can be raised if it is the best way to focus on organizational commitment alone given that it is less important for professionals to be attached to the organization: they are more attached to their occupation. As noted in research, the stability of an individual's professional life may shift from organization to occupation (Meyer *et al.*, 1998; Snape & Redman, 2003).

Having said all this, it should be noted that despite the change taking place in the globalized world of today that make it necessary to study occupational commitment, importance of organizational commitment should not be underestimated. The maintenance of employee ORC remains viable organizational goal. Organizations that are downsized still need a core of employees who are committed to the values and goals of the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment thus remains a suitable topic for study in today's rapidly changing world. Unfortunately, however,

the models of ORC and OCC have generally been studied separately (Irving, Coleman & Cooper, 1997; Powell & Meyer, 2004; Snape & Redman, 2003) and thus, further research needs to integrate them and to develop a more complete theoretical domain (Lee *et al.*, 2000). The factors highlighted above underline the importance of attention to both organizations and occupations as foci of commitment. We expect that considering both foci of commitment in one study can provide a better overview of different relationships influencing employee attachments to various foci.

Consequently, in this dissertation, the author seeks to address this relative gap in the literature by building on previous research on the antecedents of both foci of commitment and adding “new” variables to the framework. Therefore, while organizational commitment is the main focus of this project, three chapters also study occupational commitment along with organizational commitment, their interrelationships and consequences in terms of turnover. And finally, we must note that this discussion refers only to the relation between occupational commitment and commitment to the organization that is affective in nature.

1.5.1 Extant research on predictors of commitment

Various personal characteristics (such as age, sex, education, marital status, position tenure, organizational tenure, perceived personal competence, ability, salary), role states (such as role conflict, role ambiguity and work overload), job characteristics (such as skill variety, task autonomy, challenge, job scope), leadership style, organizational characteristics (such as organizational size), job satisfaction, pay, work itself and relationships with co workers have been investigated to be the predictors of ORC. Although there is paucity of research studying antecedents of occupational commitment (Blau & Lunz, 1998; Cohen, 2003), a few studies report work

role salience, family supportive activity, organizational development opportunity and career satisfaction to be the antecedents of OCC.

1.6 A brief overview of different predictors and outcomes of organizational and occupational commitment

A few new determinants (i.e. employability, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, dual LMX, proactive personality, self efficacy, satisfaction with HR practices and political skills) are added to the range of antecedents of commitment. Moreover different mechanisms have been examined that could be a possible explanation of the relationships between different predictors of commitment in different models. All chapters proposed and examined models of commitment which explained the relationship between the predictor variables and commitment by highlighting the role played by mediator and/or moderators. Cotton and Tuttle (1986) concluded that it is no longer valuable simply to link up different variables instead, they suggested that "what is needed is research that determines how these links are moderated by other variables" (p. 66). The primary purpose of this study was to propose and test model of organizational and occupational commitment showing its various predictors and outcomes. The determinants were chosen and studied specifically keeping in mind the problem causes of the scarcity of academic researchers worldwide as indicated in section 1.2. of this chapter. Various samples employed for this study incorporated professionals working within academia (and hospital sector for better generalizability of findings) to verify the notion if there are any disputes between organizational and occupational commitment of professionals, how are the two forms of commitment predicted, what are the underlying mechanisms and how do they differ in terms of outcomes. In the sections to follow we highlight the

main features of different chapters and also give an explanation of how study of the chosen predictors of commitment could help solve the problems faced by academia. Overall research question to be addressed in this study can be formulated as follows:

What are the predictors and subsequent outcomes of organizational and occupational commitment of professional employees within academia?

1.6.1 LMX promoter and LMX assistant promoter

One of the causes that earlier career researchers such as PhD's leave academia is their lack of satisfaction with their supervisor specifically in terms of quality and quantity of feedback, as noted in section 1.2.4. Consequently, in the following study PhD's relationship with the two of their supervisors i.e. promoter and assistant promoter was studied and the mechanism through which relationships quality with the two bosses influences PhD's commitment was further highlighted. Literature suggests that subordinates enjoying better quality relationships (LMX) with their supervisors also get more favourable distribution of both personal resources (support and feedback) and organizational resources (research facilities, work place etc.) Therefore, the first "route" that is followed in order to understand and determine organizational commitment, is that of LMX.

1.6.2 Employability

As noted in section 1.2.6 of this chapter the academic career does not appear to be desirable increasingly because the work environment in academia focuses so much on the specific aspects of work that general skills of the employees are not developed thus severely damaging their employability skills. A turbulent career environment on the other hand, requires employees

to adapt to change and actively manage their employability (Fugate, Kinicki & Ashforth, 2004). During last years there is shift in nature of employment relationship where organizations are increasing hirings on short term contracts thus replacing employee commitment and motivation to stay in organizations. When employer can not guarantee long term career path or job security, they can not expect commitment from employees. Increased flexibility of employers coincides with decreasing tenure and job instability for employees. Flexibility is good for business but may be devastating for worker. This process naturally impacts HR practices of organizations in terms of recruitment and selection and T&D and compensation practices etc. HR has been proven to provide competitive advantage to companies. Adjusting successfully to the changing nature of careers and employment relationships requires the key role of HR by introducing employability intervention strategies. The current chapter looks in to this aspect and tries to find if enhancing employability perceptions can relate to ORC of academic researchers and if so through what underlying mechanisms.

1.6.3 Commitment and turnover intentions

Section 1.2.5 highlighted the importance of occupational commitment particularly when professional employees are under consideration, so ignoring commitment with occupation and taking only ORC into consideration does not provide a complete picture. This chapter had three main research objectives: (1) study the relationships of the two forms of commitment with each other. This is important to do because, if the commitment of professionals is shifting from organization to occupation, what consequences it poses for organizations? Are the two forms of commitment like two separate poles apart or are they orthogonal? Can professionals be committed to both at the same time? It is important to

address this question which appears to be controversial till date (2) the study examines the relationships of the two foci of commitment with the two important behavioural outcomes i.e. organizational and occupational turnover intentions (3) the moderating role of the two foci of commitment in the relationship between other focus of commitment and turnover intention.

1.6.4 Proactive personality

From an organization's perspective, PP is a desirable characteristic for employees to possess. Academics are expected to cope, constantly updated and perform excellently in their areas of expertise. Such issues geared up the need for proactive personalities of new academics, whom undoubtedly must be able to adapt themselves to current job demands and high performance work culture. As PP research has progressed, a call has come for researchers to address missing elements in this line of study. Moreover, in examining the antecedents of commitment, environmental rather than dispositional sources are typically considered in most of the past research, despite a surge in research looking at the dispositional sources of other job attitudes (Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002). Beyond demographics, few studies have consistently examined other individual differences such as self efficacy, locus of control and big five personality traits that potentially impact commitment (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Mount & Barrick, 1995) and have been associated with many employee outcomes. However, researchers have shown that the personality traits such as proactive personality (PP) is differentially associated with the Big Five personality traits and positively predicts a number of criterion variables over and above the contribution of the Big Five traits and other relevant predictor variables (Crant, 1995; Crant & Bateman, 2000). This study attempted to fill up this research gap by looking at the relationship between PP and commitment of academic

employees and thus provides both theoretical and practical relevance.

1.6.5 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Sections 1.2.1, 1.2.2 and 1.2.5 of this chapter indicate that the retention of academics is made increasingly difficult because of low salaries, poor working conditions and lower societal status attached to academia. Amongst these points, salary issue has been frequently raised to be the most significant determinant of employee turnover in academia. The fact that an academic career seems to have become less attractive may have far-reaching consequences for higher education institutions and society as a whole, as well as the economy of a country if it is regarded as insignificant and unimportant. If the issue of academic turnover was related only to working conditions, or salary issues the problem would not be world wide; for instance it would not be spread to countries like U.S. where working environment is considered supportive and salaries are high. A recent study suggests that academic career is probably no longer as desirable and attractive as was previously believed (Pienaar & Bester, 2008). Many employees change different occupations before they finally settle down to their final 'destination' – whether that is academia or not. Under this situation, it seems feasible to study the various motivations of employees and see how they are related to their various commitments with the organization and occupation. Thus, we used the framework of intrinsic and extrinsic work motivations to examine commitment of academic employees not only with their organization but also with their occupation. We expect that unless and until employees are committed with their line of work they can not be retained for longer although their organizational commitment might be won through extrinsic rewards but such form of commitment might be short term and employees may leave for other sectors (inter sectoral

mobility) in case they find better opportunities for money else where. On the contrary the research predicts that employees high in their intrinsic motivational orientations will be more committed with their occupations and thus will show much lower intentions to leave their occupations even in the presence of high extrinsic rewards.

1.7 Conceptual research model

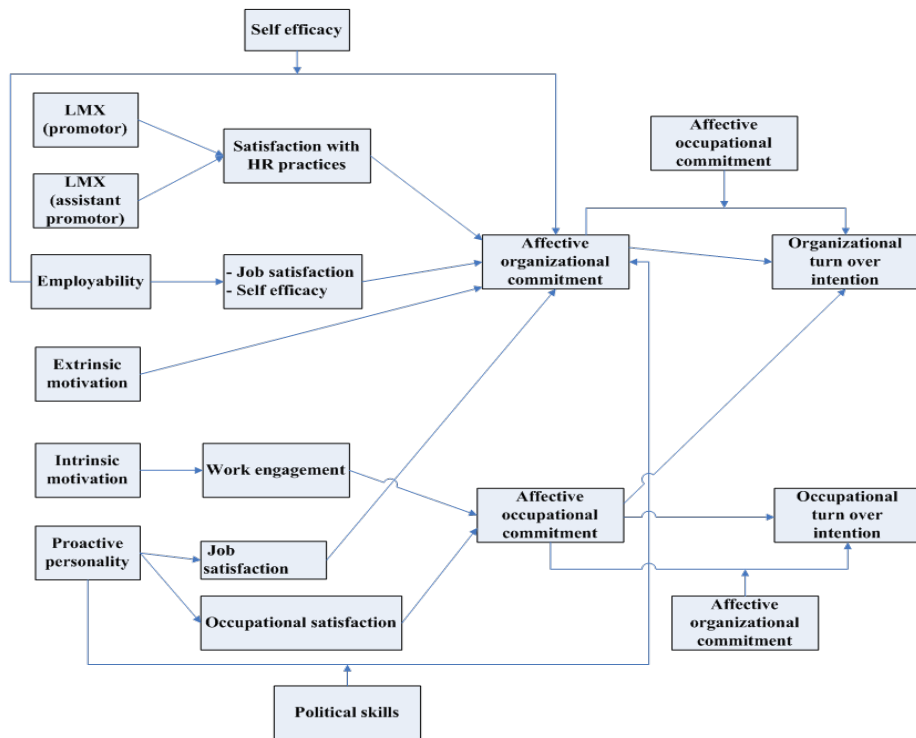


Figure 1.1: Conceptual model showing antecedents and outcomes of employee organizational and occupational commitment

1.8 Operationalization of constructs

All variables in the dissertation were defined; the various definitions are provided in Table 1.1

Table 1.1: Operationalization of constructs

Variables	Definition
LMX	The quality of the relationship between the leader and subordinate (Graen & Scandura, 1987)
Employability	An individual's chance of a job on the internal and/or external labor market (Forrier & Sels, 2003b)
Intrinsic motivation	Engagement in an activity with no apparent reward but for the activity itself (Deci, 1972)
Extrinsic motivation	Doing something because of its association with a separable outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000)
Proactive personality	An individual characteristic that reflects a person's tendency to be minimally hindered by situational constraints and maximally empowered to ensure a positive outcome in whatever environment that person occupies (Bateman & Crant, 1993)
Self efficacy	Beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments (Bandura, 1997)
Political skills	The ability "to exercise formal power with sensitivity to the feelings of others, to know where to concentrate one's energies, to sense what is possible, to organize the necessary alliances" (Mintzberg, 1983;1985)
Work engagement	It refers to a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004)
Job satisfaction	The degree to which people like their jobs (Spector, 1997)
Occupational satisfaction	The overall affective orientation of the individual toward his or her career or work role (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988)
Affective organizational commitment	An employee's emotional attachment to the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990)
Affective occupational	An attachment to and a desire to stay in a current occupation or profession (Meyer, <i>et al.</i> , 1998)

commitment

Organizational turnover intention An employee's decision to leave the organization voluntarily

intention

Occupational turnover intention An employee's decision to leave the occupation

intention

1.9 Outline of the dissertation

In sum, this project aims to understand whether a number of organizational variables such as LMX, satisfaction with HR practices and employability (offered by the organization), and individual factors such as proactive personality, political skills, employee motivation and self efficacy contribute to employee commitment with organization and occupation. At the end of the study we also make an analysis of how the two foci of commitment are related to turnover intentions. The main research questions to be addressed in the different chapters of the dissertation are as follows:

- 1) How is LMX promoter and LMX assistant promoter related to affective organizational commitment of PhD's? Does satisfaction with HR practices mediate this relationship?
- 2) Is employability related to affective organizational commitment of employees? And is the proposed relationship mediated by satisfaction with HR practices? Further, is this relationship intervened by general self efficacy of employees?
- 3) What are the underlying linkages between affective organizational commitment, affective occupational commitment and turnover intentions related to organization and occupation? Which form of commitment is stronger predictor of turnover? Does occupational commitment moderate the organizational commitment and organizational turnover relationship?

- 4) Does proactive personality contribute to the formation of affective organizational and occupational commitment? Can this potential relationship be explained through job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction of employees? Further, do political skills moderate the proposed relationship?
- 5) What are the underlying linkages between motivation and commitment? Does work engagement mediate this relationship?

1.10 Overview of the chapters

A seven chapter dissertation format is employed in this study. Each chapter presents aspects of the contribution of organizational, situational and personal variables as mentioned above to employee commitment. Starting with chapter 1, the researcher included research background, goals of the present research and operations of different construct which were followed by research outline, overview of chapters, data and significance of the study.

Chapter 2 introduces the concept of LMX and satisfaction with HR practices and explains the amount of variance explained by these factors in ORC. Role of supervisors/managers to influence subordinates/employees various attitudes behaviours is well established in literature. However, this research goes beyond previous research on LMX by studying more relevant practical situations of modern day organizations where employees are being supervised by more than one boss. It is highly likely that the subordinates in such situations will have varying quality LMX with each of their supervisors at different hierarchical positions as LMX relationships imply being dyadic, one to one and individualized. Through the current research, we aim to examine such situations. We expect that based on dyadic LMX relationships, employee ORC will differ with each boss. The study provides implications for management of organizations and practitioners by highlighting the

unique role played by each boss in influencing the attitudes of employees/subordinates. Furthermore the study also examines how unique employee relationship with the two bosses is routed through employee satisfaction with HR practices. HR responsibilities are being devolved on supervisors to an increasing extent thus making them highly influential in different HR decisions (Renwick & MacNeil, 2002; Storey, 1992; Thornhill & Saunders, 1998). As a result of this higher degree of supervisory control over various HR practices, we can expect that employees high on LMX perceive HR practices more positively and are thus more satisfied with these HR practices. Satisfaction with HR practices has also been related to positive employee attitudes such as higher ORC. Furthermore in this study we try to explain the relationship between LMX and employees' affective organizational commitment, using the framework of employee satisfaction with Human Resource (HR) practices.

Chapter 3 introduces the concept of employability and identifies the role of job satisfaction and self efficacy as potential intervening variables to influence relationship between employability and ORC. A logical question that follows from the development in changing nature of careers and psychological contract is 'Does employability offered by the organization under the new deal relate to organizational commitment of employees *or* does the contract still remain balanced where employability is reciprocated through organizational commitment *or* employees do not value the rubric of employability as much as to remain committed to the organization in return? In this chapter we make an attempt to study through this controversy through empirical findings and thus try to answer the questions raised in the previous section. Shortly, the study goal is to empirically examine the employability – ORC relationship and identify the framework to explain this relationship.

Chapter 4 provides a good comparison between organizational and occupational commitment of professional employees and the relative degree of the two commitment foci to determine the two types of turnover cognitions. Work force committed not only to the organization but also to the occupation determines turnover intentions of employees and therefore highlight the need to understand the factors responsible for enhancing employee commitment.

Chapter 5 highlights the role of proactive personality and the variance caused by this personality trait on the two forms of commitment i.e. organizational and occupation. In doing so the mediating role of job and occupational satisfaction and that of political skills as moderating variable is identified, using two different studies.

In chapter 6 relationship between employees motivation with organizational and occupational commitment is studied using the framework of work engagement in two different samples. This study is expected to provide valuable contributions to existing theory by (a) providing interesting and useful extension of affective commitment research to occupational affective commitment, (b) exploring the underlying linkages between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on one hand and two important foci of affective commitment - organizational and occupational - on the other hand and (c) using the framework of work engagement to explain the possible linkages between IM and OCC. Work Engagement as being a relatively new construct is also in the phase of development and demands more researches to explore its relationships with other constructs.

Finally, the general discussion (Chapter 7) reflects on the findings and conclusions of the individual studies, elaborates on study limitations and provides directions for future research.

1.11 Research method

Research population: Data was collected to from two countries for the purpose of this dissertation owing to different reasons. *One*, the author wanted to ensure regional balance and diversity of sample population and thus preferred to choose Dutch sample as representative of ‘the problems facing academia in the developed world’. Pakistani sample was chosen on the other hand to represent the position of developing countries. *Second* reason behind choosing the two different countries was owing to the cultural differences in the two countries. Affective commitment is established as playing an important role in individualistic cultures (Randall, 1993). In contrast, collectivist cultures tend to encourage behaviours according to generally accepted norms and obligations designed to maintain social harmony among the in-group members (e.g., the family or friends) (Hofstede, 1997). The selection of two different cultural contexts will help to probe further into such similarities/differences. *Last*, reason behind selection of data from these two countries was ‘relative ease to approach the two countries’.

Sample: The research mainly targeted university sector as the purpose of the dissertation was to study the predictors of commitment within academia. However for better generalizability of results data was also collected from a Pakistani hospital. For some of the studies two different contexts were used for instance for the study on motivation and commitment analysis was done on data from Dutch university in public sector and Pakistani hospital in private sector. For another study on proactive personality and commitment analysis was done on Pakistani university and Pakistani hospital. Thus data from university sector forms combination of public sector universities at the

Netherlands and Pakistan and private sector hospital at Pakistan. This combination of public and private sector samples has also some advantages to offer. The nature and extent of differences between employees and organizations of the public and private sectors has long been a topic of academic debate. The employees in the public and private sector are reported to differ in their motivations and work values, and through current studies we will be able to examine if the relationships between various determinants of organizational and occupational commitment differ amongst the two types of employees. Thus the studies that comprise data from the two sectors make an attempt to critically assess the form and magnitude of the relationships between the different variables and further seek potential convergence with the findings. This 'replication' approach is expected to provide more confidence in the validity of our findings; should results converge for the two samples. This would further help us identify if there are any sector wise or occupation wise differences with respect to the underlying relationships between the two sectors, if the results of the studies across the two samples do not converge. Both samples of employees employed knowledge workers which has its own advantage. Limiting the sample to knowledge work occupations helps to control for a number of variables that are related to the type of work one does (e.g., education, income, and general socioeconomic status), which may confound observed differences (Lyons, Linda, Duxbury & Higgins, 2006).

Data collection: In each case, however, the aim of the study differed therefore each chapter was based on a different dataset. As the project evolved, and results were reported in articles, data from the different organizations were used in different contexts and to compare organizations (see Table 1.2). Data was collected through online versions and chapter

General introduction

versions of questionnaires which were distributed to the target groups within the two sectors. Data was thus collected from two different universities and one hospital.

Table 1.2: Overview of data sources for various chapters

Studies/sector	Dutch university	Dutch university	Pakistani University	Pakistani Hospital
Chapter 2	X			
Chapter 3			X	
Chapter 4		X		
Chapter 5			X	X
Chapter 6		X		X

Analysis: Simple regression and correlation analysis was applied to test various models. Baron and Kenny’s (1986) mediation and moderation conditions were followed to check the mediation and moderation models. Sobel test was used to verify the results. Since data was collected from different faculties/departments with different universities and the hospital across the two countries, intra class correlation was calculated to check if any differences existed at the faculty level and whether multilevel technique needs to be applied. CFA and PCA were also performed for some of the studies.

1.12 Significance of the study

Theoretically this study is expected to contribute to the body of knowledge on the subject of employee organizational and occupational commitment and provide useful insights both for the academics and practitioners. Specifically, from a practical point of view there is a link between commitment and turnover, both of which are of great interest to practitioners. In studying

those linkages we focused not only on the organizational commitment but also highlighted much under researched occupational commitment focus and took the case of professionals to make better comparisons between their commitment foci in terms of antecedents and outcomes. Therefore it was assumed this study would be of interest not only to academic researchers but also to human resource administrators and management of universities.

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2.1 Having Two Bosses; Considering the Relationships between LMX, Satisfaction with HR Practices, and Organizational Commitment

^{2.1} This chapter is a modified version of a paper that has been accepted for publication in *International Journal of Human Resource Management (IJHRM)* as Yousaf, A., Sanders, K., Torka, N. & Ardts, J. A. (2010). Short version of this chapter was also presented in paper form in 6th Dutch HRM conference, at Amsterdam in 2009.

Abstract

The current study went beyond previous research on leader-member exchange (LMX) by examining employees who are supervised by more than one boss. Using data from 122 PhDs from a Dutch university, the current study had three research objectives. First, to examine the effects of PhDs' LMX with both their promoter and their assistant promoter on affective organizational commitment (ORC). Second, to examine the mediating role of satisfaction with HR practices in the two LMX - ORC relationships. Since the promoter as the higher level boss has more influence on different HR practices the third objective was to examine whether the LMX - ORC relationship is stronger for the promoter than for the assistant promoter. The results showed that both promoter LMX and LMX assistant promoter were positively related to PhDs' ORC, and both relationships were fully mediated by PhDs' satisfaction with HR practices. As expected, these effects were significantly stronger for the promoter than for the assistant promoter.

Keywords: Affective organizational commitment; dual bosses; hierarchical organizations; LMX; satisfaction with HR practices.

2.1 Introduction

Despite the plethora of research on the topic of Leader-Member-Exchange (LMX defined as the quality of the relationship between the leader and subordinate; Boies & Howell, 2006; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Mueller & Lee, 2002) and its associated outcomes, the literature does not seem to address many practical situations in which employees are supervised by more than one boss. Organizational hierarchies are increasingly common in almost every organizational setup, where an employee has a direct supervisor (group leader or functional manager) and another boss at a higher level or with a different organizational status such as branch manager (departmental head, project manager, and so on) (Kuprenas, 2002). The simple chain of command, one man-one boss relationship is seldom operational in modern contemporary organizations, except in extremely small organizations (Lawson, 1986; Kuprenas, 2002). The structure of such organizations relies largely on the vertical hierarchy and on the chain of command to define reporting relationships (Anand & Daft, 2007). It is highly likely that the subordinates in such situations will have LMX of varying quality with each of their supervisors at different hierarchical positions as LMX relationships are by implication dyadic, one to one, and individualized.

A few extant studies report how employees develop different levels of loyalties with different constituencies such as senior management, boss, customers and union and that employee commitment with each constituency leads to unique attitudinal and behavioural employee outcomes. A recent study done by Redman and Snape (2005) showed that only employee commitment with senior management could significantly predict employee withdrawal cognitions amongst other constituencies mentioned above.

Furthermore, they found that only commitment to the boss was significantly related to performance ratings. It could thus be extended from this research finding that just as employees demonstrate different levels of loyalties with different organizational anchors leading to unique outcomes associated with each anchor, employee dyadic LMX relationships with each boss could also lead to unique outcomes and call for research attention.

For the purposes of this study we chose one representative employee attitudinal outcome, i.e., employee affective organizational commitment (ORC) because it has frequently been reported to be a key proximal precursor in explaining voluntary turnover intentions (Griffith, Hom & Gaertner, 2000), performance (Mathieu & Zaajac, 1990), organizational effectiveness, absenteeism (Steers, 1977), and extra role behaviour (Katz & Kahn, 1978), and has also been suggested to be related to job satisfaction and job involvement (Steers, 1977). Thus the first aim of the present study was to examine the following: *Is employees' quality of LMX with each of the two bosses related to employees' ORC?*

Extant research suggests that HR responsibilities are being devolved on supervisors to an increasing extent, thus making them highly influential in the implementation of various HR practices on the shop floor (Guest, 1987; Storey, 1992; Thornhill & Saunders, 1998). As a result of this higher degree of supervisory control over various HR practices, we can expect that employees high in LMX perceive HR practices more positively and are thus more satisfied with these HR practices. Satisfaction with HR practices has also been related to positive employee attitudes such as ORC (Kinnie, Hutchinson, Purcell, Rayton & Swart, 2005). Using elements of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), we aimed to find out whether satisfaction with HR practices provides employees with a mechanism to reciprocate high LMX with high ORC. The second research goal of the study was, therefore,

to answer the following: *Does satisfaction of the subordinates with HR practices mediate the LMX – ORC relationships?*

The senior manager, owing to his or her higher organizational status, is entitled to greater formal authority over various HR practices; therefore, s/he is expected to exert a stronger influence on the distribution of tangible organizational resources (among the subordinates) than the junior manager. Owing to the differences in the formal authority and thus influencing power of the two bosses over various HR practices, it is possible that employees' attitudes are determined differently through the two LMX relationships. We aimed to explore such differences in the present study, leading to the following research question: *Are the effects on ORC of the two LMX relationships significantly different?*

We chose PhDs at a Dutch university as our study sample. PhDs (in Dutch: *Assistent in Opleiding (AiO), promovendus, or research assistant*) typically have a fixed-term contract of four years with the university and are entitled to a small salary, health insurance, maternity leave, and pension insurance (Fischer & Lohner, 2001). PhD candidates have offices, are required to show some regular progress, should communicate holiday plans, and receive instruction from their supervisors. Although these research assistants receive training and supervision, they are at the same time expected to contribute to the research output of faculties or research institutes and have teaching obligations up to a maximum of 25 percent of their total working time (Weert, 2001). This implies a hierarchical relationship between PhD candidates and their university, in which they develop a special kind of leader-subordinate relationship with their supervisors, one of whom is called assistant promoter (similar to direct supervisor or group leader in other organizations) and the other one is called

promoter (similar to senior manager or department head in other organizations).

It is important to highlight the role and formal authority of the two PhD's supervisors according to organizational policy. Promoter is normally a full professor (can also be the departmental head or at a senior position) who has the role of principal advisor; the assistant promoter can be a post doc, assistant, or associate professor (Promotiereglement Universiteit 2007; PhD candidate network of the Netherlands 2009; PhD Center Netherlands). The assistant promoter has the formal role of supervising (providing feedback to) the PhD student on a more regular or daily basis, while supervision is done by the promoter on weekly or monthly basis. In the Dutch system the salary structure of the PhD is predetermined and more or less fixed at the beginning of the employment contract. However, formally, the promoter is the central figure in the process with whom the HR decisions regarding aspects of the PhD's work such as supplementary research activities, the PhD's nomination for conferences, research seminars, training courses, workshops, and related career development and training activities largely lay (Promotiereglement Universiteit, 2007; PhD candidate network of the Netherlands 2009; PhD Center Netherlands). Likewise, every thesis has to be approved by a promoter before it can be submitted for defense. Annual progress reports are prepared in cooperation with and signed by the promoter, and extension of the PhD's contract, if needed, is dependent mainly on the recommendation of the promoter as well (Promotiereglement Universiteit, 2007). From the above stated facts, it could be concluded that whereas the assistant promoter is responsible only to supervise the research project of the PhD or making recommendations regarding training courses or attending seminars/conferences, final decisions regarding the research project, training courses or conferences and other HR decisions pertaining to

the PhDs employment rest largely in the hands of the promoter. Thus owing to his/her greater hold over implementation of HR policies on account of being at the higher organizational status at the university compared to the assistant promoter; it is assumed that the PhDs perceive the promoter as the 'more powerful source'.

It is also important to mention here some features of the situation of PhDs in the Netherlands, which also provides the rationale behind the choice of ORC as an important employee attitude. Scarcity of scientific staff has been noted in several European countries, including the Netherlands (Tan & Meijer, 2001). The literature shows higher dropout rates of PhDs during different stages owing to dissatisfaction with their supervisors and poor working conditions (Fischer & Lohner, 2001), leading to the loss of their motivation and commitment and thus resulting in voluntary turnover. The loss of motivated PhD students is not only a bad experience for the students themselves; it is a loss of scientific work and future staff which are desperately needed in the face of depleting academic staff (Tan & Meijer, 2001). A large pool of academic scientists is retiring in the coming years but much less fresh talent is available in the labour pool (Fischer & Lohner, 2001). This makes it necessary for the universities to do their utmost to keep young talent. As noted above, ORC has been reported to be the strong predictor of turnover and many other employee and organizationally relevant outcomes; however, to date, we know little about the ORC of PhDs. In the context of the above discussion, the purpose of this study was to focus on the relative role that key interpersonal relationships in the workplace can play in increasing employees' ORC and explain the link through employees' satisfaction with HR practices.

The first section of the chapter deals with theory relevant to interrelationships between LMX, ORC, and satisfaction with HR practices,

and drawing hypotheses from this. The second section explains the research method and procedures used to test the hypotheses. The third section explains the results (tests of the hypotheses). The discussion and conclusion are in the fourth section; implications, research limitations, and possible future research directions follow in the last two sections.

2.2 Theory and hypotheses

2.2.1 LMX – ORC relationship

As noted above, in this study we focused on ORC, which refers to identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Thus, affectively committed employees remain in the organization because they *want to* do so (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1). Research findings show that leaders differentiate between various subordinates by providing high LMX employees with more challenging, autonomous, and enriching jobs that require use of different sets of skills, entrusting them with whole projects, and delegating responsibilities of greater importance, as compared with their low LMX counterparts (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Following from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960), high LMX employees, in receiving something of value, feel themselves to be more valuable for the organization and thus feel obligated to reciprocate by offering organizationally desired contributions such as commitment (also in line with inducements - contributions theory by March & Simon, 1958). Thus, even though employees might hold the same job title and carry out the same responsibilities, they can experience differential relationships with their supervisor, and exhibit different attitudes accordingly. Many studies give evidence of LMX being positively related to organizational commitment (Brunetto, Farr-Wharton & Shacklock, 2010; Liao, Hu & Chang, 2009;

Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996). Nystrom (1990) examined the quality of the relationship between managers and their bosses and its impact on their organizational commitment, which turned out to be very strong and positive for managers who had high-quality exchange. These research findings on the positive LMX – ORC relationship have gained support from many other study findings (for example, Ansari, Hung & Aafaqi, 2007; Kidd & Smewing, 2001; Kacmar, Carlson & Brymer, 1999; Lee, 2005; Sisson, 1994).

Since PhD candidates are dependent on both their assistant promoter and their promoter for supervision and feedback from the start of the project till the end and regarding other HR matters on their respective promoter, we expected that LMX quality with both the supervisors could determine their ORC. Drawing from the LMX literature, social exchange theory, and norms of reciprocity, this would mean that PhDs who have a quality LMX with their bosses perceive or actually have better access to the organizational resources which are important for their research; they are also expected to receive more timely and quality feedback and can therefore be expected to reciprocate through higher organizational commitment compared with their counterparts lower in LMX relationships. In line with the discussion, our first hypothesis was formulated as follows:

H1: Promoter LMX (a) and assistant promoter LMX (b) are positively related to PhDs' ORC.

2.2.2 Satisfaction with HR practices as a mediating mechanism

In the previous section, using social exchange theory and the extant literature, we aimed to explain the link between LMX and ORC. It remains unclear, however, how these exchange relationships are conceptualized or

how they are facilitated (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Below, we aim to explain the underlying mechanism in the LMX-ORC relationship.

The extant research suggests an increasing role of supervisors and line managers in which they are held responsible for translating organizational policies and strategies into practice and managing human resources (Guest, 1987; Kidd & Smewing, 2001; Storey, 1992; Thornhill & Saunders, 1998). Due to the increased devolution of responsibility, supervisors enact, translate, and communicate the goals of the organization by implementing organizational policies (Guest, 1987). Owing to the influential role of the supervisor, LMX quality has frequently been considered likely to influence employee satisfaction with HR practices, either positively or negatively, depending on the quality of relationship (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Although the idea of some employees being treated better than others seems to violate norms of equality (Kabanoff, 1991; Meindl, 1989), the focus of LMX theory, as noted above, is on the development of differentiated LMX (Scandura, Graen & Novak, 1986). Since this differentiation of subordinates involves unequal distribution of both tangible and intangible resources, it gives rise to differences in their levels of satisfaction with HR practices. It seems quite logical to assume that subordinates who have varying LMX quality with their supervisors will also have different perceptions regarding HR practices and thus different levels of satisfaction with HR practices. Therefore, high LMX employees were expected to be more satisfied with HR practices because of the distribution of resources tilted in their favour. In line with this, the second hypothesis was formulated as follows:

H2: Promoter LMX (a) and assistant promoter LMX (b) are positively related to PhDs' satisfaction with HR practices.

Employee attitudes are formed on the basis of employee perceptions of HR practices implemented by their supervisors (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). These perceptions determine employee satisfaction with HR practices and employees react to them in terms of their attitudes and behaviours (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Hiltrop & Despres, 1994; Kinnie *et al.*, 2005; Ostroff & Bowen, 2000; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Research findings suggest a positive relationship between employee satisfaction with HR practices such as career opportunities, performance appraisal, rewards and recognition, involvement, communication, openness, and work life balance and employee's organizational commitment (Kinnie *et al.*, 2005).

H3: PhDs' satisfaction with HR practices is positively related to their ORC.

Taken together, these findings suggest that although LMX relationships can be pivotal in influencing the ORC of employees, this relationship is not simple and straightforward; rather, it is routed through internalized cognitions of employees' satisfaction with HR practices, and satisfaction with HR practices provides a valuable link in the establishment of this relationship. This means that this relationship is executed through the formation of subordinates' levels of satisfaction with HR practices, depending upon the quality of their LMX with their bosses.

H4: PhDs' satisfaction with HR practices mediates the relationship between (a) promoter LMX - ORC and (b) assistant promoter LMX - ORC.

Higher organizational status normally implies that the senior boss has more power to allocate tangible organizational resources compared with the boss lower in the hierarchy. In various empirical studies relative power

of the two supervisors has been reported to influence employee work outcomes such as their job performance accordingly (Katz & Allen, 1985). Purcell and Hutchinson note that “it is, in HR terms, not just the quality of this LMX relationship but the extent to which first line supervisors are perceived to be the provider of HR practices” (2003, 8). In any organization, employees attend more to those managers who have more influence over technical strategies, resources, rewards, and promotional and staffing decisions (Oldham, 1976). Therefore, we expected the LMX - ORC relationship to be stronger for promoter than assistant promoter since the promoter has the greater formal control and final decision-making power over various HR practices compared with the assistant promoter owing to his or her higher organizational status, as noted above.

H5: The relationship between PhDs’ LMX and ORC is stronger for the promoter than for the assistant promoter.

2.3 Methodology

2.3.1 Study sample and procedure

Data were collected using a population of PhD students at a Dutch university. The university offers education and research in areas ranging from public policy studies and applied physics to biomedical technology. The university had a total of 620 doctoral researchers at the time of the research. However, owing to errors and mutations that were not yet implemented in the contact records of PhD candidates, around 18% of the population could not be invited to participate in this study. Questionnaires were, therefore, sent online to 550 PhDs.

An online questionnaire was developed to measure the different concepts and test the different relationships. An initial draft of the

questionnaire was sent to the PhD experts of the university (board members of the network association of PhDs) for their feedback to ensure the face validity and readability of scale items. Based on their feedback the wording of some of the questions was slightly modified. The invitation containing a link to the online questionnaire was then distributed via e-mail to all departments of the university in the target population using the platform of the PhDs network at the university. To solicit a higher response rate, a reminder e-mail was sent to all PhDs two weeks after the first e-mail. The survey remained open to responses for a period of one month.

Out of the 550 questionnaires, 136 were filled out; and of these, 122 were completely filled out, giving a response rate of 22%. Sixty-six percent of the respondents were male, 11% had children, and 57% were Dutch. The mean age of the respondents was 28 years, with a mean experience of 2.9 years with this university.

2.3.2 Measures

For all items in the questionnaire we used a 5-point scale with anchors of 1= strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree

Affective organizational commitment: Eight items were used to measure affective organizational commitment using the scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) with slight modification. Sample items are “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in the (name of university)” and “This university has a great deal of personal meaning to me”. Cronbach’s α for this scale was 0.84.

Promoter LMX and assistant promoter LMX: A 15-item scale developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998) was used to measure LMX with some change of

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words according to the needs of the study. Sample items are “I like my assistant promoter very much as a person” and “Working with my assistant promoter is very stimulating”. Cronbach's α for this scale was 0.97. To measure promoter LMX, the same scale was used except that the word “assistant promoter” was replaced with “promoter”. Sample items are “I like my promoter very much as a person” and “Working with my promoter is very stimulating”. Cronbach's α for the promoter LMX scale was 0.96

Satisfaction with HR practices: To measure PhDs' satisfaction with HR practices, a comprehensive scale consisting of twenty-eight items was developed by Torcka, 2007 (see Appendix 1). It included items to measure training & development opportunities, job design, task content, working conditions, supervision & feedback, participative HR practices, and facilities to perform research. All these practices are highly significant in the research work of PhDs. In order to investigate the additive effect of all these HR practices on employee attitudes and the relative influences of the two bosses on them all, we created a “Satisfaction with HR practices” index to measure the satisfaction of PhDs with HR practices in total. We created this composite HR index because of strong evidence from the literature that the additive affect of HR practices is more outcomes oriented and reinforcing, and that it better reflects the organization's investments in employees (Delery & Doty, 1996; Youndt, Snell, Dean & Lepak, 1996). The use of additive indices assumes that HR practices are additive in relation to employee outcomes. Moreover, an additive index provides a conservative estimate that may understate the synergies or multiplicative effects of combining practices (Batt, 2002). It assumes that firms may achieve incremental results by investing in some of the practices, but they will achieve more positive results using a full range of HR practices (e.g.

Ichniowski, Kochan, Levine, Olson & Strauss, 1996). Inclusion of all the practices also leads to findings that show a fuller picture. The index was created following the steps given by Doellgast (2008): we first computed the z-scores for all items measuring PhDs' satisfaction with HR practices and then took the average of the z-scores to arrive at the composite HR index. Sample items from this index are "The amount of autonomy and freedom in my work" and "Opportunities to visit conferences". Reliability for this scale was high (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.95$).

Control variables: Various demographic characteristics of the PhDs like age, gender, having children, and experience were controlled for because a significant relationship was found in some studies between demographic characteristics of individuals and their organizational commitment and turnover intentions. For example, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found a positive relationship between age and experience and organizational commitment. Furthermore, since this was an international university with a fair representation of non-Dutch PhDs, we controlled for nationality to account for any cultural background differences.

Since data were collected from individual PhDs within the five different faculties of the university, we computed an interclass correlation coefficient (Bliese, 2000) to check for differences in the ORC of PhDs with respect to their faculty. The intra class correlation for ORC was found to be 0.02, meaning that only two percent of the variance (of ORC) occurred between the different faculties, and 98 percent of the variance was related to the individual level. Since our primary interest was the differences among PhDs, we did not control for faculty in our subsequent regression analyses and did not analyze the results using multi-level analyses techniques.

Testing common method variance: Because all data were self-reported and collected using the same questionnaire during the same period of time, Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) was used to investigate the potential influence of common method variance. All study variables were entered in a principal factor analysis, using varimax rotation, to determine the number of factors necessary to account for the variance in the variables. The results showed four factors (promoter LMX, assistant promoter LMX, ORC, and satisfaction with HR practices) with an "Eigen value" greater than 1, accounting for 77.95 percent of the variance. The largest factor did not account for a majority of the variance, nor was there a general factor that accounted for the majority of the covariance in these variables. This result suggests that common method variance was not of great concern.

2.4 Results

Table 2.1 reports the descriptive statistics, including mean, standard deviation, and inter-correlations, for each measure.

The pattern of correlations between independent variables and ORC shows that both promoter LMX and assistant promoter LMX were moderately and significantly related to ORC of PhDs ($r = .35, p < .01$ and $r = .34, p < .01$, respectively). Also, both predictor variables were moderately related to PhDs' satisfaction with HR practices ($r = .66, p < .01$ and $r = .60, p < .01$, respectively). Nationality was not significantly related to ORC. However, significant differences ($t(120) = -2.09, p < .039$) were observed with respect to quality of LMX of Dutch ($M = 3.2$) and non-Dutch respondents ($M = 3.5$) with their promoter. No significant differences were found, however, between Dutch respondents ($M = 3.3$) and non-Dutch respondents ($M = 3.4$) with respect to assistant promoter LMX ($t(120) = -$

.52, $p = .60$). It was also found that non-Dutch respondents ($M = .16$) showed significantly higher ($t(120) = -2.50, p = .014$) levels of satisfaction with HR practices compared with Dutch respondents ($M = -.12$).

Table 2.1: Means, standard deviations, and correlations of sample (N=122)

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender	1.43	.50								
2. Age (in years)	28	3.1	-.34**							
3. Experience (in years)	2.9	1.4	-.13	.38**						
4. Children	1.89	.32	.05	-.16	-.07					
5. Nationality	1.21	0.45	-.18	.32**	-.23*	-.19*				
6. ORC	2.96	.42	.03	.05	.05	-.09	.01			
7. Promoter LMX	3.34	.99	-.09	.18*	-.03	-.08	.25**	.35**		
8. Assistant promoter LMX	3.4	1.0	.06	.11	-.03	-.16	.15	.34**	.67**	
9. Satisfaction with HR Practices index	.00	.55	.02	-.06	-.09	.23	.03	.35**	.66**	.60**

Notes: **p< 0.01, *p< 0.05 Gender: 1= Male, 2 = Female, Children: 1= Yes, 2 = No, Nationality: 1 = Dutch, 2 = Non Dutch, Affective Organizational Commitment, Promoter LMX, Assistant promoter LMX and satisfaction with HR practices were measured on a Likert scale from 1-5

Another important statistic to be noted in Table 2.1 is the significantly high relationship between LMX promoter and LMX assistant promoter ($r = .67, p < .01$). To rule out the possibility of multi-collinearity among the two LMX's we examined the variance inflation factor (VIF) in the subsequent regression analyses. The largest VIF value was 2.42, which is much lower than the cut-off value of 10 (Chatterjee, Hadi & Price, 2000), thus multi-collinearity did not seem to be a problem. Moreover, as noted in the results of Harman's single factor analysis, LMX promoter and LMX assistant promoter turned out to be loaded on distinct factors.

The results of the regression analyses conducted to test the various hypotheses are presented in Table 2.2. The analyses were run after the demographic variables were controlled for; no significant effects were found (except for a small negative effect of experience on satisfaction with HR practices in one model).

The relationships between the predictor, outcome, and mediators were tested using steps from Baron and Kenny (1986). Step one in Table 2.2 shows the results of the tests of H1a, H1b, and H5. We proposed in H1a and H1b that both promoter LMX and assistant promoter LMX influence PhDs' ORC positively. H5 stated that promoter LMX explains greater variance in PhDs' ORC. We analyzed three models in step 1. In model 1, ORC was regressed on promoter LMX: a positive beta value of .37 ($p < .01$; $R^2 = .14$) was attained. In model 2, ORC was regressed on assistant promoter LMX to find its unique effects. The results showed a beta value of .34 ($p < .01$; $R^2 = .12$). This means that both H1a and H1b were confirmed.

We entered promoter LMX and assistant promoter LMX simultaneously in model 3 to find how they related to ORC when combined and what their relative effects were. The results revealed that, when entered together, only promoter LMX significantly influenced PhDs' ORC, while the

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effects for assistant promoter LMX became insignificant (from $\beta=.25$, $p<.05$ to $\beta =.18$, n.s. respectively; $R^2 = .16$). Model 3 showed the best fit with a higher explained variance. This means that H5 was confirmed, as the effect size for promoter LMX was larger and significant while effect size for assistant promoter LMX, although positive, was both smaller and insignificant.

Table 2.2: Results of Regression analyses (N = 122)

Variables	ORC			Satisfaction with HR practices			ORC			ORC		
	<i>Step 1 (H1 & H5)</i>			<i>Step 2 (H2)</i>			<i>Step 3 (H3)</i>			<i>Step 4 (H4)</i>		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 1	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3		
Gender	0.07	0.01	0.04	0.05	-0.03	0.01	0.02	0.03	0	0.02		
Age	-0.01	0	-0.02	-0.13	-0.16	-0.15	-0.01	-0.03	-0.04	-0.04		
Experience	0.06	0.06	0.06	-0.13	-0.05	-.11*	0.17	0.14	0.16	0.14		
Nationality	-0.06	-0.03	-0.05	0.11	0.22	0.14	-0.06	-0.06	-0.04	-0.05		
Children	-0.07	-0.03	-0.05	0.02	0.09	0.06	-0.08	-0.08	-0.06	-0.06		
Promoter LMX	.37**		.25*	.67**		.45**		0.18		0.13		
Assistant promoter LMX		.34**	0.18		.62**	.32**			0.17	0.11		
Satisfaction with HR practices							.38**	.26*	.28*	.23 [†]		
R ²	0.14	0.12	0.16	0.48	0.44	0.54	0.17	0.19	0.18	0.19		
Adjusted R ²	0.1	0.09	0.11	0.46	0.41	0.51	0.12	0.13	0.13	0.13		
Change in R ²	0.14	0.12	0.04	0.48	0.44	0.1	0.17	0.19	0.18	0.01		
F value	2.90**	2.72**	2.87**	15.51**	12.90**	16.58**	3.31**	3.23**	3.21**	2.96**		

Notes. **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05, [†]p < 0.1, All beta coefficients appearing in the table are standardized.

In step two we tested H2, which stated that both promoter LMX and assistant promoter LMX are related to satisfaction with HR practices. We entered the independent variables in three different models again. This was done in an effort to find unique effects of the quality of PhDs' promoter LMX and assistant promoter LMX on their satisfaction with HR practices. The results indicate that entering promoter LMX in model 1 yielded a positive beta of .67 ($p < .01$; $R^2 = .48$). Model 2 indicates a positive beta of .62 ($p < .01$ $R^2 = .44$) when assistant promoter LMX was entered into the equation independently of promoter LMX. In model 3 we entered both promoter LMX and assistant promoter LMX to show their combined and simultaneous effect on PhDs' satisfaction with HR practices. The results show that both promoter LMX and assistant promoter LMX significantly influenced satisfaction with HR practices ($\beta = .45$, $p < .01$; $\beta = .32$, $p < .01$, respectively; $R^2 = .54$).

Moving on to step 3, we regressed PhDs' ORC on their satisfaction with HR practices to test H3, which predicted a positive relationship between the two. The results showed that satisfaction with HR practices was positively and significantly related to ORC ($\beta = .38$, $p < .01$; $R^2 = .17$), thus confirming H3. Satisfaction with HR practices thus fulfilled the first two conditions for qualification as a mediator variable, according to conditions specified by Baron and Kenny (1986).

Step 4 was performed to test for the mediation of satisfaction with HR practices in the promoter LMX-ORC and in the assistant promoter LMX – ORC relationship, i.e., H4a and H4b. Model 1 of step 4 indicates that satisfaction with HR practices mediates the relationship between promoter LMX and ORC as the beta coefficient for promoter LMX became non-significant (from $\beta = .37$, $p < .01$ to $\beta = .18$, n.s., $R^2 = .19$) while the beta coefficient for satisfaction with HR practices was significant ($\beta = .26$, $p <$

.05). Thus, H4a was confirmed. H4b was also supported as mediation of satisfaction with HR practices was suggested in the relationship between assistant promoter LMX and ORC in model 2 of step 4. The results indicate that the beta coefficient for assistant promoter LMX became non-significant (from $\beta = .34$, $p < .01$ to $\beta = .17$, n.s., $R^2 = .18$) while the beta for satisfaction with HR practices was significant ($\beta = .28$, $p < .05$). As shown in model 3 of step 2, mediation of satisfaction with HR practices was also confirmed when both promoter LMX and assistant promoter LMX were jointly entered in the equation ($\beta = .13$, n.s. $\beta = .11$ n.s. $\beta = .23$, $p < .1$, $R^2 = .19$ for promoter LMX, assistant promoter LMX, and satisfaction with HR, respectively).

2.5 Discussion

This study was aimed at highlighting the effects of differences in effects of LMX on employee outcomes when subordinates have more than one boss. The study was also aimed at explaining the two LMX – ORC relationships using the framework of satisfaction with HR practices. The results of the study were largely supported and bring to light some important conclusions.

The first research result indicated a positive relationship between LMX and the ORC of the employee. This finding is consistent with the findings of previous researches of its kind (for example, Ansari *et al.*, 2007; Brunetto, Farr-Wharton & Shacklock, 2010; Liao *et al.*, 2009). However, the current findings go beyond the existing literature on the LMX – ORC relationship by highlighting the situation of two bosses. We can infer from the results that a high-quality LMX of a PhD with both supervisors (i.e., promoter and assistant promoter) can lead to a higher level of emotional attachment with the organization. However, it was also found that, when entered together, the effects of assistant promoter LMX on PhDs' ORC, although positive, are not significant. Following the already established line

of argumentation, the results suggest that good quality relationships with the boss who has greater authority can lead to a more positive and significant effect on attitudinal outcomes of employees (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). This could be because employees value the authority relationships more, because of their perceptions of greater influence of the senior boss in the hierarchy.

An alternative explanation for these results is possible; that is the varying nature of supervisory assignments of promoter and assistant promoter. Since the assistant promoter or daily supervisor is directly involved only in the task content of the PhD candidate and has a small degree of control over HR activities such as deciding on participation in conferences (the assistant promoter generally has no final decision-making authority), it is possible that the assistant promoter more strongly influences other foci of commitment like task commitment, job commitment, or maybe occupational commitment. What we intend to emphasize here is that, in situations where there is more than one boss, it can be assumed that each boss has a different formal or informal job description and a different degree of influence, and variance in employee outcomes depends on the specific degree of control of each supervisor over the various HR practices and the quality of the employee's relationship with each boss. It is interesting to note that there were no significant differences between the means of promoter LMX and assistant promoter LMX (3.34 and 3.4, respectively), which means that PhDs on average had the same quality relationship with both their bosses. However, there were significant differences in the effects of the two LMXs on employees' satisfaction with HR practices and consequent ORC. This finding further supports our point that even if employees have the same quality relationship with each boss, the two bosses can not be related equally

to employee outcomes – the line of reasoning is their formal role and authority and employees' perceptions of the same (in line with H5).

The second research result shows a positive link between both LMXs and the subordinates' satisfaction with HR practices, which are also in line with previous research findings (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). Likewise, the third research result shows a positive relationship between satisfaction with HR practices and ORC. We came across only a few studies in which this relationship was examined (for example, Kinnie, Hutchinson, Purcell, Rayton & Swart, 2005), and our findings are consistent with theirs for this relationship. Therefore, the present research provides additional evidence to the literature by considering the relationship between employees' satisfaction with a large pool of HR practices and ORC.

In the test of Hypothesis 4, the present research goes a step further in providing a mechanism and logical explanation for the LMX-ORC relationship. The findings of the test of the mediation of satisfaction with HR practices suggest that PhDs' LMX with both the promoter and the assistant promoter translates into higher ORC with the university, and this process is routed through their satisfaction with HR practices, over which the two bosses have a relative degree of control. PhDs' satisfaction with HR practices is important for the achievement of their outcomes because these practices directly affect or determine their ultimate goal through their effect on the quality of their research and skills (in the form of the PhD thesis or number of publications in reputed journals, and so on). The results show that PhDs who have a better quality LMX with their bosses feel in a relatively advantageous position when it comes to the distribution of resources and, therefore, are more satisfied with the HR practices of the university; thus, they tend to reciprocate with a higher ORC with the university. Research evidence suggests many a studies that reflect LMX as a mediator in the

relationship between various predictors and organizational commitment (e.g. Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). However, we hardly found any study that examines the mechanism underlying LMX- ORC relationship. One recent study however, examined the effects of LMX on ORC and showed employee morale to mediate the relationship (Brunetto, Farr-Wharton & Shacklock, 2010). This study therefore adds to the literature by providing an explanation as to how LMX-ORC relationship might be executed.

It can be seen in step 1 of Model 3, Table 2.2, that when both promoter LMX and assistant promoter LMX are entered into the equation, assistant promoter LMX becomes insignificant. This may suggest mediation of assistant promoter LMX in the promoter LMX - ORC relationship. It possibly reflects that the higher boss is powerful enough to influence the LMX - ORC relationship between the subordinate and the boss with lower authority.

2.6 Implications

When aiming to influence employee attitudes (which have been reported to translate directly into employee behaviours and then influence both employee and organizational performance), the management of any organization might do well to consider that not all employer-employee relationships affect employee outcomes alike in triadic situations. Owing to the subtle processes involved in the chain, mechanisms may be altogether different for the two kinds of relationships. No two bosses can affect their subordinates' attitudes similarly because they have varying influencing power, as also perceived by the employee. Moreover, two bosses affect employees' satisfaction with HR practices differently owing to the differences in their relative power to influence various HR practices as

perceived by employees. The LMX quality, especially with the higher boss, may lead to more variance in employee outcomes. The results have implications for enhancing employee commitment through interventions aimed at enhancing the quality of LMX. This means that enhancing work-related interaction through coaching or delegation can result in higher-level employee outcomes owing to greater levels of satisfaction with HR practices. After all,

2.7 Limitations and suggestions for future research

The study had some limiting factors. Owing to the unavailability of updated contact records of PhD candidates within the PhD network at the university, not every PhD candidate could be asked to complete the questionnaire, resulting in a relatively small response rate. As in most research in the social sciences, another important limitation of this research was the use of a cross-sectional approach. This type of paradigm makes the causality ambiguous, which is unlikely to happen if a longitudinal approach is used. A longitudinal approach is more advantageous because data collection is done from the same sample but at regular intervals, leading to more unambiguous and dependable causality. Future research could be directed towards longitudinal analyses to establish this causality, or to establish reverse causality, if any. Collection of data from a single university can be considered another limitation of this study. The scope of future research could be increased to enhance the generalizability. Although, multi- colinearity statistic and principal factor analysis did not suggest presence of multi- colinearity between LMX promoter and LMX assistant promoter, the concern can not be completely ruled out and might be considered as a limitation of this study. Alike, although Harman's one-factor model did not indicate the presence of common method variance, the possibility of potential bias due to a single

data source can not be ruled out completely. Data from multiple sources could have greatly strengthened the results, thus providing direction for future research.

Its limitations aside, we believe that the current study findings provide insight allowing for an interesting extension in the LMX literature, thus enabling some suggestions to be made for future research. The topic is relatively new and there appears to be a lot of margin for future research in this area.

Results showed that mean LMX promoter and LMX assistant promoter were considerably high with no significant differences between them (3.3 and 3.4 respectively). On one hand this result strengthens our line that despite similar LMX relationship with the two bosses, the senior manager influences PhD's ORC more strongly owing to his/her higher organizational status and influence over HR practices but on the other hand this result also provides direct for future research. To overcome this homogeneity in the sample, it would be interesting to divide the data between respondents with low and high LMX, and to look at the link with commitment in this context. This would help to really clarify the relationship further.

This study was set in the midst of the Dutch PhD labour arena, where PhDs' status in the organization is that of employee, contrary to that of student in many other countries, which probably limits the possibilities for generalizing the findings to other PhD labour arenas. It would be interesting to replicate this kind of research in other contexts.

In this study the differences in influences were based on different policy documents and were used as an assumption in the theoretical elaboration. If future researchers measure employee perceptions of the power sources relating to the two bosses, it could lead to interesting findings

and explanations of the underlying mechanism. Also inclusion of other behavioural and performance outcomes in the investigation of dual LMX relationships could lead to further understanding.

2.8 Concluding remarks

Findings of the current chapter provide important insights for the management of organizations (not only within universities) because similar triadic relationships are common: employees have a hierarchical supervisor and a project supervisor / leader. This type of triadic relationships is becoming increasingly common, as more and more companies organize their work in projects with a fixed goal and time frame. Our conclusions from the current analyses appear to match the cognitive thinking and evaluations of employees who can draw a great deal of ORC from their senior managers. Previous study reports indicate that LMX positively influences many employee outcomes, including organizational commitment, but we draw the conclusion from the current findings that not all LMX relationships have the potential to significantly alter all employee outcomes. Rather it depends, among other things, on the relative degree of control of each supervisor over various HR practices, the hierarchical status of each supervisor, and the quality of LMX of the employee with each supervisor. The findings show that LMX relationships and their influences may not be as simple as has been reported in the past, because employees often report to two bosses in contemporary complex organizational structures.

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***^{13.1}Employability and Organizational Commitment:
The Role of Job Satisfaction and Self-Efficacy as
Intervening Variables***

^{3.1} This chapter is a modified version of the manuscript Yousaf, A., & Sanders, K. (under review in IJHRM).

Abstract

The current chapter examined the potential role of job satisfaction as mediator and that of self efficacy (SE) both as a mediator and moderator in the expected relationship between employability and affective organizational commitment (ORC). Data were collected from 230 academic staff at a public university in Pakistan. Findings of the study supported our hypotheses as (1) employability was positively related to employees' affective organizational commitment, (2) job satisfaction and SE mediated the employability – ORC relationship and lastly (3), SE strengthened the relationship between employability and ORC in such a way that the relationship was stronger for the employees high on SE compared to the employees having low levels of SE.

Keywords: Employability, affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, self efficacy.

3.1 Introduction

The concept of employability emerged through the 1990s and since then it has generated great interest in the academic literature (Baruch, 2001; Forrier & Sels, 2003a, b; Garavan, 1999; Hall, 2004). Employability is generally understood as “an individual’s chance (perceptions) of another job on the internal and/or external labour market” (Forrier & Sels, 2003, p. 106). Thus, an individual with high perceptions of employability believes that it is easy to maintain current employment or acquire new employment within or outside the organization. Owing to the types of changes taking place in the labour market which include deteriorating job security (De Witte, 2005), increased flexibility (Sundin & Wikman, 2004), and the trend toward greater individualization (Allvin, 2004); employability is no longer considered important only for those who are deprived and unemployed, but it is considered important for the entire population including employed individuals.

Recognizing the bulging importance of the concept of employability and its relevance to the changes taking place around the globe, increasingly more research attention has been called for to better understand the concept and its origins (Berntson, Naswall & Sverke, 2008). It has been noted that a clearer investigation of the concept requires a better understanding of its determinants and consequences (Berntson *et al.*, 2008; Nauta, Van Vianen, van der Heijden, Van Dam & Willemsen, 2009) as well as the mechanisms explaining these relationships. Consequently, the current research is an attempt to examine affective organizational commitment (ORC) as a potential outcome of employability perceptions of employees.

ORC refers to an employee’s emotional attachment to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Thus affectively committed employees remain in the organization because they *want to* do so (Allen & Meyer,

1990, p. 1). It is important to study ORC because it has been indicated to be a key proximal precursor in explaining a number of organizationally relevant outcomes such as voluntary turnover intentions (Mathieu & Zaajac, 1990), organizational citizenship behaviour, organizational effectiveness, reduced absenteeism (Cohen, 2003; Cohen, 2006; Steers, 1977), competitiveness and extra role behaviour (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Therefore, having committed employees tend to be beneficial for the organizations. The outcomes of commitment also help explain why there has been so much emphasis on understanding the antecedents and predictors of commitment more fully (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002). In the current study we particularly focus on the affective dimension of organizational commitment because it has been reported to be more strongly associated with outcomes when compared to other forms of organizational commitment such as continuance and normative (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002).

Although only a few studies examined the relationship between employability (orientation) and ORC (Camps & Majocchi, 2010; Van Dam, 2004), a comprehensive research studying the direct relationship between the two constructs severely lacks. Consequently, the first study goal is to empirically probe in to the employability – ORC relationship. Using the framework of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) we expect that employees reciprocate organizational efforts towards enhancing individual's employability through enhanced commitment.

As the next goal of this chapter, we provide a framework that underpins the relationship between employability and affective commitment by identifying the role of job satisfaction as potential mediator in this relationship. Job satisfaction is the degree to which people like their jobs (Spector, 1997). Since employable individuals are reported to be more likely

to leave if they are not satisfied with their existing working situation (Pfeffer, 1998), job satisfaction appears to play an important role in the said employability – ORC relationship. This implies that if employability perceptions are low, key human resources are likely to be less committed to the organization in favour of a better situation, owing to their lower consequent job satisfaction.

As employability reflects individuals' beliefs about their possibilities of getting new employment it appears logical to link it to self-efficacy (SE), a concept concerned with the "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). As a last research goal we examine the intervening role of SE in the potential employability – ORC relationship. We expect that increase in employability perceptions results in increased SE of employees and thus employees tend to reciprocate through higher ORC. On the other hand we expect that employability – ORC relationship is also moderated by employee's initial level of SE – in this way SE is seen as a *relatively* stable (although changeable) personality trait. Thus we test our expectation that employees that are dispositionally rich in SE benefit more from employability in terms of ORC.

Another important aspect of this study is the fact that it was carried out in a South Asian management perspective. The employability and commitment models have not been tested extensively outside North America. Specifically there exists very little empirical literature on the stated relationships in particular in Pakistan. The present study is an attempt not only to study factors related to commitment but also to gain an insight into the little researched South Asian management perspective. This would be especially true for countries like Pakistan, where jobs are increasingly contract based and employment opportunities are few and far between

(Hyder, 2007). Changes may also be more stressful for individuals employed in the public sector for whom a secure and long-term job has more value than a higher paying one (Cimons, 1996).

3.2 Theory and hypotheses

3.2.1 *Employability and organizational commitment*

What matters most to the knowledgeable employees of today is having the competitive skills required to find work when needed (Waterman, Waterman & Collard, 1994). Employees have to be concerned about their employability, i.e., their perceptions of the ability to find new employment, because they are more and more responsible for their own career development (Fugate, Kinicki & Ashforth, 2004; Kluytmans & Ott, 1999; Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). We assume that these employee perceptions are formed on the basis of employability opportunities offered by the employer. Individual's perceptions of various factors are considered important determinants of his/her subsequent attitudes and behaviours. Training and education offered by the employing organization in the shape of formal company financed development courses (aimed at enhancing general and/or specific skill sets of employees) and informal learning opportunities such as on job training are considered to be the most valuable investments in employee's human capital, and have been reported to bolster employability (Becker, 1993). We assume that these investments enhance employability perceptions of the individual by improving his/her attractiveness to the inside and outside labour market as and when needed. For individuals, being employable is indeed advantageous, beneficial and worthy owing to the turbulent labour markets and under heavy job insecurity conditions.

Having said this, we expect that employees perceiving greater employability will tend to reciprocate the organization through higher levels of organizational commitment. This is due to the fact that, because firms that invest in workers' employability are perceived as caring and fair, employee relationships with this kind of employer are built upon social exchange and norms of reciprocity (Blau, 1964). Participants in a relationship desire, among other aspects, reciprocity – a moral obligation to give something in return for something received (Smith-Ring & Van de Ven, 1992). Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986) explain that perceptions of organizational support among workers contribute to the subsequent development of affective commitment to the organization and generate feelings of responsibility that are useful when fostering behaviours that contribute to achieving organizational goals. Employability can be seen as an aspect of such forms of organizational support. This means that workers who feel that they have been helped by their organization are expected to reciprocate by displaying greater sense of emotional attachment towards the organization. This is also in line with Aristotle's view of equality in exchange as a matter of commutative justice, so that neither party is enriched at the other's expense (Gundlach & Murphy, 1993). We can develop the following hypothesis:

H1: Employability is positively related to affective organizational commitment.

3.2.2 Job satisfaction as a mediator

In the section to follow we explain the employability and affective commitment relationship through job satisfaction. It is expected that being employable means that the individual has the possibility of changing work

environments both within the current organizations (which refer to internal employability) and also outside their working environment in the labour market (external employability) which allows the employee to be less exposed to poor working conditions thus giving him more satisfaction with aspects of his/her job. We expect that individuals who perceive themselves to be employable will also perceive a situation as less threatening and consequently experience greater job satisfaction. Amongst few studies on the consequences of employability, we found one recent empirical study suggesting (and finding) the positive relationship between employability and job satisfaction (Gamboa, Gracia, Ripoll & Peiro, 2009). Strong evidence exists that job satisfaction positively affects ORC (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Currivan, 1999; Curry, Wakefield, Price & Mueller, 1986; Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986; Johnston, Parasuraman, Charles & William, 1990; Matzler & Renzl, 2007; Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

Taken together, the above discussion is suggestive of possible explanatory link of job satisfaction in the relationship between employability perceptions and ORC. This leads us to the development of following hypothesis:

H2: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between employability and affective organizational commitment.

3.2.3 Self efficacy as an intervening variable

Self-efficacy represents “individual’s perception of their ability to perform across a variety of situations and encompasses individuals judgments of their capabilities to handle events in their lives and deal successfully with life’s challenges” (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998, p. 170). Research shows that SE is a dynamic construct that changes over time and in response to new

experiences and information. One important source of these experiences and information that has been found to be especially effective in changing self-efficacy is the information and experience one acquires through training provided by the organization (Saks, 1995). There is indeed empirical evidence to suggest that employability-enhancing activities, such as education and training, are predictive of self-efficacy (Creed, Bloxsome & Johnston, 2001). Another study conducted by Nauta *et al.* (2009) suggested a positive relationship between role breadth self efficacy and employability orientation. Where high levels of employability reflect one's ability to solve specific work-related problems and handle difficult situations; thus, it can be expected that employability could lead to strengthening of efficacy beliefs (Fugate *et al.*, 2004). Although, self efficacy has been mostly studied in terms of its effects on performance and other behavioural outcomes, a few studies also link it to attitudinal outcomes. For instance, a study conducted by Staples, Hulland and Higgins (1999) found its positive association with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Their study findings suggest that self efficacy can be used to predict attitudes additional to behaviours. They further suggested retaining organizational commitment in the studies pertaining to outcomes of self efficacy.

The mediator function of SE links the employability perceptions to ORC. If an individual believes s/he has higher chances of employment security in the labour market, it appears to be beneficial for her/his generalized SE as s/he might feel sense of mastery. Employability provides mastery experiences and thus leads to higher degree of generalized SE since expectations about self-efficacy are directly related to people's perceptions of their success in dealing with past situations and about their expectations of future success. Furthermore, it can be assumed that individuals tend to reciprocate the increase in SE through higher ORC. Commitment has been

shown to be influenced by self-efficacy in a few studies (Staples *et al.*, 1999; Tracey, Hinkin, Tannenbaum & Mathieu, 2001).

H3: Self efficacy mediates the relationship between employability and affective organizational commitment.

Additionally SE can be examined as a stable personality trait. A few studies report SE to moderate main effects such as relationship between work stressors and organizational commitment in extant research. According to the moderator model, the relation between employability and ORC should be a function of the level of SE. Self-efficacy has been reported to support personal adaptability which has been reported to be a sub dimension of employability. People who possess adaptable attributes are expected to interact with uncertain environments more effectively than those who are more rigid (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Chan, 2000). It has been reported to exert a positive influence on one's perceptions in the face of uncertainty (Fugate *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, because self efficacy influences perceptions and behaviours across situations, higher levels of self efficacy can be expected to strengthen the employability – ORC relationship.

Self efficacy has also been reported to be important to facilitate the identification and realization of career opportunities. Therefore individuals with higher self efficacy are more adaptable and an employee's ability to realize opportunities in the marketplace is greatly influenced by his or her efficacy beliefs. On the other hand low efficacious individuals may tend to give up due to lack of trust in their abilities and thus employability – ORC relationship be weaker for them. This leads us to the following hypothesis:

H4: Self efficacy strengthens the relationship between employability and organizational commitment.

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 Sample and procedure

^{3.2}The sample constituted academic employees at a large Pakistani university located in public sector. Using random sampling approach, 750 chapter and pencil versions of the questionnaire were distributed through interoffice mail in sealed envelope addressing the employee directly. A reminder mail was sent after two weeks so as to solicit a higher response rate. 230 of the employees responded making a response rate of 31%. The sample was distributed as follows: 56 % of the respondents were males. 46% was less than 40 years of age, 57% single, and 49% had an experience of less than 10 years at the hospital.

3.3.2 Measures

Employability: A five item scale developed by Berntson and Marklund (2007) was used to measure employability. Example item include “My competence is sought-after in the labour market”.

Affective organizational commitment: An eight item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) was used to measure affective organizational commitment scale with slight modification of words. Example item includes “I consider problems of the university (name of the university) as my own”

^{3.2} We are thankful to Professor Dr. Tariq Mehmood who helped us in data collection for this sample.

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Job Satisfaction: A six item scale developed by Curry *et al.* (1986) was used to measure job satisfaction. Example item includes “I feel fairly well satisfied with my job”.

General self efficacy: An eight item scale developed by Maurer and Pierce (1998) was used to measure general SE. Example item includes “I often feel that I can do almost everything well”.

Control variables: Age, gender, marital status and experience (tenure in the organization) were used as controls as they are generally considered important controls in both the employability and commitment literature (Berntson *et al.*, 2008; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Controls were coded as follows: Males were assigned 1 and females 2; employees < 40 were assigned 1 while those above 40 were measured by 2; single respondents were categorized as 1 and married as 2; employees having less than 10 years experience at the current organization were categorized as 1 and the remaining 2.

Since data was collected from four faculties of this university at individual level, we computed interclass correlation coefficient (Bliese, 2000) to check for differences in ORC of employees with respect to their faculty. The intra class correlation for ORC was found 0.11 meaning that eleven percent of the variance (of ORC) occurs between the different departments, and 89 percent of the variance is related to the individual level. This means that a reasonable amount of variance is explained at the faculty level in the employee outcomes; therefore we analyzed our data by means of multi level modelling as well which showed no significant differences from individual level analyses. Therefore, we restricted our results and discussion

to the individual level alone because purpose of this research was mainly to study employee-to-employee differences.

To test for moderated relationships, commitment was regressed on the independent variables and the cross-product or interaction of these variables. In order to minimize multi-collinearity, scores for the independent variable (employability) and moderated variable (SE) were centred at the mean as recommended by Aiken and West (1991).

Common method variance: Since all data are self-reported and collected through the same questionnaire during the same period of time Harman's one factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) was used to investigate the potential influence of common method variance. Results of principal factor analysis, using varimax rotation, showed that neither the first (largest) factor accounted for a majority of the variance (26.5%), nor was there a general factor that accounted for the majority of the covariance in these variables. The total variance explained for all measures (i.e. self efficacy, employability, job satisfaction and organizational commitment) was 80.5%. The results suggested absence of common method variance for the sample.

3.4 Results

Table 3.1 reports the descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, Cronbach alpha and inter-correlations between the different measures. Amongst different demographic variables, only sex was found to be positively related to employability, SE and ORC ($r = .16, p < .05, r = .16, p < .05, r = .15, p < .05$ respectively). Employability, SE and job satisfaction were also positively related to ORC ($r = .19, p < .01, r = .19, p < .01, r = .39, p < .01$ respectively). Perceived employability was positively related to SE and job satisfaction ($r = .38, p < .01, r = .24, p < .01$ respectively).

Table 3.2 reports results of regression analysis done to test the different hypotheses of this study. No significant relationships were found between any of the control variables and the model outcomes. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a series of three-regression equations should be estimated to test whether there is a mediating effect of job satisfaction and SE in the expected relationship between employability and ORC. In the first two models, the mediators (job satisfaction and SE) are individually regressed on the independent variable (employability). Results in model 1 indicate that employability was significantly related to job satisfaction and SE ($\beta=.24$, $p < .01$; $\beta=.32$, $p < .01$). Thus, the relationship between the independent variable and the mediators has been established. Second, the dependent variable (ORC) is related to the independent variable (employability). The results in model 3 (which also relates to test of H1) of Table 3.2 showed positive and significant relationship between employability and ORC ($\beta = .17$, $p < .01$). This means that H1 can be confirmed.

Third mediation condition relates to the regression of dependent variable on both the independent variable and the mediators. In order for mediation to be established, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable diminishes or eliminates while that of mediator variable remains significant thus suggesting partial or full mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Table 3.1: Means, standard deviations, reliabilities and intercorrelations between variables (N=230)

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Sex	1.44	.49								
2. Age	1.46	.50	.09							
3. Marital status	1.43	.50	-.13*	.02						
4. Experience	1.51	.50	.02	.31**	.06					
5. Employability	3.70	.85	.16*	-.01	.00	.05	(0.88)			
6. Self efficacy	3.9	.68	.16*	-.06	-.06	-.03	.38**	(0.88)		
7. Job satisfaction	3.69	.64	.09	.07	-.06	.03	.24**	.25**	(0.78)	
8. ORC	3.03	.84	.15*	.06	.02	-.07	.19**	.19**	.39**	(0.81)

Notes: **p<.01, *p<.05, Sex: 1 = Male, 2 = female; Age: 1 = less than 40, 2 = more than 40 years; Marital status: 1 = Single, 2 = Married; Experience: 1 = less than 10 years, 2 = more than 10 years.

We tested our expectation that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between employability and ORC in model 4. Results show that effects of employability on ORC are no more significant when job satisfaction is entered in the equation ($\beta = .08$, n.s.), while job satisfaction shows significant positive relationship with ORC ($\beta = .37$, $p < .01$). These results indicate mediation of job satisfaction in the employability – ORC relationship. The Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) was also conducted to verify whether job satisfaction was a significant mediator of the relationship. The Sobel test also confirmed that the link between employability and ORC was mediated by job satisfaction ($z = 3.40$, $p < .01$). Thus H2 could be confirmed.

In model 5 we tested H3 which related to mediation of SE in the employability – ORC relationship. Here again results supported our expectation as the effects of employability on ORC are no more significant when SE is entered in the equation ($\beta = .13$, n.s.). Self efficacy shows significant positive relationship with ORC ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$). These results indicate mediation of SE in the employability – ORC relationship. The Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) was also conducted to verify whether SE was a significant mediator of the relationship. The Sobel test also confirmed that the link between employability and ORC was mediated by SE ($z = 1.98$, $p < .05$). Thus H3 could also be confirmed.

Table 3.2: Results of regression analyses (N=230)

Variables	Job satisfaction	SE	Affective organizational commitment				
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3 (H1)	Model 4 (H2)	Model 5 (H3)	Model 6	Model 7 (H4)
Sex	0.04	0.11	0.12	0.11	0.1	0.1	0.1
Age	0.06	-0.06	0.08	0.06	0.09	0.06	0.1
Marital status	-0.06	-0.04	0.04	0.07	0.05	0.07	0.04
Experience	0	-0.02	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.11
Employability	.24**	.32**	.17**	0.08	0.13	0.07	.16*
Job satisfaction				.37**		.36**	
SE					.14*	0.07	.13 [†]
Employability X SE							.13*
R ²	0.07	0.13	0.06	0.19	0.08	0.19	0.1
F value	3,307**	6,816* *	2,974*	8,579**	3,163**	7,517**	3,343**

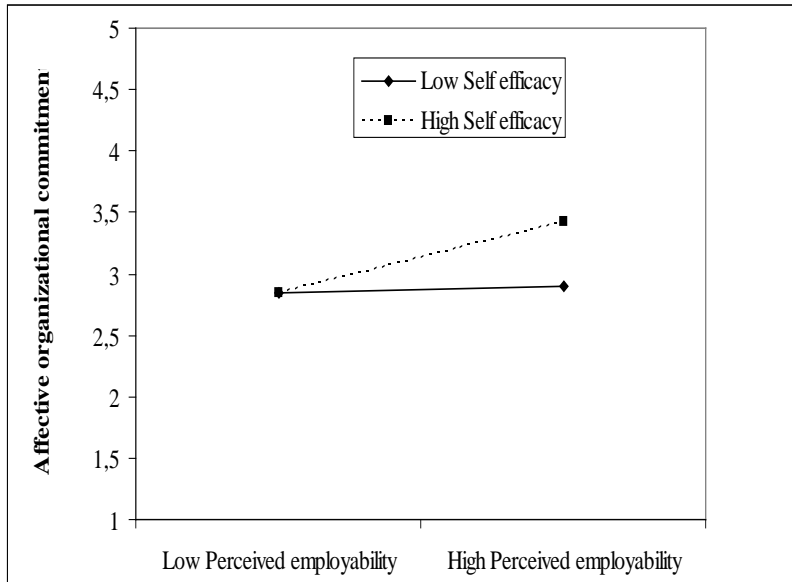
Notes. **p<.01, *p<.05, [†]p<.10, All beta coefficients are standardized.

In model 6, both job satisfaction and self efficacy were entered along with employability to determine which of the two is more significant in mediating in the employability – ORC relationship. Results show that both employability and self efficacy became non significant ($\beta = .07$, n.s.; $\beta = .07$, n.s.) while the effects of job satisfaction were strong and significant ($\beta = .36$, $p < .01$). This suggests that SE mediates the relationship between employability and job satisfaction.

H4 related to the moderation of SE in the relationship between employability and ORC. Model 7 of table 3.2 shows that ORC was regressed on employability, SE and the interaction term of employability and SE. Results showed that interaction of employability and SE was significantly related to ORC ($\beta = .13$, $p < .05$). We plotted the interaction to examine its nature and form more closely. Figure 3.1 demonstrates the results. Self efficacy enhanced the positive effects of employability on ORC in such a way that the positive effects of employability are more functional for individuals high in SE than they are for those low in SE. Thus H4 can be confirmed.

Although not hypothesized in the study, we checked for moderation of SE in the relationship between employability and job satisfaction with no significant effects. Moreover, we also checked for moderation of job satisfaction in the employability – ORC relationship but results did not support any such possibility.

Figure 3.1: Two-way interaction between self efficacy and employability on affective organizational commitment



3.5 Discussion and conclusions

In this study, we examined the relationship of employability and employee affective commitment towards organization. In doing so, we tried to put forth a mechanism by which the relationship between employability and ORC is executed by studying the roles of job satisfaction. Further, the intervening role of SE both as a mediator and moderator was argued examined in the employability – ORC relationship. Employability was measured through employees own perceptions of their chances of retaining employment in existing organization or retaining new employment at some outside organization in the time of need. It was assumed that employability perceptions depend on the organizational policies regarding investments in human capital of its employees, the employability perceptions being more

positive with increases in organizational investments and vice versa. The study findings supported our hypotheses. In the following section we discuss the various results.

Our first study expectation related to the positive relationship between employability and ORC which was supported by empirical results. This result is consistent with past research on employability – ORC relationship (Camps & Majocchi, 2010). In a general way, it has been suggested that perceptions affect physical, emotional, and behavioural outcomes (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Magnusson, 1981). Indeed, it has been argued that people react to and act on situations as they perceive them (McLean, Kidder & Gallagher, 1998; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Thus positive perceptions of employability arouse individual's emotional attachment with the organization as a reciprocation of what they receive. This research finding can be regarded both as important research conclusion and also important contribution to employability – commitment research. This research conclusion could also be viewed as a help to resolve the existing controversy in the extant literature on the relationship between employability and affective commitment with some researchers suggesting a negative relationship (Baruch, 2001) while others are suggestive of a positive relationship (Camps & Majocchi, 2010; Van Dam, 2004).

Our second study hypothesis pertains to the mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationship between employability and ORC. This hypothesis was also supported. Employees take perceptions of their employability positively and tend to be more satisfied with their jobs and thus they tend to reciprocate through higher organizational commitment rather than the other way round. This means that individuals may have high levels of perceived employability but still not necessarily be willing to leave their jobs if they are able to see the value associated with the change

outcome. Thus employability perceptions stimulate positive attitudes in employees by promoting their satisfaction with their jobs. Although there are few studies on the relationship between employability and job satisfaction (Gamboa *et al.*, 2009) and also on the job satisfaction – ORC relationship (Brown and Peterson, 1993), the role of job satisfaction as a mediating mechanism between employability and ORC has not been empirically tested. The current study therefore, provides a useful addition to employability and commitment literature.

Hypothesis 3 examined the mediating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between employability and affective commitment. This hypothesis was also supported. Employability perceptions also influence employee's levels of general SE – when they perceive greater employability they also tend to be more self-efficacious which means that they perceive themselves to be more in command and control of situations. Since they perceive to receive something of value from the organization which enhanced their efficacy perceptions they reciprocate through higher ORC. Although a few studies have explored the relationship between SE and employability (Brandura, 1997) and self-efficacy has also been shown to be positively related to job search behaviour and employment outcomes among unemployed (Kanfer, Wanberg & Kantrowitz, 2001; Moynihan, Roehling, LePine & Boswell, 2003), it has not been used to explain a mediating factor in the kind of relationship studied here. Adding the mediators and employability perceptions together in model 6 however suggest that only job satisfaction significantly mediates the employability – ORC relationship. Thus job satisfaction can be termed as a stronger mediator compared to self efficacy in linking this relationship.

Thus the study identified two frameworks to explain the employability and ORC relation i.e. job satisfaction which is more related to

aspects of job and the other one is SE which is more related to an individual's personality. The study highlights how the employability perceptions can play instrumental role in changing SE perceptions and level of job satisfaction of employees which in turn can lead to their higher emotional attachment with the organization as a way of reciprocity and exchange (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960).

Hypothesis 4 examined the moderating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between employability and affective commitment. This hypothesis was also supported. Different individuals who are in the same situation may interpret their possibilities of retaining existing employment or getting new employment differently (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Magnusson, 1981). Few studies link efficacy beliefs to employability and chances of getting better employment (Kanfer *et al.*, 2001; Moynihan *et al.*, 2003; Pinquart, Juang & Silbereisen, 2003) but the moderating role of the same in the said relationship is not researched before and thus should be considered another contribution of this research. The evidence of moderating and mediating role of SE in the current study identifies it as an important variable that should be considered in examining models of employability.

3.6 Practical implications

The current chapter provides the research field with an empirical investigation of employability's relation to ORC and identifies the mediating and moderating mechanisms. Management of organizations can benefit from the research findings. Enhancing employee organizational commitment has been the ultimate desire of any organization as it has been reported to be a strong predictor of many desirable and organizationally relevant outcomes. The study showed that employability perceptions of employees are actually positively related to their affective commitment; therefore human resource

managers can introduce such strategies such as training initiative aimed at enhancing employability perceptions of employees. The enhanced employability perceptions increase employee's job satisfaction and self efficacy and thus they tend to reciprocate the organization through higher commitment in return. There is also some more for managers to notice that how important role do the self efficacy perceptions of employees play both in linking and in strengthening the employability – ORC relationship.

3.7 Limitations and research perspective

Some limitations must be recognized in the present study. The first limitation of the present study is that it can not prove causality between employability and ORC owing to its cross sectional nature. Although we tested the most plausible directions for the pathways in our model and tried to temper this limitation through attention to theoretical arguments justifying the predicted relationships; longitudinal research is needed to assess the direction of causality of the relationships and to detect possible reciprocal processes. Second limitation of the study appears to be the low response rate which could be attributed to lack of research orientation in Pakistani environment and hesitation of people to take up such questionnaires. Lower response rate can in itself limit the possibility to generalize the results (Magnusson & Bergman, 1990). Third; the questionnaires were completed by employees from a single sector in Pakistan. Specifically, Pakistan being a collectivist country where the meaning of organizational commitment might be different for people than for those working in western context –there can be a possibility that employability - ORC relationship differs across cultural contexts. This difference can be in the magnitude although we expect it in the same direction as in Pakistan sample. Thus the study might have limited external validity. In order to assess the generalizability of our findings,

future research should test our hypotheses in other business sectors and cultural contexts. Fourth, the study also took place in the public sector, and, though recent organizational changes have made public-sector jobs less secure, the findings may not be generalizable to the private sector, where jobs may be even less secure and employability might be a more relevant concept. Thus, future research should consider if the models relating employability to commitment apply to all sectors and to all knowledge typologies or does it depend on the types of knowledge they use in their jobs and the sector.

Despite the limitations stated above, the contributions of the study are valuable; there is indeed much research to be done. Future studies should therefore look more closely at a few specific areas. First, it could be interesting to widen the sphere of variables and include potential moderators such as locus of control, self esteem, education and occupational knowledge which might be of relevance in the employability – ORC relationship. Just as for self efficacy, the two individual difference variables are also expected to strengthen the employability – commitment relationship. Furthermore, LMX can be another potential moderator in this relationship in such a way that the relationship might be stronger for the employees having better quality relationships with their supervisor(s). Since the current study focused on the relationship between employability as perceived by the employee and affective commitment, it would be interesting to study this relationship by taking employability perceptions by other party in to account such as the employer or the supervisor's perceptions. Besides this, it is also important to widen the range of outcomes. The current study only took into account the affective commitment dimension, while it sounds interesting to know how employability impacts other dimensions of commitment specifically continuance organizational commitment.

Besides organizational commitment, commitment with the occupation also appears to be important to be taken into account in future studies; though a few studies consider the employability relationship with occupational/career satisfaction. How do employability perceptions impact organizational justice perceptions – can be another food for thought in future research. Further, in the current study we only assumed that employability perceptions are based on the organizational incentives and organizational support; more antecedents of employability perceptions may be looked into in future research of underlying relationships. It has been suggested that perceived situations affect people's behaviour (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Magnusson, 1981) and it could therefore be interesting to see how people's perceptions of their possibilities of getting employment affect their behavioural actions within organizations. Important behavioural outcomes to be examined in this regard could be task performance and OCB.

Lastly, we strongly recommend studying the employability – commitment relationship by distinguishing between internal and external employability dimensions of Groot and Van den Brink (2000). Internal employability represents the perceived ability of an employee to secure employment within the same organization while external employability is the perceived ability of the employee to secure employment outside the organization as well. It could be that internal employability perceptions lead to positive affective commitment by greater job satisfaction; while the relationship might be negative for the external employability perceptions and organizational commitment. External employability perceptions may enhance feelings of job dissatisfaction with in employees and they might be tempted to make use of their employability skills in outer labour market thus reducing their organizational commitment.

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Commitment and Turnover Intentions: A Happy Marriage? Testing the Relationships between Affective Organizational and Occupational Commitment and Organizational and Occupational Turnover Intentions

Abstract

The current article is an effort to draw meaningful relationship between two foci of commitment (i.e. affective organizational and affective occupational) and two types of exit transitions (i.e. organizational and occupational turnover intentions). Data were collected from a Dutch sample of academic employees (N=153). The results revealed that affective organizational commitment (ORC) and affective occupational commitment (OCC) were positively related to each other. ORC was negatively related to organizational turnover intentions (ORTI) and this relationship was buffered by OCC. OCC was negatively related both to occupational turnover intentions (OCTI) and ORTI. Last study hypothesis however, could not gain support as ORC did not moderate the OCC-OCTI relationship. Implications of the study are discussed in the end.

Keywords: Affective organizational commitment; affective occupational commitment; organizational turnover intentions; occupational turnover intentions.

4.1 Introduction

Affective organizational commitment (ORC) refers to an employee's emotional attachment and identification to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In essence, affectively committed employees remain in the organization because they *want to* do so (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1). ORC has been shown to be a heavily researched topic to date. The reason for wide investigation on ORC has been attributed to the fact that it affects many individual attitudes and behaviors in the workplace. In addition to organizational commitment, employees can be affectively committed to other foci such as their occupation (Becker, 1992; Becker & Billings, 1996; Meyer, Allen & Topolnytsky, 1998; Morrow, 1983, 1993). OCC refers to an employee's emotional identification with his/her work goals and occupation (Lee, Carswell & Allen, 2000; Morrow & Wirth, 1989; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994). Thus, individuals with higher OCC strongly identify with and have positive feelings about their occupation. Most of the existing research to date has focused on exploring the antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment (Cohen, 2003; Griffin & Bateman, 1986); consequently, models investigating outcomes of affective occupational commitment (OCC) remain less developed (Blau & Lunz, 1998).

Understanding the OCC construct is important for several reasons. Carson and Bedeian (1994) have suggested that coping with the uncertainty associated with changes such as mergers, acquisitions, and layoffs has caused many employees of their working life over

which they feel they have more control - their occupation. Given the recent workplace dynamics, including: organizational restructurings, increased employee job insecurity perceptions and contingency workforce growth (Cappelli, Bassi, Katz, Knoke, Osterman & Useem, 1997; Hall & Moss, 1998; Nollen & Axel, 1996), several scholars (e.g. Handy, 1994; Johnson, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997) have suggested that employee commitment may be shifting from the organization to one's occupation. These developments necessitate the study of employees' OCC, its relationships with organizational commitment and the consequences of this focus of commitment over and above ORC. Currently the models of OCC seems to be much less researched and under developed (Blau & Lunz, 1998).

Understanding the two forms of commitment becomes relevant also with respect to the group of professional employees. Extant literature suggests that professionals are more committed to their careers/occupations than their organization. It is reported in literature that because professionals do not direct their expectation towards the organization but towards their occupation, the organization as an object of commitment is not as important for them (Cohen, 1992). Does this mean that professionals are not committed to their organization? It is unclear how occupational and organizational commitment are related with each other. Thus first research question is: *How is affective organizational and affective occupational commitment related to each other?*

Research on commitment suggests that among different behavioral outcomes of ORC, the focus has been majorly on turnover

intentions (Bartol, 1979; Blau & Boal, 1987; Huselid & Day, 1991; Cohen and Hudecek 1993; Morrow, 1993; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Steers, 1977). Organizational turnover intentions is defined as an employee's decision to leave the organization voluntarily. Although turnover and turnover intention have been separately measured, turnover intention has been recognized as the final cognitive variable having an immediate causal effect on turnover (Bedeian, Kemery & Pizzolatto, 1991). Individuals committed to organizations show less intention to exit the organization because they want to stay (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Unlike other behaviors in the workplace, turnover indicates a breach in the relationship between individuals and the organization. This separation incurs a significant amount of cost to the organization, and maybe to the individuals. The cost of turnover may include opportunity costs, costs required for selection and training, and decreased level of morale of the remaining workers. These costs would become even more serious when the company loses valuable employees. Therefore, a better understanding of turnover in relation to commitment is warranted.

A critical appraisal of the occupational turnover literature suggest that there has been less empirical research attention given to intentions to change one's occupation compared to other types of transitions such as job turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979). Occupational turnover intention is generally understood as an employee's decision to leave the occupation. Occupational turnover intension is important because of its potential link to retention - in terms of both occupational and

organizational membership. Whether the concern is society's need to retain people in particular occupations or an organization's need to maintain the optimal level of turnover, a link between the two forms of commitment and turnover intentions is expected to have important human resources management implications.

In this paper, we aim to understand various relationships between ORC, OCC and the relatedness of these two forms of commitment to ORTI and OCTI. In doing so, we specifically examine the contribution of occupational commitment – in addition to organizational commitment - in explaining organizational and occupational turnover intentions within a sample of professional employees attached with academic sector of a Dutch university. The second research question of the study, thus goes “*How are organizational and occupational commitment related to ORTI and OCTI of employees?*”

Furthermore, recent literature based on empirical findings argues that in general, although there is a relationship between ORC and turnover intentions; this relationship is rather weak (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Randall *et al.*, 1990). One explanation for the relatively low ORC-turnover relationship is that the empirical relationship is not simply a direct effect but could have been moderated or influenced by third variables (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Little research has been conducted on the potential moderators of ORC-ORTI relationship (Cohen & Hudecek, 1993). The same can be said for the OCC and OCTI relationship. In order to develop a better understanding of these differential relationships, we examine the potential moderating role of

OCC between ORC and ORTI as well as the moderating role of ORC between OCC and OCTI. Thus, our next set of research questions ask: “Does OCC buffer the effects of the negative relationship between ORC and ORTI”? and “Does ORC buffer the effects of the negative relationship between OCC and OCTI?”

Before examining the different relationships, it is important to clarify how we conceptualize occupation and occupational commitment. In this paper, we view occupation as an identifiable and specific line of work that an individual engages in to earn a living at a given point in time (Lee *et al.*, 2000). It consists of a constellation of requisite skills, knowledge, and duties that differentiate it from other occupations (Lee *et al.*, 2000). Since typically occupational duties are often carried out in the context of the employing organization, employees tend to pursue their occupational goals at the organization and thus employee commitment within their occupation is expected to reinforce their commitment to the organization in which they have membership. The terms *occupation*, *profession*, and *career* have been used somewhat interchangeably in the commitment literature (Lee *et al.*, 2000). Although this may well be a matter of taste, we believe that *occupation* best fits the notion under consideration in this review. The term *occupation* has been preferred over other terms because it is more general, encompassing both professionals and non-professionals (Blau, 1989; Lee *et al.*, 2000; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). For example, a person with strong occupational commitment will more strongly identify with, and experience more positive feelings about,

the occupation in contrast to an individual with weak occupational commitment (Meyer *et al.*, 1993).

The research is expected to significantly contribute to existing models of ORC, OCC and turnover intentions. Data for this study were collected from Dutch university and a sample of both the professional (academic staff) and non professionals (administrative and support staff).

4.2 Theory and hypotheses

4.2.1 Relationship between ORC and OCC

Historically, it was believed that commitment to one value system was inherently incompatible with commitment to the other value system (Blau & Scott, 1962; Gouldner, 1957). Thus, individuals were viewed as psychologically attaching themselves either to the occupation or the organization, and an increase in attachment in one area was accompanied by a decrease in attachment in the other area. Lacking strong research support, this perspective developed later into a view that the two forms of commitment were completely independent, exerting unique influences on work-related attitudes and behaviors (Greene, 1978; Meyer *et al.*, 1993). Rather than viewing them as independent, the contemporary perspective suggests that the two forms of commitment are although separate and distinct phenomena but positively related to each other (Wallace, 1993). This allows for the possibility that commitment to the organization does not necessarily occur at the expense of commitment to the occupation and

vice versa (Wallace, 1995). This happens because individuals with high occupational commitment are expected to possess relatively high organizational commitment because the employment setting permits them to behave consistently with their occupational values and goals (i.e. to act upon their occupational commitment). There are more researches that further suggest that the two forms of commitment are positively associated (Bartol, 1979; Blau, 1989; Lachman & Aranya, 1986; Morrow & Wirth, 1989; Ayree & Tan, 1992; Cohen, 2000). In line with these results our first hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H1: Organizational affective commitment is positively related to occupational affective commitment.

4.2.2 Relationship between ORC, OCC and ORTI

Organizational commitment has been widely investigated because of several main reasons. Committed employees show positive attitudes towards their job (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). Commitment is a relatively stable attitude over time and thus a better determinant of behavioral intentions such as turnover intentions compared to other variables like job satisfaction (Porter *et al.*, 1974). A number of empirical studies confirm the role of organizational commitment in the turnover process (Blau & Lunz, 1998; Cheng & Stockdale, 2003; Ko, Price & Mueller, 1997; Meyer *et al.*, 1993; Meyer *et al.*, 2002). Since the employees that feel emotional attachment with the organization also tend to identify more with it and consider themselves more like a “part of family” their intentions to quit the

organization are consequently low. Therefore, employees who are highly committed to their organization are less likely to leave than employees who are relatively uncommitted. Therefore, hypothesis 2 predicts the following:

H2: Organizational commitment is negatively related with organizational turnover intention.

It can be expected that if the employees are committed to their occupation, they would attempt to seek opportunities in their current organization to pursue their occupational goals, because it would not be easier for them to leave the organizational membership which is assumed to provide them an umbrella for flourishing their careers. Even if they do not find a better opportunity, they will be less willing to leave because of career concerns relating their occupational goals. Thus the relationship between ORC and ORTI for will be weaker for such employees. On the other hand, decision to leave the organization will be easier for the employees who are also low in occupational commitment because they would perceive to start with another organization or maybe even in a new occupation. This is because when employees are not bounded by their current occupation, new chances and opportunities are not bounded by their current occupation which increases the probability of leaving the current company. Further, occupational members are taught that adherence to occupational values throughout a career is strongly desired regardless of the type of employing organization (Lachman & Aranya, 1986).

Since the terms career and occupation are used interchangeably, thus in order to elaborate on the moderating effect of OCC we consider research on career commitment. A few studies report that individuals who are highly committed to their ‘careers’ have been shown to spend more time in developing skills, and show less intention to withdraw from their careers as well as jobs (Aryee & Tan, 1992; Blau, 1989). Stated differently, an individual’s commitment to an organization results not only from identification with that organization but also from identification with a specific career the individual is pursuing within the organization (Bedian *et al.*, 1991) and therefore it can be expected that the ORC-ORTI relationship is influenced from the degree of occupational commitment. Thus relationship between ORC and ORTI will be stronger for employees low in occupational commitment and vice versa. Therefore, it is hypothesized that

H3: Occupational commitment weakens the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational turnover intention.

4.2.3 Relationship between OCC, ORC, ORTI and OCTI

The emotional connection that the person feels with the occupation has implications for various work behaviors and, importantly, for whether the person wants to remain in the occupation. There are a few extant studies that have shown that occupational commitment is strongly related to occupational turnover intention and moderately related to organizational turnover intention (Blau, 1989; Blau, Tatum

& Ward-Cook, 2003; Hall, Smith & LangWeld-Smith, 2005; Lee *et al.*, 2000; Meyer *et al.*, 1993; Snape & Redman, 2003). Just as organizational commitment predicts organizational turnover intentions, following the same line of reasoning, it could be inferred that individuals who are more committed with their occupation, will identify more with their occupation and will intent to stay in it, thus showing lower turnover cognitions.

Furthermore, although models of organizational turnover intentions have typically included such variables as job search behavior, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981), occupation-related variables have been largely ignored (Lee *et al.*, 2000). Integrating occupational commitment into models of organizational turnover might be useful, given that the intention to change one's occupation often emerges as a form of organizational turnover (e.g., when accountants tend to leave the accounting profession they also intent to leave the accounting organization). This means that employees low on occupational commitment will not only show higher occupational turnover intentions but also higher organizational turnover intentions as then they will not be pursuing their career goals in the current organizations. Furthermore, studies also show that occupational commitment and actual organizational turnover are negatively related (Bartol, 1979; Bedeian *et al.*, 1991; Blau, 1989), suggesting that occupation-related attitudes are potentially important in the organizational turnover process. Following from these lines of

reasoning and empirical evidence, we examine these relationships empirically by testing the following hypotheses.

H4: Occupational commitment is negatively related with (a) occupational turnover intention and (b) organizational turnover intention.

Along similar lines, organizational commitment may be expected to have a buffering effect on the negative relationship between OCC and OCTI. When an organization provides a vehicle for an individual to display his/her abilities and satisfy his/her career needs and thus provides an environment to promote the ideals and goals of a specific occupation, it enhances the ORC of employees, and is logically expected to reduce the negative effects of occupational commitment on turnover. As noted earlier ORC is reported to be positively related to OCC (Ayree & Tan, 1992; Cohen, 2000). Therefore, negative work experiences at the organization (e.g., violating employees' ideals relative to the occupation) may decrease employees' commitment and attachment to their occupation and make the OCC – OCTI relationship stronger. If employees decide to leave their organization due to negative work experiences, they may also develop the intention to leave their occupation. London (1983) noted that organizational commitment should be a key individual variable explaining career commitment. Thus, the following hypothesis is forwarded:

H5: Organizational commitment weakens the relationship between occupational commitment and occupational turnover intentions.

4.3 Method

4.3.1 Sample and procedures

^{4.1}Using random sampling approach, we collected data from both academic and support staff of a Dutch university. An online questionnaire was developed and sent through electronic mail to 752 of the total employees. Confidentiality was ensured to the respondents. After two weeks a reminder was sent through email. A final reminder was sent at the end of the fourth week. Personal visits were also made to solicit higher response rate. Out of the total of 752 mails sent to the target sample, 18 mails remained undeliverable due to various reasons thus reducing the sample to 734. A total of 153 employees responded; making approximately 21% response rate. 61% of the respondents were males. 56% were less than 40 years of age, 78% married and 67% had an experience of less than 10 years at the university.

4.3.2 Measures

Affective organizational and occupational commitment: Four items were used from the scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) to measure affective organizational commitment with slight modification of words. Example item includes “I consider problems of the university (name of the university) my own problems”.

We measured affective occupational commitment using a four items from the scale developed by Meyer *et al.* (1993). Example item includes “I am proud of my occupation”.

^{4.1} We are thankful to Jordy Joristma for her help in data collection for this sample.

Organizational and occupational turnover intentions: Organizational turnover intention was slightly revised from Meyer *et al.*'s (1993) three item scale (e.g., I frequently thought about leaving my current employer).

Occupational turnover intention was also slightly revised from Meyer *et al.*'s (1993) three item scale (e.g., I frequently thought about getting out of academia)

Control variables: Age, gender, marital status and experience (within the organization) were used as controls as they are generally used in studies of the antecedents and consequences of commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Controls were coded as follows: Males were assigned 0 and females 1; employees < 40 were assigned 0 while those above 40 were measured by 1; single respondents were categorized as 0 and married (and living together) as 1; employees having less than 10 years experience at the current organization were categorized as 0 and the remaining 1.^{4.2} Important to note that no significant differences were found between the two categories of employees i.e. academic and support staff at the university. These non significant differences in the means of the two groups lead us to treat them as one sample for simplicity in the analysis given below.

Since data were collected from individual employees within five different faculties of the university, we computed interclass correlation coefficients (Bliese, 2000) to check for differences in ORC, OCC, ORTI and OCTI of employees with respect to their faculty. The intra class correlation for ORC, OCC, ORTI and OCTI was found to be 0.08, 0.06, 0.04 and 0.05

^{4.2} Mean ORC, OCC, ORTI and OCTI for the sample of support staff were 3.05, 4.10, 1.91 and 2.03 respectively while these means for academic staff were 3.00, 4.22, 2.23 and 2.23 respectively. Means of the two groups were compared using t-test and results suggested no significant differences in means across two samples with respect to ORC, OCC, ORTI and OCTI ($t = .51, n.s.$; $t = -1.13, n.s.$; $t = -1.9, n.s.$; $t = -1.1, n.s.$).

indicating that only eight percent, six percent, four percent and five percent of the variance (of ORC, OCC, ORTI and OCTI respectively) occurs between the different faculties, while at least around 92 percent of the variance is related at the individual level. Given the low intra class correlations, there is no sufficient justification for the use of multilevel analysis.

Common method variance: Because all data are self-reported and collected through the same questionnaire during the same period of time Harman's one factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) was used to investigate the potential influence of common method variance. All study variables were entered in a principal factor analysis, using varimax rotation, to determine the number of factors that are necessary to account for the variance in the variables. The results showed four factors (*ORC, OCC, ORTI and OCTI*) with an "Eigen value" greater than 1, accounting for 69.43 percent of the variance. The first (largest) factor did not account for majority of the variance, nor was there a general factor that accounted for the majority of the covariance in these variables. The result suggests that common method variance is not of great concern.

To test for moderated relationships, each foci of commitment were regressed on the independent variables and the cross-product or interaction of these variables. In order to minimize multi-collinearity, scores for the independent variable and moderated variable (both ORC and OCC) were centred at the mean as recommended by Aiken and West (1991).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was also conducted to to examine whether the two foci of commitment (i.e. organizational and occupational) and the two types of turnover intentions

(i.e. organizational and occupational) were perceived differently (distinguished) by the employees. Results of baseline models and one factor models are shown in Table 4.1

The best model fit for ORC and OCC was the baseline two factor model, $\chi^2 (19) = 212.64$, CFI = 0.93, GFI = 0.90 and NFI = 0.92). When all items of ORC and OCC were loaded in one model the results showed poor fit, $\chi^2 (20) = 780.44$, CFI = 0.73, GFI = 0.69 and NFI = 0.72. The results of this analysis supported the two factor structure of ORC and OCC. The two factor model for organizational and occupational turnover intentions also demonstrated good fit, $\chi^2 (8) = 255.81$, CFI = 0.91, GFI = .84 and NFI = 0.91. On the other hand, the one factor structure for turnover intentions did not demonstrate as good fit, $\chi^2 (9) = 258.17$, CFI = 0.91, GFI = 0.85 and NFI = 0.91. These results led us to do our subsequent regression analyses while treating all the different factors independently.

Table 4.1: Results of confirmatory factor analysis

Model	χ^2	DF	$\Delta \chi^2$	Δ DF	CFI	GFI	NFI
ORC & OCC							
2 factor model (baseline)	212.64	19			0.93	0.90	0.92
One factor general model	780.44	20	576.8	1	0.73	0.69	0.72
ORTI & OCTI							
2 factor model (baseline)	255.81	8			0.91	0.84	0.91
One factor general model	258.17	9	2.36	1	0.91	0.85	0.91

4.4 Results

Table 4.2 reports the descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, alpha reliabilities and inter-correlations between the different measures. Age was negatively related to organizational and occupational turnover intentions ($r = -.20, p < .05, r = -.21, p < .05$ respectively). This result is in consistence with previous findings where negative relationship is observed between age and turnover (Cotton & Cuttle, 1986), older employees tend to stay with the organization compared to younger employees who frequently change jobs and even occupations. Significant negative relations were found between work experience and ORTI and OCTI ($r = -.19, p < .05, r = -.17, p < .05$ respectively). This finding is in consistence with previous studies where it is suggested that individuals, early in their career, are more motivated to explore a satisfactory work or life structure (Levinson, 1996). Therefore, individuals are more likely to leave their present organization and occupation in their early career stages when they are less experienced. ORC and OCC were found to be positively related ($r = .47, p < .05$). ORC was negatively related to ORTI and OCTI ($r = -.30, p < .01, r = -.16, p < .05$ respectively). OCC was also found to be negatively related to ORTI and OCTI ($r = -.34, p < .01, r = -.29, p < .01$ respectively). Interestingly high correlation were observed between ORTI and OCTI ($r = .80, p < .01$).

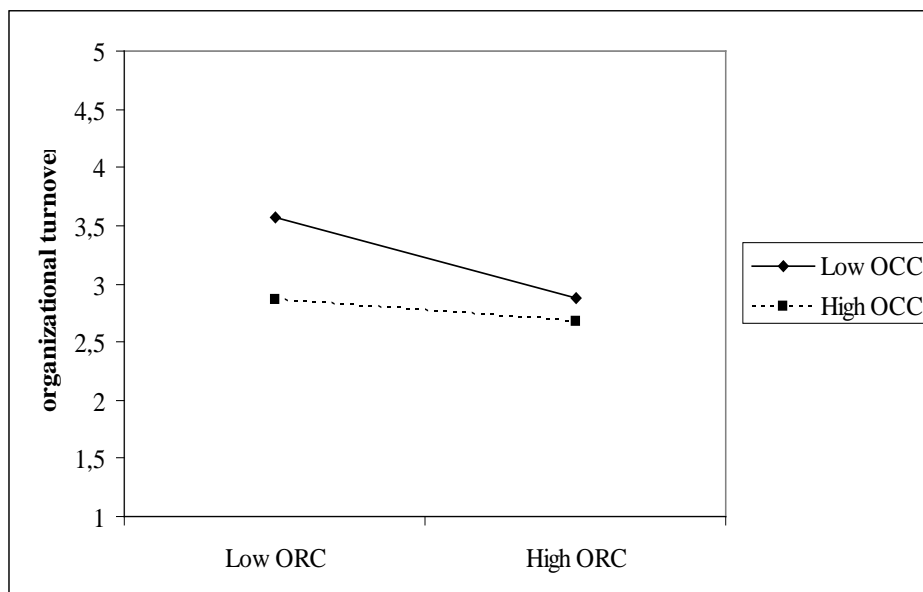
Table 4.3 reports results of regression analyses to test the hypothesized relationships of the study. Age and experience were found to be negatively related to ORTI and OCTI showing that older employees have lesser intentions to quit membership with their organization and occupation. No relationship was found between any other control variables and the model outcomes.

Our first study hypothesis related to the positive relationship between ORC and OCC. Table 4.2 indicates a positive and significant relation between the two constructs ($r = .47, p < .01$) thus confirming H1. In model 1 of Table 4.3, we tested our second study hypothesis which related to the negative relationship between ORC and ORTI. Results show that ORC was negatively related to ORTI ($\beta = -.31, p < .05$) thus confirming H2. H3 related to the moderating role of occupational commitment in the ORC-ORTI relationship. Model 3 of Table 4.3 suggested moderation of the interaction term of ORC X OCC as when added in addition to the main effects into the model, effects of interaction term were significant ($\beta = .13, p < .10$). This means H3 was also confirmed. Figure 4.1 draws this effect.

Next we tested H4a and H4b which predicted the negative relationships between OCC, OCTI and ORTI. Results confirmed our expectations as results in model 4 show that OCC was negatively related occupational turnover intentions ($\beta = -.31, p < .01$). Hypothesis 4a was supported. H4b was tested in model 2 and results showed negative relationship between OCC and ORTI ($\beta = -.27, p < .01$), thus confirming H4b.

It should be noted that in model 2, we included both forms of commitment to test the relative power of each to determine ORTI. It is interesting to note that OCC contributes relatively greater variance in ORTI than ORC and also that the variance caused by ORC in model 1 where it is entered alone is significantly reduced from ($\beta = -.31, p < .01$ to $\beta = -.19, p < .05$), when OCC is introduced in model 2. This result suggests partial mediation of OCC in the ORC – ORTI relationship.

Figure 4.1: Model showing two-way interaction of OCC and ORC on ORTI



Although, we did not make any specific hypothesis about mediation of one form of commitment in the other commitment – turnover model, we made another additional analysis in model 5 of Table 4.3 to check for the possibility of mediation of ORC in OCC – OCTI relationship and to better understand the relative role of the two commitment foci in determining this form of turnover intention. Results suggest that upon entering OCC and ORC together, ORC could not effect OCTI significantly while OCC continued to significantly contribute to the variance caused in OCTI ($\beta = -.05$, n.s.; $\beta = -.29$, $p < .01$ respectively).

Our last study hypothesis related to the moderating role of ORC in the OCC – OCTI model which we tested in model 6. Results did not support our hypothesis as interaction of ORC X OCC did not significantly relate to OCTI ($\beta = .08$, n.s.), thus H5 was not confirmed.

**Table 4.2: Means, standard deviations, (alpha reliabilities) and inter item correlations
(N = 153)**

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender	.39	.49								
2. Age	.44	.50	-.01							
3. Marital Status	.22	.42	-.17*	-.22**						
4. Experience	.33	.56	.19*	.46**	-.11					
5. ORC	3.0	.86	-.15	-.00	-.04	.12	(0.82)			
6. OCC	4.13	.75	-.14	-.01	.06	.05	.47**	(0.86)		
7. ORTI	2.08	.99	-.07	-.20*	.05	-.19*	-.30**	-.34**	(0.78)	
8. OCTI	2.1	1.06	-.06	-.21*	.03	-.17*	-.16*	-.29**	.80**	(0.85)

Notes. **p<.01, *p<.05, Sex: 0= male, 1 = female, Age: 0= less than 40, 1 = more than 40;

Marital status: 0 = single, 1 = married/partner; Experience: 0 = less than 10 years, 1 = more than 10 years.

Table 4.3: Results of regressions analysis (N= 153)

Variables	ORTI (H2)	ORTI (H2a, H4b)	ORTI (H3)	OCTI (H4a)	OCTI (H4a)	OCTI (H5)
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Sex	-.11	-.13 [†]	-.13	-.10	-.11	-.11
Age	-.18*	-.18*	-.19*	-.19*	-.20*	-.20*
Marital status	-.03	-.01	-.02	-.02	-.02	-.03
Experience	-.05	-.04	-.04	-.05	-.04	-.04
OCC		-.27**	-.23**	-.31**	-.29**	-.26**
ORC	-.31**	-.19*	-.22*		-.05	-.06
ORC X OCC			.13 [†]			.08
R2		.20	.21		.15	.15
F value		6,067**	5,641**		4,158**	3,693**

Notes: **p<.01, *p<.05, [†]P<.10, All beta coefficients appearing in the table are standardized.

4.5 Discussion and Conclusions

Existing models of organizational and occupational commitment study organizational turnover intentions and occupational turnover intentions in separate studies and the linkages between the two forms of commitment and turnover intentions tend to be ignored. This investigation was aimed at examining the interrelationships between the two foci of commitment (i.e. organizational and occupational) as well as the effects of these two commitment foci on two important behavioural intentions i.e. organizational and occupational turnover intentions. Furthermore, the moderating role of occupational commitment was studied in the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational turnover intentions and lastly the moderating role of organizational commitment was studied in the relationship between occupational commitment and occupational turnover intentions. Thus the study is expected to provide a comprehensive model of the two commitment foci and turnover cognitions.

According to our results, affective occupational commitment is distinguishable from affective organizational commitment. Similarly, organizational turnover intentions are distinct from occupational turnover intentions thus supporting the distinctiveness of these constructs. The results mean that Dutch researchers and support staff also identify their occupations as being separate from the organization they are currently working for. In the sections below we discuss the different results in line with the different study hypotheses.

First hypothesis tested the positive relationship between ORC and OCC. The results indicates both are highly related thus confirming H1 and providing further support to the contemporary findings on the positive relationship between ORC and OCC (Wallace, 1993; 1995). This research

result might be further helpful in resolving the ongoing controversy in the commitment literature that whether the two forms of commitment evolve independently of each other or whether they can co-exist. The results of the current study indicate that professionals and non professionals can be committed to both their organization and occupation at the same time. H2 examined the negative relationship between ORC and ORTI and was supported by the study finding. This result is in line with previous studies indicating this relationship (Blau & Lunz, 1998; Meyer *et al.*, 1993).

The third hypothesis examined the buffering role of occupational commitment in the relationship between ORC and ORTI. This hypothesis was also supported by the results of the study. This indicates that when individuals are committed to the organization they are less willing to leave the company, and the degree is stronger for those highly committed to their occupations. These individuals are not apt to leave and are likely to contribute to the company if their organizational commitment is increased. Furthermore, the intention and thus decision to leave the organization will be much easier for the employees with low occupational and organizational commitment. Therefore, considering that high occupationally committed employees spend more time in developing skills and pursuing their occupational goals in the organization in which they are member, they express less intention to withdraw from their occupations (Aryee & Tan, 1992).

The fourth hypothesis tested the negative relationship between OCC and OCTI and ORTI. This hypothesis was also supported by the study findings as OCC significantly explained variance both in the OCTI and ORTI. While there are few researches indicating relationship between OCC and OCTI (Lee *et al.* 2000), not much extant research examines the linkages between OCC and ORTI. This result suggests that lesser occupational

commitment will lead not only to occupational turnover intentions but also to organizational turnover intentions as the occupational expectations of the employees will not be met at their current organization and they would tend to join another organization which falls in a different occupational domain. It is also interesting to note that the role of occupational commitment as a predictor of ORTI was relatively stronger compared to ORC.

Moreover, the results suggested partial mediation of OCC in the relationship between ORC and ORTI. Although we did not build a specific hypothesis for this kind of mechanism we can think of a possible explanation for this finding. Interpretation of positive work and organizational experiences and the value placed upon those experiences by an individual maybe seen by the employee as strengthening their occupational goals and values thus enhancing their occupational commitment which in turn is empirically suggested to lower organizational turnover intentions. Further, although not hypothesized in the study, it is worth noting that ORC was not related to OCTI which seems quite logical because employees not committed to the organization may leave their organization and join some other organization where they can meet their occupational expectations.

Last hypothesis related to the buffering role of ORC in the OCC – OCTI relationship. This hypothesis could not be supported. This result could mean that commitment with the occupation is more important determinant in shaping employee turnover intentions. Although OCC can buffer the effects of the relationship between ORC – ORTI but ORC does not play that role in the model of OCC – OCTI. Even if the employees are committed to their organization, this commitment can not influence the degree of relationship between OCC and OCTI. It is also worth noting that OCC of the employees in our study is higher than their ORC. So the employees are on average more committed to their occupation than the organization.

Last thing to be noted here is that no differences were found with respect to the commitments and turnover intentions of the professional (academic researchers) and non professional (support staff) groups of employees; although overall occupational commitment was higher than organizational commitment for the whole sample. In conclusion, this research goes beyond existing research by pointing out the important role of occupational commitment in the organizational and occupational turnover process. Occupational commitment not only predicted ORTI and OCTI but was also found to moderate the ORC – ORTI relationship and additional analysis also suggested partial mediation of OCC in ORC-ORTI model.

4.6 Implications

Results of this study provide recommendations to managers interested in managing their subordinates. Our investigation of outcome variables provided some particularly interesting findings supporting the idea that occupational commitment has the predictive power to determine ORTI and OCTI and it also buffered the negative ORC – ORTI relationship. Thus OCC played a pivotal role in organizational turnover process. Thus, a deeper understanding of this construct can assist employers in devising appropriate management strategies to increase favourable outcomes, including better management of the variables that may affect occupational commitment. It appears that our ability to predict organizational turnover is enhanced when both occupational and organizational variables are considered simultaneously.

Getting back to the ongoing changes in nature of careers, Hall and his colleagues (1996) suggested that in the transactional relationship, organizations do not provide life-time employment, and the relationship is based on short-term contributions. In this situation, it becomes difficult for organizations to expect the same previous levels of attachment or loyalty

from the employees because individuals become more concerned with their own occupational goals and feel detached from the current company. Therefore, organizations need to develop management techniques or strategies which also pay attention to developing their employees' career needs which in turn can lead to the employees' devotion to the company and buffer the negative effects of ORC on ORTI. Therefore, by concentrating on other human resource practices such as internal promotion, training programs, and supervisory support, the organizations could potentially strengthen the level of affective commitment of their workforce not only with the organization but also with the occupation, because occupational commitment has also (at least) equal predictive power in determining ORTI. It is also useful to adopt policies that enhance employees' occupational identities (Lee *et al.*, 2000). Taking the case of academic researchers these could include encouraging occupational activities (e.g., attending conferences or publishing chapters), providing valued rewards (e.g., better benefits), promoting their occupations, or sponsoring training opportunities to shape employees' emotional attachment to the occupation (Blau *et al.*, 2003). This means that managers should take both aspects of employees' intentions to leave the organization and occupation in to consideration at the same time as they seem to be reciprocally related. The study findings also report that both types of turnover intention are determined by OCC.

4.7 Limitations and research perspective

A few limitations of this study should be noted. First, all variables in this study were measured with self-reports and from the same source, thus the problem of common method variance may have influenced the results (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). During questionnaire

development we adopted the psychological separation method (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003) to reduce this problem. That is, we excluded the introduction of each variable, and tried to make it appear that the measurement of both the predictor and the criterion variable were not connected. After data collection, we adopted Harman's one factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Common method variance is likely to exist if a single factor emerges from the factor analysis and accounts for most of the variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). As noted before, results of the factor analysis did not indicate existence of this problem although of course the issue can not be entirely ruled out. Secondly, since this study is one of the few studies which simultaneously examined outcomes of occupational and organizational commitment in terms of turnover intentions, a larger sample with diverse vocations and occupations would provide more robust findings and enable greater generalizability. Considering that researchers the subjects of this study, have high levels of education and are exposed to autonomous work atmosphere, additional studies of other vocations are required to generalize the results to other occupational groups.

Factors related to individual careers are gaining more importance with changing patterns of management. With increasing mergers, downsizing, and layoffs, individuals become unable to depend on a single organization for their entire careers, and commitment to one's own occupation accordingly becomes an important source of occupational meaning. Therefore, more studies regarding individual careers or an individual's attitude toward his/her career are required to better understand

the behaviour or attitude of an individual. Future research should also explore additional moderators for instance cultural differences. From Hofstede (1980a, 1984b, 1997) viewpoint, employees in high uncertainty avoidance societies express their intention to stay with the organization for a long-term career. Uncertainty avoidance (UA) is defined as the extent to which individuals accept uncertainty and ambiguity in various situations. Individuals in low UA countries, for instance, are more tolerant of uncertainty than those in high UA societies (Hofstede, 1980a). From turnover perspective, low UA could imply higher intentions to quit the current organization or even occupation and to accept an uncertain future. In comparison, employees in high UA cultures, where a stable and structured work environment is preferred, might show lesser intentions to leave the organization and occupation even if they are not ‘really’ committed to the respective commitment foci. Another dimension over which Hofstede (1984) distinguished different cultures is individualistic and collectivist dimension. Individualism – collectivism is also expected to play a moderating role in the commitment and turnover relationship as many studies show the impact of culture with specific relevance to organizational commitment. Career stage is also a possible moderator. In different career stages, individuals have unique demands and needs within their careers, jobs, and organizations (Noe, Steffy & Barber, 1988). Reilly and Orsak (1991) argued that commitment would be stronger in the latter period of individual’s career stage (e.g., maintenance stage) due to accumulated organizational investments, few alternative jobs, and a sense of obligation/loyalty to their current organization. Given these perspectives, it would be useful to analyze the different studied relationships between commitment forms and turnover intentions at different career stages.

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***5.1 Proactive and Politically Skilled Professionals:
What is the Relationship with Organizational and
Occupational Commitment?***

^{5.1} This chapter is a modified version of a manuscript that has been submitted to *Journal of Organizational Behavior* as Yousaf, A., Sanders, K., & Shipton, H. A short version of this chapter was also presented in paper form at 11th International HRM conference, Birmingham in June 2010.

Abstract

In this study, we extend research on employee commitment in three ways: firstly, by focusing on occupational as well as organizational components of commitment, secondly by highlighting dispositional as opposed to environmental antecedents and thirdly by exploring the role of a potent moderator in the relationship between dispositional aspects and commitment: political skills. Two connected studies were carried out in Pakistan, drawing on a total sample of over four hundred employees. Our work offers an alternative model for conceptualizing the relationship between dispositional variables (namely, proactive personality) and organizational commitment and points to the potential role of 'learnt' attributes such as political skills, thereby providing insight for both scholarly and practitioner communities in an aspect of commitment research that has to date received relatively scant attention.

Keywords: Affective organizational commitment; affective occupational commitment; proactive personality; job satisfaction; occupational satisfaction; political skills.

5.1 Introduction

Affective organizational commitment (ORC) has received considerable attention in last few decades from scholars across wide disciplines (Cohen, 2003; 2007; Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Morrow, 1993). ORC refers to an employee's emotional attachment to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Thus, affectively committed employees remain in the organization because they *want to* do so (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1).

Various foci of commitment exist that may uniquely determine employee and organizationally relevant outcomes has been increasingly recognized recently (Choen, 2003). One such focus of commitment is to one's occupation (Blau & Lunz, 1998; Cohen, 2007). Where occupational commitment has an affective dimension (labelled here 'OCC'), it may be referred to as an employee's emotional identification with work goals and occupation (Lee, Carswell & Allen, 2000; Morrow & Wirth, 1989; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994, p. 535). Research suggests that commitment research needs to go beyond organizational focus so as to further our understanding on occupational focus of commitment which has received scant attention till date (Blau & Lunz, 1998; Cohen, 2003). The rationale for further examining ORC – and, in turn, for specifically focusing on OCC - is outlined below.

ORC has been indicated to be a key proximal precursor for a number of organizationally relevant outcomes such as organizational citizenship behaviour, reduced absenteeism, increased organizational effectiveness and competitiveness and extra role behaviour (Cohen, 2003, 2006; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Steers, 1977). ORC has also been reported to be amongst the most significant predictors of voluntary turnover when compared to many other variables such as job satisfaction (Mathieu & Zaajac, 1990; Porter, Steers,

Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Thatcher, Stepina & Boyle, 2002-2003). Shortly, theoretical explanations point to the way in which committed individuals are capable of enhancing desirable organization level outcomes than their less committed counterparts.

Occupations represent a meaningful focus in the lives of many people, a trend set to continue, as educational levels rise and work become more specialized and as employees deal with extensive organizational change and uncertainty such as organizational restructurings, increased employee job insecurity perceptions and contingency workforce growth (Hall & Moss, 1998; Nollen & Axel, 1996). Occupational commitment is of course also important because of its potential link to retention - in terms of both occupational and organizational membership (see Colarelli, 1998). Occupational turnover thus may be considered as a loss not only for the organization but also for the society at large because of the consequences it poses in terms of the 'loss of experience' for the whole profession. In line with these various ideas, several scholars (e.g. Handy, 1994; Johnson, 1996) have suggested that the focus of attention for employee commitment research may be shifting from the organization to the occupation.

Despite progress, there are still substantial gaps in our understanding of what factors promote commitment. In examining the antecedents of commitment, environmental rather than dispositional sources are typically considered mostly in extant research, despite a surge in research looking at the dispositional sources of job attitudes such as job satisfaction (Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002). Interestingly, so far only minimal attention has been directed toward understanding the dispositional basis of commitment (Erdheim, Wang & Zickar, 2006). For instance a few studies have investigated relationships between some aspects of personality and organizational commitment such as affectivity, the Big five personality traits

such as Extraversion, Conscientiousness (e.g. Erdheim *et al.*, 2006; Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988), thus providing evidence that some individuals may be predisposed to experience heightened or diminished levels of ORC. Although the importance of the Five Factor model has been largely acknowledged in literature, researchers have shown that the personality traits such as PP is differentially associated with the Big Five personality traits and positively predict a number of criterion variables over and above the contribution of the Big Five traits and other relevant predictor variables (Crant, 1995; Crant & Bateman, 2000). Consequently, the first goal of the current study is to assess the extent to which PP could explain variance in employees' ORC and OCC. Since the majority of research on PP has primarily examined main effects of the construct on different outcomes, a second aim is to identify the possible mechanism that could explain the PP - employee commitment relationships. The mechanism helps to understand how the proposed relationships might be executed. In doing so, we use the framework of employee's job and occupational satisfaction since proactive people can be expected to be more satisfied both within their job environment and also within the broader environment of their occupational networks.

More and more attention is being paid nowadays to the importance of political skills in professional organizations. A few studies demonstrated that political skills buffered the negative effects of social stressors on job and career satisfaction; the authors argued that future research should consider political skills as a moderator of other relationships (Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter & Kacmar, 2007; Perrewe, Zellars, Rossi, Ferris, Kacmar, Liu, Zinko & Hochwarter, 2005). Political skills is the ability "to exercise formal power with sensitivity to the feelings of others, to know where to concentrate one's energies, to sense what is possible, to organize the necessary alliances"

(Mintzberg, 1983 p. 26). Research suggests that although PP and political skills share some of the features, they are distinct constructs. The fact makes it interesting to understand how the two constructs work together in a model and influence the different relationships. Therefore the present study also examines the moderating effect of this emerging social effectiveness construct, political skills, in the PP-employee commitment relationships as the last research goal.

5.2 Theory and hypotheses

5.2.1 Proactive personality and employee commitment

Since its emergence in the early 1990s, proactive personality (PP) has gained momentum as a valid construct and a predictor of individual and organizationally relevant outcomes, including organizational performance (Crant, 1995), work adjustment (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), the ability to deal with occupational constraints (Parker & Sprigg, 1999), leadership performance (Crant & Bateman, 2000), transformational (Bateman & Crant, 1993), charismatic leadership (Crant & Bateman, 2000), actual advancements in salary and position (Seibert, Crant & Kraimer, 1999; Seibert, Kraimer & Crant, 2001), job search success (Brown, Cober, Kane, Levy & Shalhoop, 2006), organizational citizenship behaviour (Parker, 1998), career success (Seibert *et al.*, 2001) and team effectiveness (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). PP is seen as an individual characteristic that reflects a person's tendency to be minimally hindered by situational constraints and maximally empowered to take personal initiative to ensure a positive outcome in whatever environment that person occupies (Bateman & Crant, 1993). From an organization's perspective, PP is, therefore, a desirable characteristic for employees to possess. Although PP has been linked with

many outcomes whether it has potential to predict employee commitment remains unaddressed.

People differ in their propensity to take actions to influence their environment. PP has been proposed as a personality trait to explain these differences across individuals (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 1995; 2000). Proactive people have been shown to engage in active surveying of their environment, maintaining vigilance, and enacting behaviours intended to bring about desired outcomes. Proactive people actively seek out new information and practices in order to improve their performance (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000). These features of proactive people are suggestive of their higher levels of emotional attachment and identification with their organization and occupation owing to their capabilities of moulding both their work situation and environment towards them favourably – the way they want it. Few studies so far have examined the relationship between PP (including initiative taking) and attitudinal outcomes such as ORC and job satisfaction and reported them to be positively related (Chan, 2006; Kohler & Mathieu, 1993; Vandenberghe, Bentein & Stinglhamber, 2004). As noted in the beginning, there is a lack of research explaining the dispositional basis of occupational commitment; however the features of proactive people suggest that their actions are restricted not only to making their current jobs better and more favourably oriented toward them: rather the proactive people collect information about existing or possible career opportunities through networking and actions aimed at enhancing their visibility and meeting their occupational goals.

H1: Proactive personality is positively related to affective organizational (a) and occupational commitment (b) of employees.

5.2.2 Job and occupational satisfaction as mediators

Job satisfaction is the degree to which people like their jobs (Spector, 1997). Proactive individuals tend to actively engage in updating their knowledge and skills and identifying new work processes. The display of initiatives and surpassing normal job expectations, usually done by proactive people is expected to have positive effects on their job satisfaction. In addition, proactive people are more likely to identify opportunities and act on them by exceeding normal job expectations (Seibert *et al.*, 2001; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Proactive individuals will be more satisfied with their jobs because they will remove obstacles preventing satisfaction (Erdogan & Bauer, 2005, p. 861). Both theoretical and empirical work suggests that higher levels of satisfaction are associated with higher levels of ORC (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Curry, Wakefield, Price & Mueller, 1986; Matzler & Renzl, 2007; Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

Taken together, it could be inferred that proactive people create situations which are more favourable and satisfying for them leading to their higher attachment with the organization.

H2: The relationship between proactive personality and affective organizational commitment is mediated by job satisfaction.

Extant research uses the terms career, occupation and profession interchangeably for the same construct (Lee *et al.*, 2000; Morrow, 1993). Occupational or career satisfaction refers to a subjective dimension of career success and is defined as the overall affective orientation of the individual toward his or her career or work role (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988). In this study we chose the term occupational satisfaction because we find it more relevant and in keeping with our study.

Studies show that proactive individuals are purported to ‘select, create, and influence work situations that increase the likelihood of career success’ (Seibert *et al.*, 2001, p. 847). Not only are proactive individuals likely to take initiative towards making advances in their workplace, but also in their own careers. Career initiative involves a variety of activities including career planning, skill development, and consultation with others (Seibert *et al.*, 2001). Proactive people are thought to possess greater need for achievement (Thompson, 2005) and higher motivation to learn (Major, Turner & Fletcher, 2006) and thus are expected to be engaged in activities that promote their career prospect. Evidence shows that individuals who reflect more actively about their career goals and who have a stronger insight in what they want to attain during their career, report a higher level of career satisfaction (De Vos & Soens, 2008). Although not much studies could be found studying the relationship between occupational satisfaction and OCC (Lee *et al.*, 2000) we expect that just as job satisfaction is related to ORC; occupational satisfaction would be related to OCC and would thus provide a mediating mechanism in the linkage between PP and OCC.

H3: The relationship between proactive personality and affective occupational commitment mediated by occupational satisfaction.

5.2.3 Moderating role of political skills in the PP – employee commitment relationship

There is a need to understand as to when PP leads to more positive outcomes (Crant, 2000), and to further contribute to understanding the relationship between PP and employee outcomes, we examine the role of political skills as a potential moderating variable. It is important to note that where proactivity refers to dispositional aspect of personality and thus is a more or

less stable trait over time, political skills are not simply trait based; they can be learned and developed over time (Ferris, Treadway, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, Kacmar, Douglas & Frink, 2005). These features of the two constructs make them distinct, although they have been reported to share some similar features (Liu, Ferris, Zinko, Perrewe, Weitz & Xu, *in press*). For instance, just like the politically skilled, proactive individuals are also likely to engage in networking (Thompson, 2005) which has been defined as 'individuals' attempts to develop and maintain relationships with others who have the potential to assist them in their work or career' (Forret & Dougherty, 2004, p. 420).

It has been argued in literature that to fit within the political environment of organizations, individuals need not only the will but also the skills to successfully execute political behaviours (Mintzberg, 1983; 1985). Modern day competitive organizations select individuals on the criteria of their networking skills, their capability to attract external funding, professional contacts and their managerial abilities all of which can be determined from political abilities of the candidate. Individuals possessing political skills are likely to be more self confident, self efficacious, possess larger social networks with more interpersonal influence. Politically skilled individuals are socially astute, and know the precise way to adjust their behaviour in order to be interpersonally appropriate and effective (Ferris *et al.*, 2005). Persons who are high in political skills use their knowledge to influence others to act in ways that promote personal and/or organizational goals. Through active networking activities and via their ability to be convincing and persuasive, employees with political skills are more likely than others to secure things needed for the job. Such positioning, savvy, capacity to influence others, and genuineness, reflective of politically skilled individuals, together with their proactive personality is expected to

contribute to higher commitment towards organization and occupation. Having said this and following the theoretical linkages proposed by Ferris *et al.* (2005), we expect that the expected relationship between PP and employee commitment will be moderated by political skills of employees.

H4: Political skills strengthen the relationship between proactive personality and affective organizational (a) and affective occupational commitment (b).

5.3 Study 1: Methods

5.3.1 Sample and procedures

^{5.2}Data were collected from doctors at a large Pakistani hospital located in private sector. Using random sampling approach, 500 chapter versions of the questionnaire were distributed through interoffice mail in sealed envelope addressing the employee directly. A reminder mail was sent after two weeks so as to solicit a higher response rate. 181 of the employees responded making a response rate of 36.2%. The sample was distributed as follows: 54% of the respondents were males, 49% was less than 40 years of age, 37% married or living together and 52% had an experience of less than 10 years at the hospital.

5.3.2 Measures

Proactive personality: A nine item scale developed by Crant and Kraimer (1999) was used to measure PP. Example item includes “If I see something I don't like, I fix it”.

^{5.2} We are thankful to Professor Dr. Tariq Mehmood who helped us in data collection for this sample.

Proactive Personality and Employee Commitment

Affective organizational & occupation commitment: An eight item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) was used to measure affective organizational commitment scale with slight modification of words. Example item includes “I consider the problems of this hospital (name of the hospital) my own problems”. We measured affective occupational commitment using an eight item scale developed by Meyer *et al.* (1993). Example item includes “I am proud of my occupation”.

Job & occupational satisfaction: A six item scale developed by Curry *et al.* (1986) was used to measure job satisfaction. Example item includes “I feel fairly well satisfied with my job”. A five item scale developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990) was used to measure occupational satisfaction. Example item includes “I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall occupational career goals”.

Political skills: A six item scale developed by Ferris, Berkson, Kaplan, Gilmore, Buckley, Hochwarter and Witt (1999) was used to measure political skills. Example item includes “I am good at getting others to respond positively to me”.

Control variables: Age, gender, marital status and experience we used as controls as they are generally used in studies of the antecedents and consequences of commitment (e.g., Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Controls were coded as follows: Males were assigned 1 and females 2; employees < 40 were assigned 1 while those above 40 were measured by 2; single respondents were categorized as 1 and married as 2; employees having less than 10 years experience at the current organization were categorized as 1 and the remaining 2.

Since data was collected from four different departments of the hospital at individual level, we computed interclass correlation coefficient (Bliese, 2000) to check for differences in ORC and OCC of employees with respect to their department. The intra class correlation for ORC was found 0.03 meaning that only three percent of the variance (of ORC) occurs between the different departments, and 97 percent of the variance is related to the individual level. Similarly the ICC1 turned out to be 0.001 for OCC thus showing less than one percent variance at the department level. This result led us not to control for departments in our subsequent regression analyses and we did not analyze the results using multi level analyses techniques for this study as well.

Common method variance: Since all data are self-reported and collected through the same questionnaire during the same period of time Harman's one factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) was used to investigate the potential influence of common method variance. Results of principal factor analysis, using varimax rotation, showed that neither the first (largest) factor accounted for a majority of the variance (26.81%), nor was there a general factor that accounted for the majority of the covariance in these variables. The results suggested absence of common method variance for this sample.

5.4 Results

The means, standard deviations, intercorrelations and alpha reliabilities of all the variables are presented in Table 5.1. Proactivity was not significantly related with any of the demographic variables used in the model. Significant relations were found between PP, ORC, OCC, job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction ($r = .26, p < .01$, $r = .53, p < .01$, $r = .54, p < .01$

and $r = .28, p < .01$, respectively). Political skills were related significantly with experience alone amongst other demographic variables ($r = .16, p < .05$). Political skills were also significantly related with ORC and OCC ($r = .22, p < .01$ and $r = .30, p < .01$). Proactivity and political skills were found to be significantly and moderately related with each other ($r = .41, p < .01$) as also suggested in previous research (Liu *et al.*, in press). Job satisfaction was significantly related with ORC ($r = .41, p < .01$) and occupational satisfaction was significantly related with OCC ($r = .31, p < .01$). Lastly, OCC and occupational satisfaction were found to be highly related ($r = .64, p < .01$).

Table 5.2 reports results of regression analysis done to test the different hypotheses of the study. No significant relationships were found between any of the control variables and the model outcomes. To test for mediation hypotheses – following the three steps given by Baron and Kenney (1986) - the mediators (job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction) were regressed on the independent variable (PP) as shown in Model 1 and Model 2 of Table 5.2. Results showed that PP has a positive relationship with job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction ($\beta = .54, p < .01$; $\beta = .28, p < .01$). Thus, the relationship between the independent variables and the mediator has been established. Second, the dependent variables (ORC and OCC) are related to the independent variable (PP). Model 3 shows that PP is positively related to ORC ($\beta = .26, p < .01$). This result confirms H1a of our conceptual model. We checked for mediation of job satisfaction in the PP-ORC relationship in Model 4 of Table 5.2. Results show that effects of PP on ORC are no more significant when job satisfaction is entered in the equation ($\beta = .06, n.s.$). Job satisfaction shows significant relationship with ORC ($\beta = .37, p < .01$). These results indicate mediation of job satisfaction in the PP – ORC relationship. The Sobel test

(Sobel, 1982) was conducted to verify whether job satisfaction was a significant mediator of the relationship, results of which supported the mediation of job satisfaction ($z = 3.65, p < .01$). Thus H2 could be confirmed.

In Model 4a, we put occupational satisfaction in addition to PP and job satisfaction to check if occupational satisfaction could also mediate this relationship, although this was not hypothesized. Results showed that both occupational satisfaction and job satisfaction fully mediated the PP-ORC relationship although effects were stronger for job satisfaction than for occupational satisfaction ($\beta = .19, p < .01$; $\beta = .33, p < .05$, respectively). In Model 5 we tested for H1b which related to the positive relationship between PP and OCC. Results showed that PP is positively related to OCC ($\beta = .53, p < .01$). This result confirmed H1b. In Model 6 we tested for proposed mediation of occupational satisfaction in the PP – OCC relationship. Results showed that effects of PP were significantly reduced upon entering occupational satisfaction in the equation ($\beta = .18, p < .05$ from $\beta = .53, p < .01$). Occupational satisfaction was significantly related to OCC ($\beta = .47, p < .01$). These results suggest partial mediation of occupational satisfaction in the PP – OCC relationship. Results of Sobel test also indicated partial mediation of occupational satisfaction in PP – OCC link ($z = 2.60, p < .01$) thus confirming H3. Just as in model 4a, we entered both job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction in addition to PP in model 6a to confirm which variable is a stronger mediator in PP-OCC relationship. Results indicated that both job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction partially mediated the PP-OCC relationship as the effects of PP were significantly reduced ($\beta = .24, p < .01$). However, although both job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction mediated this relationship, effects were stronger for job satisfaction than for occupational satisfaction ($\beta = .48, p < .01$ and $\beta = .10, p < .10$, respectively).

Right side of Table 5.2 shows test of H4a and H4b which related to moderation of political skills in the relationship between PP - ORC and OCC relationship. First, we regressed ORC on PP and political skills and results in model 7 show that both were related positively to ORC ($\beta = .20, p < .05$; $\beta = .14, p < .10$ respectively). In model 8 the interaction term of PP X political skills was also added. Results showed that interaction of PP X political skills was significantly related to ORC ($\beta = .14, p < .10$). In order to examine the nature and form of the interactions more closely, we plotted them using procedures by Aiken and West (1991). They are graphically illustrated in Figure 5.1. There appears to be sufficient evidence to support the hypothesis that political skills strengthen the positive relationship between PP and ORC. Thus H4a can be confirmed. OCC was regressed on PP and political skills in Model 9. Results showed that only PP was significantly related to OCC while political skills was not ($\beta = .48, p < .01$; $\beta = .12, n.s.$). In Model 10 interaction term of PP X political skills was added to test for H4b. Results showed that political skills did not moderate the relationship between PP – OCC ($\beta = -.05, n.s.$). This means that H4b could not be confirmed.

Table 5.1: Means, correlations and alpha reliabilities of model variables - Pakistani hospital sample (N = 181)

Variables	Mean	SD	Reliability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.Sex	1.46	.50										
2.Age	1.50	.50		.05								
3.Marital status	1.37	.48		-.09	-.06							
4.Work experience	1.48	.50		.03	.36**	-.03						
5. PP	3.59	.59	.84	-.15	.05	-.10	-.07					
6.Political skills	3.91	.51	.75	-.14	.13	-.07	.16*	.41**				
7. Job satisfaction	3.69	.65	.80	-.10	.07	.04	-.02	.54**	.30**			
8. Occupational satisfaction	3.81	.63	.72	-.13	.09	-.01	.10	.28**	.70**	.31**		
9. ORC	3.06	.85	.82	.02	.13	-.03	.02	.26**	.22**	.41**	.30**	
10. OCC	4.19	.68	.86	-.09	.06	.01	-.09	.53**	.30**	.64**	.31**	.43**

Notes. **p<.01, *p<.05; Sex: 1 = Male, 2 = female; Age: 1 = less than 40, 2 = more than 40 years; Marital status: 1 = single, 2 = Married; Experience: 1 = less than 10 years, 2 = more than 10 years.

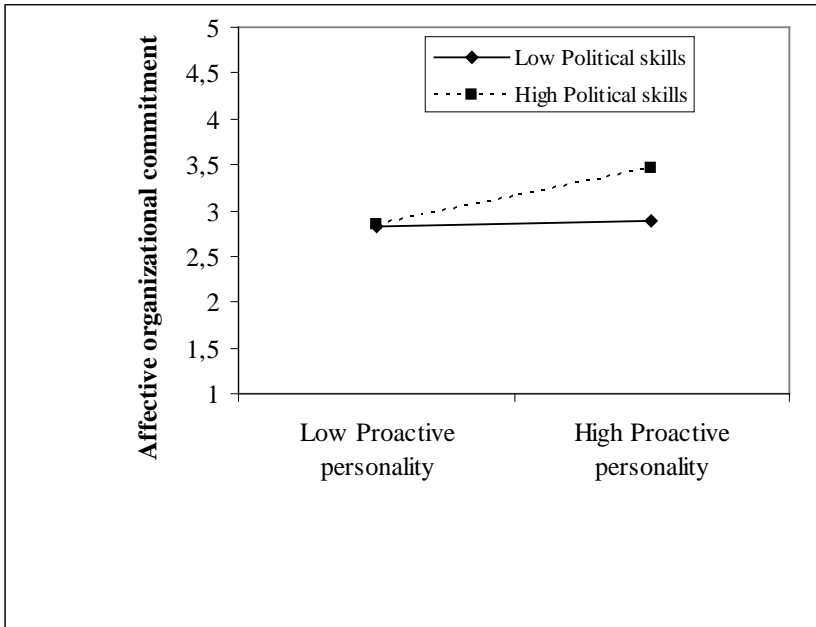
Table 5.2: Results of regression analysis showing mediation moderation model – Pakistani hospital sample (N=181)

Variable	JS <i>Model 1</i>	OS <i>Model 2</i>	ORC (H1a) <i>Model 3</i>	ORC (H2) <i>Model 4</i>	ORC <i>Model 4a</i>	OCC (H1b) <i>Model 5</i>	OCC (H3) <i>Model 6</i>	OCC <i>Model 6a</i>	ORC (H4a) <i>Model 7 & 8</i>	OCC (H4b) <i>Model 9 & 10</i>		
	<i>Mediation Model</i>					<i>Moderation Model</i>						
Sex	-.00	-.09	.06	.06	.07	-.01	.00	.10	.07	.07	-.0	-.00
Age	.04	.04	.12	.10	.10	.07	.06	.04	.11	.09	.06	.07
Marital status	.07	.00	-.01	-.03	-.02	.07	.07	.02	-.00	.00	.08	.08
Experience	-.01	.10	-.02	-.01	-.03	-.07	-.09	-.09	-.04	-.04	-.09	-.09
PP	.54**	.28**	.26**	.06	.02	.53**	.18*	.24**	.20*	.17*	.48**	.49**
Political skills									.14 [†]	.15 [†]	.12	.11
JS				.37**	.33*			.48**				
OS					.19**		.47**	.10 [†]				
^{5.3} PSXPP									.14 [†]			-.05
R2	.31	.11	.09	.18	.21	.54	.32	.47	.10	.12	.30	.30
F	12,938**	3,425*	5,536**	2,818*	6,723**	11,502**	11,745*	21,871**	2,882**	2,995**	10,540**	9,294**

Notes: **p<.01, *p<.05, [†]P<.10, All beta coefficients appearing in the table are standardized.

^{5.3} Although not hypothesized, interaction of political skills with job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction was also calculated to study its impact on ORC and OCC respectively, however no significant interactions were found. Alike, job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction were regressed on political skill X PP with no significant interaction term suggesting that political skills only moderated the relationship between PP and ORC in the model, as expected.

Figure 5.1: Two-way Interaction effects between political skills and PP on ORC - Study 1



5.5 Retesting the study hypotheses

The goal of the second study was to critically assess the form and magnitude of the relationships between PP and employee commitment and further seek potential convergence with the findings from Study 1 by using data from a distinct sample. Thus, in comparison to Study 1, for Study 2 we deliberately chose a distinctly different sample but tried to keep other aspects such as instruments used to measure the different constructs and control variables the same to formulate a replication study. This replication approach is expected to provide more confidence in the validity and generalizability of our findings, should results converge for the two studies.

5.6 Study 2: Methods

5.6.1 Sample and procedures

^{5.4}This sample constituted a large Pakistani university located in public sector. Using random sampling approach, 750 chapter versions of the questionnaire were distributed through interoffice mail in sealed envelope addressing the employee directly. A reminder mail was sent after two weeks so as to solicit a higher response rate. 230 of the employees responded making a response rate of 31%. The sample was distributed as follows: 56 % of the respondents were males. 46% was less than 40 years of age, 57% single, and 49% had an experience of less than 10 years at the university.

5.6.2 Measures

The same scales were used as in study 1 to measure ORC, OCC, PP, political skills, job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction with slight change of words (such as name of organization) to keep the study similar to previous one.

Control variables: To make this study as much similar to study 1, we controlled for the same variables in study 2 as in study 1 (i.e. age, sex, marital status and experience). The variables were coded the same way as in study 1.

Just as in previous study; since data was collected from four faculties of the university at individual level, we computed interclass correlation coefficient (Bliese, 2000) to check for differences in ORC and OCC of employees with respect to their department. The intra class correlation for ORC was found 0.11 meaning that eleven percent of the

^{5.4} We are thankful to Professor Dr. Tariq Mehmood who helped us in data collection for this sample.

variance (of ORC) occurs between the different departments, and 89 percent of the variance is related to the individual level. Similarly the ICC1 turned out to be 0.09 for OCC thus showing almost 9% variance at the department level. Since reasonable amount of variance is explained at the departmental level in the employee outcomes, we checked the results at the departmental level using multi level techniques which showed no significant differences from the uni level results. Thus we decided not to continue with multi level analysis and results because purpose of this study was to study individual level differences.

Common method variance: For this study again, since all data are self-reported and collected through the same questionnaire during the same period of time Harman's one factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) was used to investigate the potential influence of common method variance. Results of principal factor analysis, using varimax rotation, showed that neither the first (largest) factor accounted for a majority of the variance (24.5%), nor was there a general factor that accounted for the majority of the covariance in these variables. The results again suggested absence of common method variance for this sample as well.

5.7 Results

The means, standard deviations, intercorrelations and alpha reliabilities of all the variables are shown in Table 5.3. Proactivity was not significantly related with any of the demographic variables used in the model. Significant relationships were found between PP on one hand and ORC and OCC, job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction on the other hand ($r = .26, p < .01$, $r = .52, p < .01$, $r = .52, p < .01$ and $r = .31, p < .01$). Political skills was

related significantly with sex, age and experience amongst other demographic variables ($r = -.15, p < .05, r = .13, p < .05, r = .15, p < .05$ respectively). Political skills was also significantly related with ORC and OCC ($r = .19, p < .01$ and $r = .27, p < .01$). Proactivity and political skills were also found to be significantly and moderately related in this sample with each other ($r = .45, p < .01$) as also suggested in previous research. Job satisfaction was significantly related with ORC ($r = .39, p < .01$) and occupational satisfaction was significantly related with OCC ($r = .27, p < .01$).

Table 5.4 reports results of regression analysis done to test different hypotheses of the study. No significant relationships were found between any of the control variables and the model outcomes, as in study 1. Applying Baron and Kenny (1986), a series of three-regression equations were estimated to test whether there is a mediating effect of job and occupational satisfaction on the relationship between PP and employee ORC and OCC. In the first equation, the mediators (job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction) are regressed on the independent variable (PP). Model 1 and model 2 in Table 5.4 shows that PP has a positive relationship with job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction for sample 2 also ($\beta = .52, p < .01; \beta = .31, p < .01$). Thus, the relationship between the independent variables and the mediator has been established. Second, the dependent variables (ORC and OCC) are related to the independent variable (PP). Model 3 shows that PP is positively relate to ORC ($\beta = .24, p < .01$). This result confirms H1a of our conceptual model as in sample 1. Next we checked for mediation of job satisfaction in the PP-ORC relationship in model 4. Results show that effects of PP on ORC are no more significant when job satisfaction is entered in the equation ($\beta = .06, n.s.$). Job satisfaction shows significant relationship with ORC ($\beta = .35, p < .01$). These results indicate mediation of job satisfaction in

the PP – ORC relationship. Results of Sobel test also indicated partial mediation of job satisfaction in PP – ORC link ($z = 4.02, p < .01$) thus confirming H2. Just as we did in our first sample, we put occupational satisfaction in addition to PP and job satisfaction to check if occupational satisfaction could also mediate this relationship in model 4a. Results showed that both occupational satisfaction and job satisfaction fully mediated the PP-ORC relationship although effects were stronger for job satisfaction than for occupational satisfaction in this sample as well ($\beta = .33, p < .01$; $\beta = .15, p < .05$ respectively). In model 5 we tested for H1b which related to the positive relationship between PP and OCC. Results showed that PP is positively related to OCC ($\beta = .52, p < .01$). This result confirmed H1b. In model 6 we tested for proposed mediation of occupational satisfaction in the PP – OCC relationship. Results showed that effects of PP were significantly reduced upon entering occupational satisfaction in the equation ($\beta = .48, p < .01$ from $\beta = .52, p < .01$). Occupational satisfaction was significantly related to OCC ($\beta = .13, p < .05$). These results suggest partial mediation of occupational satisfaction in the PP – OCC relationship. Results of Sobel test also indicated mediation of occupational satisfaction in PP – OCC link ($z = 2.91, p < .01$) thus confirming H3. Just as in model 4a and in study 1, we entered both job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction in addition to PP in model 6a to confirm which variable is a stronger mediator in PP-OCC relationship. Results indicated that unlike sample 1, only job satisfaction partially mediated the PP-OCC relationship as the effects of PP were significantly reduced ($\beta = .27, p < .01$). Mediation effects were stronger and significant for job satisfaction while effects of occupational satisfaction were small and non significant ($\beta = .43, p < .01$; $\beta = .07, n.s.$).

Table 5.3: Means, correlations and alpha reliabilities of model variables - Pakistani university sample (N = 230)

Variables	Mean	SD	Reliability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.Sex	1.44	.50										
2.Age	1.46	.50		.03								
3.Marital status	1.43	.49		-.04	-.10							
4.Work experience	1.51	.50		.03	.39**	-.04						
5. PP	3.61	.55	.84	-.13	.07	-.12	-.06					
6.Political skills	3.90	.51	.73	-.15*	.13*	-.10	.15*	.45**				
7. Job satisfaction	3.69	.64	.78	-.05	.11	-.00	.00	.52**	.31**			
8. Occupational satisfaction	3.80	.61	.69	-.11	.10	-.03	.11	.31**	.72**	.29**		
9. ORC	3.03	.84	.81	.02	.15*	-.11	.01	.26**	.19**	.39**	.26**	
10. OCC	4.18	.68	.85	-.06	.05	-.01	-.12	.52**	.27**	.59**	.27**	.43**

Notes. **p<.01, *p<.05; Sex: 1 = Male, 2 = female; Age: 1 = less than 40, 2 = more than 40 years; Marital status: 1 = single, 2 = Married; Experience: 1 = less than 10 years, 2 = more than 10 years.

Table 5.4: Results of regression analysis showing mediation and moderation model - Pakistani university sample (N = 230)

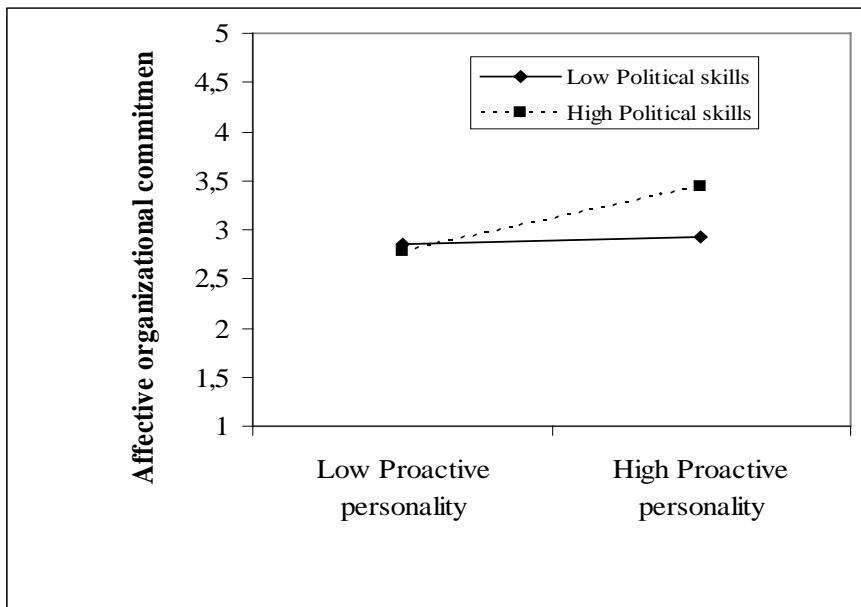
Variables	JS Model 1	OS Model 2	ORC (H1a) Model 3	ORC (H2) Model 4	ORC Model 4a	OCC (H1b) Model 5	OCC (H3) Model 6	OCC Model 6a	ORC (H4a) Model 7&8	OCC (H4b) Model 9& 10		
	Mediation Model						Moderation Model					
Sex	.03	-.07	.06	.05	.06	.00	.01	.00	.07	.07	.01	.01
Age	.07	.03	.13	.10	.10	.06	.06	.02	.12	.11	.06	.06
Marital status	.05	.01	-.08	-.09	-.09	.07	.06	.02	-.08	-.07	.07	.07
Experience	-.01	.12	-.04	-.03	-.05	-.09	-.11	-.11	-.06	-.05	-.11	-.11
PP	.52**	.31**	.24**	.06	.03	.52**	.48**	.27**	.20**	.18*	.49**	.50**
PS									.09	.11 [†]	-.06	.06
JS				.35**	.33**			.43**				
OS					.15*		.13*	.07				
^{5.5} PSXPP										.15*		-.03
R2	.18	.10	.10	.18	.20	.29	.30	.43	.11	.13	.29	.29
F	8.190**	4.248**	4.064**	7.114**	7.888*	14.997*	13.721**	24.019*	3.727**	4.060**	12.996**	11.373**

Notes: **p<.01, *p<.05, [†]p<.10. All beta coefficients appearing in the table are standardized.

^{5.5} Although not hypothesized, interaction of political skills with job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction was also calculated to study its impact on ORC and OCC respectively, however no significant interactions were found. Alike, job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction were regressed on political skill X PP with no significant interaction term suggesting that political skills only moderated the relationship between PP and ORC in the model, as expected.

Right side of table 5.4 show test of H4a and H4b which related to moderation of political skills in the relationship between PP- ORC and PP – OCC relationship. First, we regressed ORC on PP and political skills and results in model 7 show that unlike study 1, only PP was related positively to ORC while political skills was not related to ORC ($\beta = .20, p < .01$; $\beta = .09, n.s.$ respectively). In model 8 the interaction term of PP X political skills was also added. Results showed that interaction of PP X political skills was significantly related to ORC ($\beta = .15, p < .05$). Here again we plotted the interaction to examine its nature and form more closely. Figure 5.2 demonstrates quite similar results as we obtained for study 1.

Figure 5.2: Two-way interaction effects between political skills and PP on ORC-Study 2



Political skills strengthen the positive relationship between PP and ORC in such a way that the positive effects of PP are more functional for individuals

high in political skills than they are for those low in political skills. Thus H4a can be confirmed for study 2 also. Just as in model 7, OCC was regressed on PP and political skills in model 9. Results showed that here also only PP was significantly related to OCC while political skills was not ($\beta = .49, p < .01$; $\beta = -.06, n.s.$). In model 10 interaction term of PP X political skills was entered in addition to PP and political skills to retest for H4b. Results showed that political skills did not moderate the relationship between PP – OCC ($\beta = -.03, n.s.$). H4b could not be confirmed for any of the studies.

5.8 Discussion and conclusions

In this chapter, we examined the impact of an important personality trait proactive personality (PP) on employee affective commitment towards two foci i.e. organization and occupation. Most of the existing models of employee commitment talk in terms of relationships with organizational and situational criterion with a few exceptions studying various personality traits as predictors. In this study, the intention was to explore potential mechanisms by which the relationship between PP and employee commitment is executed. This led us to study the extent of employee commitment to both job and occupation, at the same time examining the role of employee political skills. These, we have suggested, should have a strengthening influence on the effects of PP on employee commitment.

The study findings generally supported our hypotheses such as PP was positively related to ORC and OCC as stated in H1a and H1b. This result suggests that employees with a PP can manipulate their work environment in desirable ways and feel better control over their jobs and occupational environments. This leads to the development of perceived feelings of emotional attachment and being at home, more comfortable with

their organization. This finding extends current employee-organizational relationships literature (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000; Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996). Models of ORC and OCC thus need to include personality traits also in addition to post employment experiences, organizational and situational variables as their antecedents.

PP was also found to be positively related to job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction. Research has shown that dispositions influence the way in which employees perceive their jobs, which consequently affects their job and occupational satisfaction (Bowling, Beehr, Wagner & Libkuman, 2005) and thus ultimately translating into higher ORC and OCC. In H2 and H3, we expected that job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction would provide a mediating link in the relationship between PP-ORC and PP-OCC respectively. These two hypotheses were also thoroughly supported in both studies. The results extend important knowledge in the PP literature by identifying job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction as mediating mechanisms. These results however, can not be verified from past research due to lack of research on these linkages. Important to note here that when job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction were entered together to check for mediation effects in the PP-ORC and PP-OCC relationship, both the job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction mediated the two models, although effects were stronger for job satisfaction as a mediator in the hospital sample i.e. study 1. For study 2 also, both job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction mediated the PP-ORC relationship, although here again effects of job satisfaction as a mediator were stronger. However, occupational satisfaction did not mediate the PP-OCC relationship when job satisfaction was also entered in the model and job satisfaction proved to be the only mediator. These results gain support from the correlation matrix where PP is more strongly related to job satisfaction than occupational satisfaction in

both samples and suggest that proactive people are more satisfied with their jobs than their occupational satisfaction and job satisfaction of proactive people leads to their higher commitment both with their organization and occupation. Note worthy are also the strong correlation of job satisfaction with OCC in both samples.

Lastly, in H4a and H4b we expected political skills to moderate the PP – ORC and PP – OCC relationship between PP and ORC. H4a was supported as political skills significantly moderated the relationship. This means that ORC of employees who are more proactive and are more politically skilled is greater than the employees whose political skills are not so strong but are proactive. This moderating role of political skills in the PP – ORC could be explained using Ferris *et al.*'s (1999, 2005) conceptualization of political skills as an interpersonal construct. Employees with more political skills are in greater demand for pro social activities than their moderately skilled counterparts. This means that such employees “put forth extra effort on the job” (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986, p. 715).

As noted, political skills did not moderate the PP – OCC relationship which might suggest that political skills refers to interpersonal relationships that are more relevant to an individual's job surroundings i.e. with his colleagues, supervisors and other acting bodies within the organization. Put another way, since political skill is more related to the ability of an individual to understand others at workplace, the construct seems to be more relevant for the ORC than for the OCC of employees. However, political skills seem to have less meaning for commitment where the organization is not the focus. However this relationship needs further clarification because the current study used small sample leading to a possibility that the relationship gains significance if the sample size is large. On the whole, the conclusions of the present study provide evidence that the relationship

between PP and employee outcomes is neither simple nor direct (Thompson, 2005).

5.9 Implications

This study provides an attempt to delineate the mechanism through which PP affects employee commitment. The take home message is to understand the different variants involved in predicting employee commitment – which is a source of competitive advantage. The study is thus expected to produce a guide for the practitioners and management of organizations, on the one hand, and for academics, on the other, in understanding how various employees differ in certain capabilities such as PP and political skills and how such individual differences lead to diverse attitudinal outcomes. Understanding employees and their potential in a better way and how they can act in various situations can lead to their better management. For example, organizations that wish to emphasize committed employees can be more successful if they attract people who have proactive personalities and are more adept in interpersonal skills such as political skills. Organizations might consider reviewing selection procedures with an eye toward identifying and hiring more proactive employees. Thus the study implies that there is value in providing space and opportunity for employees to act proactively in the workplace. Given that PP was related to ORC and that this relationship was further strengthened by political skills of employees in both samples, the employees' ability to behave in a proactive and politically skilful way appears to constitute an organizational asset. As noted before, where PP is a relatively stable personality trait, political skills and can be learned and developed so organizational management might facilitate employee learning in ways that contributes to development of their political

skills. For instance, organizations may think of assigning skilled mentors and provide other developmental experiences to their employees, which can result in their better political abilities and can ultimately create positive change by influencing important attitudes and behaviours.

5.10 Strengths

The research employed two distinct samples and results provided convergent support for positive relationships between PP and the two foci of commitment in two different studies utilizing different occupational samples. One sample constituted the doctors at a private sector hospital and the other sample constituted academic staff of a public sector university. The pattern of results was consistent for both samples; thus the results provided some initial evidence of generalizability and demand additional research. The research contributes to the literature by examining the so far untested link between PP, ORC and OCC and examining the possible mediators and moderator of the model.

It is noteworthy that we conducted this research in the context of a non-western culture. Most of the extant PP and commitment research has been based on US and other western samples. Thus one important contribution of our research is to show that PP is associated with desirable processes and outcomes in a non-western culture. The study took place in an international context where the country's prevailing social norms and expectations were quite different from Seibert *et al.*'s investigation on PP of US organizations.

5.11 Limitations and research perspective

The results of this study are synonymic to its limitations. The cross-sectional nature of the data, for instance, leaves room for speculation with regard to causality among the variables. It does not rule out, for instance, the possibility that highly committed employees grow to consider themselves more proactive over time. Longitudinal research on the process of PP is critical to further substantiate the conclusions of this study. This study, like most studies of PP (Crant, 1995; Crant & Bateman, 2000; Seibert *et al.*, 1999, 2001), relies on self-reported indicators of constructs by employees who volunteered to participate. Although Herman's one factor test did not support existence of self report bias for both samples, the results are however prone to bias and call for future research that removes this limitation. Future research should examine other variables that might mediate the relationship between PP and individual outcomes. Potential mediating variables include building a social network, active career planning and personal initiative. It is also important to mention that this study was conducted in a Pakistani context where HR policies and practices are not much formalized and therefore the importance of political skills as social effectiveness ability may be stronger in day to day dealings and working environments of organizations. It would be interesting to replicate this study by comparing data across cultures, for example U.S. and other European countries to check for robustness of the conceptual model presented here. Other potential moderators of the model such as gender, age and career stage may also be tested. Finally, a natural extension of this study would be to expand the model and include other dispositions such as five factor model and determine whether they add incremental variance beyond those included in the present study.

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6.1 Exploring the Linkages between Motivation and Commitment; the Meditating Role of Work Engagement

^{6.1} This chapter is a modified version of a manuscript that is under review at *Journal of Vocational Behavior* as Yousaf, A., Sanders, K., & Yang, H. 2010. A short version of this chapter was presented in paper form at 11th International HRM conference, Birmingham in June 2010.

Abstract

The present article examined underlying linkages between employees' intrinsic motivation (IM), extrinsic motivation (EM) and two forms of affective commitment-organizational affective commitment (ORC) and occupational affective commitment (OCC). The meditational role of work engagement in the IM – OCC relationship was also studied. Data was collected from two samples including academic and support staff at a Dutch university (N=153) and doctors at a Pakistani hospital (N = 181). It was hypothesized that the two dimensions of IM, *challenge*, and *enjoyment* are related to OCC, the two dimensions of EM, *compensation*, and *outward* are related to ORC and that the IM-OCC relationship is mediated by the three elements of work engagement (WE), i.e. *vigour*, *dedication*, and *absorption*. We gained mixed support for our expectations: Only *challenge* was related to OCC and this relationship was mediated by *dedication* and *absorption* dimension of WE in the Dutch and Pakistani sample respectively. *Compensation* was related to ORC for the Pakistani sample of employees; while no aspect of EM was related to ORC in the Dutch sample. Implications of the two studies are discussed.

Key words: Intrinsic motivation; extrinsic motivation; affective organizational commitment; affective occupational commitment; work engagement.

6.1 Introduction

A common feature of the best employers as listed in *Fortune* magazine's 100 Best Companies to Work for in America is that they engage employees who are intrinsically motivated and highly committed to the organization (Joo & Lim, 2009). It may be inferred

that intrinsically motivated and highly committed employees are the key to the source of competitive advantage. Viewed from this point, intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment are considered important constructs in the human resources (HR) and organizational behaviour field.

In addition to organizational commitment employees can be committed affectively to their occupation. While *affective organizational commitment* (ORC) refers to an employee's emotional attachment to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990) - employees remain in the organization because they *want to* do so (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1). *Affective occupational commitment* (OCC) refers to an employee's emotional identification with his or her work goals and occupation (Lee, Carswell & Allen, 2000; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994, p. 535). Individuals who are committed to their occupation strongly identify with and have positive feelings about their occupation. Although ORC and OCC have been of interest to organizational psychologists and practitioners for decades; most of the existing research has focused on exploring the antecedents of organizational commitment (Cohen, 2003). There is however a growing need to study employees' OCC and the factors that are responsible to enhance it or predict it and to compare these results to organizational affective commitment (Blau & Lunz, 1998).

Professionals have often been reported in the literature to have conflicting organizational and occupational commitments or to be more

committed to their occupations than their organizations. Wallace (1995) suggested that if we want to understand the relationship between professionals and what affects their commitment to the profession and the organization, we need to look beyond the structural characteristics of the workplace and examine certain work orientations of individual professionals, specifically their work motivation, in examining professional commitment. They further suggest that factors such as an individual's orientations or dispositions toward professional work are more relevant to understanding professional commitment and highlight need for future research to gain a more comprehensive picture of the factors responsible for such variations in professional and organizational commitment across different work settings.

Although Fortune mentioned commitment and motivation in one sentence, extant research findings suggest that too little attention has been focused on the commitment and motivation simultaneously (Joo & Lim, 2009), consequently they appear to evolve independently in the organizational psychology literature (Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004). *Intrinsic motivation* (IM) is defined as the motivation to work primarily because the work itself is interesting and satisfying (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey & Tighe, 1994). It refers to an innate psychological desire of an individual to learn, to grow, to prosper and to self actualize, and has been reported to flourish through the provision of enriching situational and job characteristics (Amabile *et al.*, 1994; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Herzberg; 1966). *Extrinsic Motivation* (EM), on the other hand, refers to doing something because of its association with a separable outcome (Amabile *et al.*, 1994; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Therefore, extrinsically motivated behaviors are guided by externally administered rewards including pay, material possessions, prestige and positive evaluations from others (Bateman & Crant, 2003). In the literature on motivation, we find

strong evidence that both types of motivations i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic have been associated with unique employee outcomes: IM has been linked to long term effects such as job satisfaction and performance; EM has been linked to short term effects such as performance that are not sustained for longer and need continuous ‘kick backs’ (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959).

The present article is an effort to draw meaningful relationships between intrinsic motivation (IM), extrinsic motivation (EM), as the antecedents of two foci of affective commitment, i.e., the occupational and organizational commitment of employees. Our main research question was “*How do intrinsic and extrinsic motivation relate to employees’ ORC and OCC?*”

The second goal of the current research was to examine if work engagement (WE) could be a potential mechanism to explain the expected relationship between IM and OCC. WE is a motivational construct and has been described as crucially dependent on the motivational state of employees (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). It refers to a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by *vigour*, *dedication*, and *absorption* (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 295). Employees are found to be engaged in work in situations which offer them psychological meaningfulness. This means that work conditions that satisfy employee’s motivational orientations may be considered as a precursor to the employee WE. Given the limited research on employee engagement, there has been little in the way of model or theory development (Saks, 2006); however we expect that individuals who have deep engagement in their work roles are those who are intrinsically motivated to do their work and should therefore, also identify with their occupation thus providing a possibility of WE as the mediating link and a major contributor in the IM-OCC relationship. Thus our next

research question was as follows “*Does WE mediate the relationship between IM – OCC*”?

In sum, the current study was expected to provide valuable contributions to existing theory on ORC and OCC by examining motivational predictors of ORC and OCC and thus providing interesting and useful extension to commitment literature and by using the framework of work engagement to explain the possible linkages between IM and OCC.

6.2 Theory and hypotheses

6.2.1 Underlying relationship between intrinsic motivation and occupational commitment

Amabile *et al.* (1994) separate the intrinsic motivation into the sub dimensions *challenge* and *enjoyment*. *Challenge* is driven by motivation from difficult and complex tasks. In the *enjoyment* sub dimension, motivation is driven by curiosity and self-expression in work.

Intrinsic motivation (IM) has been linked to the outcomes that are both desirable and sustainable from an organizational viewpoint such as job satisfaction (Moon, 2000), conceptual and creative thinking, performance, willingness to engage in other tasks (Deci & Ryan, 1987), positive feelings, performance (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Herzberg, 1966; Moon, 2000) and turnover intentions (Herzberg, 1966). Surprisingly however, the relationship between IM and OCC remains largely unexplored.

We expected a strong positive relationship between both dimensions of IM and OCC on the following ground. Maslow’s (1943) quote in his although old but famous need hierarchy theory “*a musician must play music*” illustrates the relationship we propose. Amabile *et al.* (1994) suggested that those people, who score high on the *enjoyment* dimension,

usually prefer to set their own goals and work things out for themselves. When somebody is self determined to do an activity and also seeks *enjoyment* in it, it becomes sufficient to assume that s/he will stick to that activity for the rest of her/his life (Deci & Ryan, 1985). On the other hand, people who score high on *challenge* as a motivator tend to enjoy solving new and complex problems. Straightforward tasks are unsatisfying for them; they usually prefer work that stretches their abilities (Amabile *et al.*, 1994). Challenge in work is thus the driving force and motivator for such people and keeps them committed to their line of work. Stated differently, intrinsically motivated employees possess the propensity or inherent desire for their line of work. This means that doing an activity in which one is interested (because one enjoys doing it or finds it challenging or a combination of both) can lead to one's higher order growth needs being met, resulting in greater satisfaction and contentment with what one is doing and stimulating the intention to continue the activity as the most natural consequent behaviour (Maslow, 1943).

Individuals having high commitment to their occupation, show willingness to remain in the occupation despite the constraints placed upon them by external factors (Ladebo, 2005). This evidence suggests that external factors are not a significant determinant of commitment to one's line of occupation but it is the intrinsic motivators that shape this commitment focus. OCC can thus be understood as a precursor for the behaviours that are uninfluenced by any forms of external controls because its stems from an individual's inner most desire to work in a particular occupation. An employee's sense of *enjoyment* and affiliation with the work s/he does becomes the main guiding and driving force. Such employees tend to identify more with their occupation or profession leading to higher levels of commitment (Steers, 1977). Intrinsically motivated employees were thus

expected to show greater disposition towards their work, be more enthusiastic problem solvers, be more innovative, and thus be more likely to remain in their occupation. This led us to the development of the following hypothesis:

H1. Challenge (a) and enjoyment (b) are positively related to employees' occupational affective commitment:

6.2.2 Underlying relationship between extrinsic motivation and organizational commitment

Amabile *et al.* (1994) divide EM into two dimensions, *outward* and *compensation*. In the *outward* subdimension, EM is driven by a need for recognition and sensitivity to the opinions of others with regard to one's work and ideas. *Outward* motivators judge their success relative to what others think and want recognition at work. The second EM subdimension is *compensation*. *Compensation* signifies motivation from financial rewards for one's work. Thus people extrinsically motivated from the *compensation* dimension are usually very aware of their income and promotion goals, and do not usually take up the positions which do not satisfy these motivational needs (Amabile *et al.*, 1994).

Although many studies report that IM produces long term desirable attitudes, some study findings also suggest that extrinsically motivated employees exhibiting sustainable effects such as higher levels of organizational commitment (Moon, 2000). Borrowing some aspects of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), we expected that employees would be unlikely to produce without the expectation that they would receive external benefits in exchange for effort. Knoke and Wright-Isak (1982) suggest the following in their predisposition/opportunity model:

"Whether a member decides to commit himself or herself to the group depends upon the relationship between the individual's motivational predisposition and the type of organization incentive system. That is, individual predispositions must match the organizational opportunity structure before action is initiated. The absence of either element will result in no forthcoming commitments from individuals" (p. 210).

They further argue that organizations can expect favourable responses when incentives and individual motives are congruent. Therefore, employees who value rewards and external benefits more i.e., those higher on the extrinsic motivation dimension are expected to be more committed to their organization; employees who have low EM orientations may not value such rewards and be less committed to the organization.

Extrinsic forms of control such as targets, deadlines, fear of punishment or hope of rewards, monetary incentives in the form of an increase in pay or promotions, recognition by supervisors, feedback, etc., are implemented by the organization and individuals whose extrinsic desires are met are perceived to be satisfied with the organization. Extrinsic rewards or motivators also provide these employees with a sense of security in the form of the material inducements that are necessary to fulfil their basic physical needs. In turn, the individuals tend to reciprocate through higher levels of organizational commitment (Blau, 1964). Therefore employees demonstrate favourable responses and tend to repay the organization through higher commitment when their expectations are met and what the organization offers is congruent with their motives. Thus, we proposed that the two sub dimensions of EM are related to ORC:

H2: Compensation (a) and outward (b) are positively related to employee's organizational commitment.

6.2.3 Work engagement as a mediator

Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker (2002) divide work engagement (WE) into three subdimensions. *Vigour* refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. *Dedication* is characterized by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and *challenge* at work. *Absorption* refers to being fully concentrated, happy, and deeply engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly, and one has difficulty detaching oneself from work. Thus, work engagement refers to the degree to which an individual is attentive, dedicated and absorbed in the performance of his/her work roles.

In the current study we argue that WE may function as a mediating variable in the impact of work motivation on employee commitment to their occupation. Intrinsic motivation appears to be crucial in keeping employees engaged at work. Empirical results suggest the logical fact that individuals who find an activity stimulating and absorbing (or are intrinsically motivated to do a certain task) also tend to be engaged in performing it (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). Intrinsically motivated individuals tend to be more engaged in their work activity while less motivated employees spend less time on the activity (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). Also, intrinsically motivated employees experience greater physical and psychological well being and thus a higher sense of internal regulation than those who are externally regulated (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Consequently they are reported to be more engaged in work (Meyer & Gagne, 2008). Engaged employees have a sense of energetic and effective connection with their work activities and they see themselves as being able to deal completely with the demands of their job. With task participation and work engagement come feelings of competence, mastery, or self-efficacy. In this vein, it may be expected that when employees feel

vigorous, involved, and happy with their job / profession (i.e. engaged), they may experience positive perceptions of their occupation and this positive state of general well being at work may keep them committed to their occupation. Thus, it could be inferred that although IM can be pivotal in influencing the OCC of employees, this relationship is routed through internalized cognitions of employees' sense of engagement with their work and work engagement provides a valuable linkage in the establishment of this relationship. This means that this IM - OCC relationship is realized through the formation of employees' sense of work engagement. This led us to the development of the following hypothesis:

H3: Vigour, dedication, and absorption mediate the relationship between challenge and OCC (a) and between enjoyment and OCC (b) of employees.

6.3 Study 1: Method

6.3.1 Sample and procedures

^{6.2}Using a random sampling approach, we collected data from both academic and support staff of a Dutch university. An online questionnaire was developed and sent through electronic mail to 752 of the total employees. Respondents were assured confidentiality. After two weeks a reminder was sent through email. A final reminder was sent at the end of the fourth week. Personal visits were also made to solicit a higher response rate. Out of the total of 752 mails sent to the target sample, 18 mails remained undeliverable for various reasons, thus reducing the sample to 734. A total of 153 employees responded; making a response rate of approximately 21%. Sixty-one percent of the respondents were male, 56% were under 40 years of age,

^{6.2} We are thankful to Jordy Joristma who helped us in data collection for this sample.

78% were married, 67% had an experience of less than 10 years at the university, 73% were either permanently employed or had prospects of permanent employment (tenure track), and 78% were Dutch nationals.

6.3.2 Measures

Affective organizational and occupational commitment: Four items were used from the scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) to measure affective organizational commitment, with slight modification of the wordings. A sample item is, "I consider problems of the university (name of the university) my own problems".

We measured affective occupational commitment using a four items from the scale developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993). An example is, "I am proud of my occupation".

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation: The work preference inventory developed by Amabile *et al.* (1994) was used to measure IM and EM. Since the inventory was developed to measure IM and EM of both college students and adults, we altered the wording according to the adult sample where necessary. The scale contains two subdimensions, i.e. *enjoyment* and *challenge*; a total of 15 items was used, with eight items on the *enjoyment* subdimension and seven items measuring the *challenge* subdimension. Items on the *enjoyment* subdimension include, "it is important for me to be able to do what I most enjoy". A sample item from the *challenge* subdimension is, "I enjoy trying to solve complex problems".

The EM scale contains two subdimensions, *outward* and *compensation*. It contains a total of 15 items out of which ten items measured the *outward* subdimension and five items measured the *compensation* subdimension. Example item measuring the *outward*

subdimension includes, "I want other people to find out how good I really can be at my work". An example of an item for the *compensation* subdimension is, "I am strongly motivated by the money I can earn".

Work Engagement: A shortened version of the WE scale containing nine items developed and validated by Schaufeli and Salanova (2006) was used. The scale contains three subdimensions, *vigour*, *dedication* and *absorption*, each with three items. Example item for *vigour* include, "At my work, I feel bursting with energy". Example item for *dedication* include, "My job inspires me" and example item for *absorption* include, "get carried away when I am working".

Control variables: Age, gender, marital status and experience we used as controls as they are generally used in studies of the antecedents and consequences of commitment (e.g., Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The controls were coded as follows: Males were assigned 1 and females 2; employees < 40 were assigned 1 and those above 40 were measured by 2; single respondents were categorized as 1 and married as 2; employees with less than 10 years experience at the current organization were categorized as 1 and the remaining 2.

Since data were collected from individual employees in the five faculties of the university, we computed interclass correlation coefficients (Bliese, 2000) to check for differences in the ORC and OCC of employees with respect to their faculty. The intra class correlation for ORC and OCC were found to be 0.08 and 0.06, meaning that only eight percent and six percent of the variance (of ORC and OCC, respectively) occurs between the different faculties, while around 92 to 94% percent of the variance is related to the individual level. Given these interclass correlation, and since our main

interest was to investigate employee-to-employee differences, we did not use the multi level analyses techniques to analyze the data.

Common method variance: Because all data were self-reported and collected using the same questionnaire during the same period of time, Harman's one factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) was used to investigate the potential influence of common method variance. All study variables were entered in a principal factor analysis, using varimax rotation, to determine the number of factors necessary to account for the variance in the variables. The results showed nine factors (*enjoyment, challenge* (two forms of IM), *outward, compensation* (two forms of EM), *vigour dedication, absorption* (three forms of WE), ORC and OCC with an "Eigen value" greater than 1, accounting for 69.43 percent of the variance. The first (largest) factor did not account for a majority of the variance (19.32%), nor was there a general factor that accounted for the majority of the covariance in these variables. These findings suggest that common method variance is not of great concern.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Using Lisrel, we conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine whether the various factors/subdimensions of IM, EM, and WE were different from each other. The results showed that the two factor model of IM was a better fit compared to the one factor model of IM ($\chi^2(89) = 867.74$ and $\chi^2(90) = 1719.85$ respectively; $\Delta \chi^2 = 852.11$, $p < .01$). The results of this analysis confirmed the two factor structure of IM. The two factor model for EM was also demonstrated to be a better fit compared to the one factor model ($\chi^2(89) = 1024.04$ and $\chi^2(90) = 1039.61$ respectively; $\Delta \chi^2 = 15.57$, $p < .01$). The comparison between the three factor model (baseline model) and the one factor model of WE also showed three

factor model to be a better fit compared to the one factor model ($\chi^2 (24) = 243.52$ and $\chi^2 (27) = 330.51$ respectively; $\Delta \chi^2 = 86.89$, $p < .01$). These results of the CFA led us to conduct the subsequent regression analyses while treating all the different factors independently.

6.4 Study 1: Results

Table 6.1 reports the descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, alpha reliabilities and inter-correlations between the different measures. No significant relations were found between *outward, compensation* and ORC ($r = .08$, n.s. and $r = .13$, n.s. respectively). Both *enjoyment* and *challenge* were significantly related to OCC ($r = .20$, $p < .05$; $r = .27$, $p < .01$ respectively). *Vigour, dedication* and *absorption* were significantly related to OCC ($r = .51$, $p < .01$, $r = .75$, $p < .01$; $r = .33$, $p < .01$ respectively).

Table 6.2 reports the results of the regression analyses done to test the hypotheses. Important to note that no significant differences were found between the two categories of employees i.e. academic and support staff at the university with respect to their ORC and OCC; therefore they were treated as one sample for simplicity in the analysis given below. Mean ORC and OCC for the sample of support staff were 3.05 and 4.10, respectively while these means for academic staff were 3.00 and 4.22 respectively. Means of the two groups were compared using t-test and results suggested no significant differences in means across two samples with respect to ORC and OCC ($t = .51$, n.s.; $t = -1.13$, n.s.).

Table 6.1: Means, standard deviations and correlations among variables (N = 153; Dutch university sample)

Variables	Mean	SD	Alpha	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Sex	1.39	.49													
2. Age	1.44	.49		-.01											
3. Marital status	1.22	.42		-.17*	-.22**										
4. Experience	1.35	.52		.19*	.51**	-.12									
5. Enjoyment	3.7	.55	.76	-.02	-.09	.02	-.01								
6. Challenge	3.68	.54	.75	-.12	.03	.05	-.05	.57**							
7. Outward	2.84	.54	.80	-.19*	-.15	.09	-.09	.16	.13						
8. Compensation	2.4	.77	.81	-.21*	-.18*	.14	-.17*	.23**	.14	.37**					
9. Vigour	3.68	.61	.68	.02	.18*	.06	.15	.41**	.43**	.03	.08				
10. Dedication	3.95	.65	.83	-.16*	.05	.06	-.02	.32**	.40**	.138	.18*	.67**			
11. Absorption	3.24	.77	.70	-.14	-.04	.07	-.07	.22**	.38**	.25**	.29**	.42**	.49**		
12. ORC	3.01	.85	.82	-.15	-.00	-.04	.11	.08	.14	.08	.13	.28**	.42**	.20*	
13. OCC	4.16	.70	.86	-.14	-.01	.06	.04	.20*	.27**	.03	.13	.51**	.75**	.33**	.43**

Notes. **p<.01, *p<.05; Sex: 1= male, 2 = female, Age: 1= less than 40, 2 = more than 40; Marital status: 1 = single, 2 = married/partner; Experience: 1= less than 10 years, 2 = more than 10 years; Enjoyment, *challenge*, outward, compensation, *vigour*, *dedication*, *absorption*, ORC and OCC were measured on a Likert scale from 1-5.

No significant relationships were found between any of the control variables and the model outcomes. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a series of three regression equations should be estimated to test whether there is a mediating effect of WE in the relationship between IM and employee ORC and OCC. In the first equation, the mediators (*vigour*, *dedication* and *absorption*) were regressed on the independent variable (*challenge* and *enjoyment*). The results in steps 1, 2, and 3 of Model 1 indicate that *challenge* was significantly related to all the three forms of WE, i.e., *vigour*, *dedication*, and *absorption* ($\beta = .27, p < .01$; $\beta = .29, p < .01$ and $\beta = .37, p < .01$, respectively). *Enjoyment* was related significantly only to *vigour* ($\beta = .27, p < .01$). Thus, the relationship between the independent variables and the mediator was established for the *challenge* subdimension of IM and the three subdimensions of WE. Second, the dependent variables (ORC and OCC) are related to the independent variable (subdimensions of EM and IM). The results in Model 2 of Table 6.2 showed a positive and significant relationship between *challenge* and OCC ($\beta = .23, p < .05$), while *enjoyment* was not significantly related to OCC ($\beta = .06, n.s.$). This means that H1a was confirmed while H1b was not confirmed. Additional analyses showed that *outward* and *compensation* as aspects of extrinsic motivation were not significantly related to OCC ($\beta = .09, n.s.$ and $\beta = .06, n.s.$ respectively).

Table 6.2: Results of regression analyses for Dutch University employees (N= 153)

Variables	Vigour	Dedication	Absorption	OCC (H1a & H1b)	ORC (H2a & H1b)	OCC(H3a)
	Model 1, step 1	Model 1, step 2	Model 1, step 3	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Gender	0.06	-0.11	-0.09	-0.12	-0.17	-.04
Age	0.17	0.07	-0.04	-0.1	-0.12	-.10
Marital Status	0.10	0.04	0.03	0.02	-0.09	.00
Experience	0.08	-0.02	-0.01	0.19	0.22	.09
Challenge	0.27**	0.29**	0.37**	0.23*	0.15	-.03
Enjoyment	0.27**	0.16	0.00	0.06	-0.04	
Compensation				0.09	0.10	
Outward				-0.06	0.01	
Vigour						.04
Dedication						.78**
Absorption						-.06
R2	.28	.20	.22	.10	.07	.58
F value	6,800**	4,542**	5,062**	2,000*	1,414**	24,849**

Notes: **p<.01, *p<.05, All beta coefficients appearing in the table are standardized.

In H2a and H2b we expected to find a positive relationship between *compensation*, *outward* and ORC. Model 3 shows that *compensation* and *outward* were not significantly related to ORC ($\beta = .10$, n.s. and $\beta = .01$, n.s. respectively). Additionally, neither *challenge* nor *enjoyment* was significantly related to ORC ($\beta = .15$, n.s. and $\beta = -.04$, n.s. respectively). This means that H2a and H2b were not confirmed.

The third mediation condition relates to the regression of dependent variables on both the independent variable and the mediator. In order for mediation to be established, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is diminished or eliminated while that of the mediator variable remains significant thus suggesting partial or full mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986). We expected the mediation of *vigour*, *dedication* and *absorption* in the relationship between *challenge*, *enjoyment* and OCC in H3a and H3b. However, the results presented in Model 2 showed that *enjoyment* was not significantly related to OCC (and therefore, not able to fulfil the mediation condition specified by Baron and Kenney, 1986), so we did not test the mediation model for *enjoyment*. The results in presented Model 4 show that the effects of *challenge* on OCC were no longer significant when *vigour*, *dedication*, and *absorption* were entered in the equation ($\beta = .09$, n.s.). Of the three aspects of WE, only *dedication* showed a significant relationship with OCC and fully mediates the *challenge*-OCC model ($\beta = .78$, $p < .01$). The Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) was also conducted to verify that *dedication* was a significant mediator of the relationship. The Sobel test also confirmed that the link between *challenge* and OCC was mediated by *dedication* ($z = 4.00$, $p < .01$). Thus H3a was partly confirmed while H3b was not confirmed.

6.5 Retesting the study hypotheses

Although the rest of the hypotheses were fully or partially confirmed, a possible explanation for the non confirmation of H2a and H2b, i.e., a positive relationship between compensation, outward and ORC, may be that the Netherlands is one of the richest economies of Europe and enjoys a high standard of living (einfopedia.com; 2010). This means that all people are assured of a minimum salary by the government to meet their subsistence requirements, it being a welfare state. Thus their basic needs are satisfied and the provision of extrinsic rewards by the organization may not be as important predictor of winning their organizational commitment. Another possible explanation for this unexpected result could be the fact that data were collected from the staff of a public university where the salaries of employees are determined through labour agreements, leaving minimal control of university management over salary structures of employees (Weert, 2001). Keeping these points in mind, we decided to replicate this study on a sample of employees working in a different context. We chose a sample of employees at a local private sector hospital in Pakistan. Pakistan is a developing country and people there have relatively lower living standards and less per capita income. Moreover, salary determination in the Pakistani private sector is not in the hands of the government, nor is salaries are privately determined; but the entire power to determine the salaries of employees rests in the hands of private organizations. They determine an employee's salary on the basis of his credentials; salaries are perfectly negotiable; other than that strong labour unions can also be found (India Pakistan Trade Unit, 2008). This comparison between the Pakistani and Dutch contexts makes it clear that the employees in the two countries fall into different need hierarchies and thus value money differently.

Furthermore, the salary structure in this private hospital is determined by the hospital management, unlike at the Dutch university. These sample characteristics made it interesting for us to go further and retest our hypotheses.

6.6 Study 2: Methods

6.6.1 Sample and procedures

^{6.3}Data were collected from doctors at a large Pakistani hospital located in the private sector. Using a random sampling approach, 500 chapter versions of the questionnaire were distributed through interoffice mail in sealed envelope addressing the employee directly. A reminder mail was sent after two weeks so as to solicit a higher response rate. One hundred and eighty-one employees responded, making a response rate of 36.2%. The sample was distributed as follows: 54% of the respondents were males, 49% were under 40 years of age, 37% were married, and 52% had less than 10 years' experience at the hospital.

6.6.2 Measures

The same measures were used as in study 1 to measure ORC, OCC, IM, EM and WE with a slight change of wording (such as the name of the organization) to keep the study similar to previous one.

Control variables: To keep this study as much similar to Study 1 as possible, we controlled for the same variables in Study 2 as in Study 1 (i.e., age, sex, marital status and experience). The variables were coded in the same way as in Study 1. Just as in the previous study, since data were

^{6.3} We are thankful to Professor Dr. Tariq Mehmood who helped us in data collection for this sample.

collected from four departments of the hospital at the individual level, we computed interclass correlation coefficient (Bliese, 2000) to check for differences in the ORC and OCC of employees with respect to their department. The intra class correlation for ORC was found to be 0.03, meaning that only three percent of the variance (of ORC) occurs between the different departments, and 97 percent of the variance is related to the individual level. Similarly, the ICC1 turned out to be 0.001 for OCC, thus showing less than one percent variance at the department level. Owing to this result we did not control for departments in our subsequent regression analyses and we did not analyze the results using multi-level analyses techniques.

Common method variance: In this study again, since all data were self-reported and collected using the same questionnaire during the same period of time; Harman's one factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) was used to investigate the potential influence of common method variance. The results of principal factor analysis, using varimax rotation, showed nine factors (*enjoyment, challenge, outward, compensation, vigour dedication, absorption, ORC and OCC*) with an "Eigen value" greater than 1, accounting for 75.54 percent of the variance. The first (largest) factor did not account for a majority of the variance (26.86%), nor was there a general factor that accounted for the majority of the covariance in these variables. The results again suggested an absence of common method variance for this sample.

Confirmatory factor analysis: As for the Dutch sample; CFA was conducted for the Pakistani sample to confirm the structure of factors in the model constructs. The results showed that the better model fit for IM was the two

factor model when compared with the one factor model ($\chi^2 (89) = 1880.03$ and $\chi^2 (90) = 1917.49$, respectively; $\Delta \chi^2 = 37.46$, $p < .01$). The results of this analysis confirmed the two factor structure of IM. The two factor model for EM was also demonstrated to be the better fit ($\chi^2 (89) = 891.84$ and $\chi^2 (90) = 910.90$, respectively; $\Delta \chi^2 = 18.76$; $p < .01$). CFA for WE supported the three factor model to be the better fit compared to the one factor model ($\chi^2 (24) = 406.86$ and $\chi^2 (27) = 570.76$, respectively; $\Delta \chi^2 = 163.90$, $p < .01$). These results of the CFA led us to conduct our subsequent regression analysis while treating all the different factors independently, just as in Study One.

6.7 Study 2: Results

Means, standard deviations, inter correlations and alpha reliabilities are shown in Table 6.3. Significant relations were found between the two dimensions of EM i.e. *outward*, *compensation* and ORC ($r = .68$, $p < .01$; $r = .69$, $p < .01$ respectively). The two dimensions of IM i.e. *enjoyment and challenge* were significantly related to OCC ($r = .34$, $p < .01$; $r = .34$, $p < .01$ respectively). *Vigour*, *dedication* and *absorption* were significantly related to OCC ($r = .36$, $p < .01$, $r = .46$, $p < .01$; $r = .67$, $p < .01$ respectively).

Table 6.4 reports the results of regression analyses done to test the hypotheses. No significant relationships were found between any of the control variables and the model outcomes. In the same way as in the first study, applying Baron and Kenny (1986), a series of three-regression equations were estimated to test whether there was a mediating effect of WE in the relationship between IM and OCC. In the first equation, the mediators (*vigour*, *dedication* and *absorption*) were regressed on the independent variable (*challenge* and *enjoyment*).

The results in steps 1, step 2, and 3 of Model 1 indicate that *challenge* was significantly related to all three aspects of WE i.e. *vigour*, *dedication* and *absorption* ($\beta = .27, p < .01$; $\beta = .23, p < .01$; $\beta = .41, p < .01$). *Enjoyment* was not significantly related to *vigour* ($\beta = .10, n.s.$) but it was significantly related to *dedication* and *absorption* ($\beta = .27, p < .01$; $\beta = .47, p < .01$). This means that both *challenge* and *enjoyment* were significantly related to all aspects of WE, except for a non-significant relationship between *enjoyment* and *vigour*. Thus, the relationship between the independent variable and the mediator was established. Second, the dependent variables (ORC and OCC) were related to the independent variable (IM and EM). H1a and H1b, which related to the positive relationship between *challenge* and *enjoyment* and OCC, were tested in Model 2 of Table 6.4. The results showed a positive and significant relationship between *challenge* and OCC ($\beta = .27, p < .01$); *enjoyment* was not significantly related to OCC ($\beta = .13, n.s.$). This means that H1a was confirmed while H1b was not confirmed. However, additional analysis showed that, unlike the Dutch sample, the *compensation* subdimension of EM was significantly related to OCC while *outward* was not ($\beta = .51, p < .01$; $\beta = .01, n.s.$, respectively).

Table 6.3: Means, standard deviations and Zero-order correlations among variables (N = 181; Pakistan hospital)

Variables	Mean	SD	Alpha	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Sex	1.46	.50													
2. Age	1.50	.50		.05											
3. Marital status	1.37	.48		-.08	-.06										
4. Experience	1.48	.50		.03	.36**	-.03									
5. Enjoyment	3.86	.54	.74	-.14	.09	-.10	.05								
6. Challenge	3.95	.54	.68	-.10	.03	-.20*	.11	.78**							
7. Outward	2.92	.83	.89	-.05	.11	-.12	.04	.32**	.32**						
8. Compensation	3.10	.83	.78	-.06	.13	-.14	-.02	.32**	.35**	.95**					
9. Vigour	3.16	.82	.71	-.12	.15*	.05	.05	.32**	.33**	.40**	.38**				
10. Dedication	3.50	.79	.70	-.08	.09	.13	-.01	.27**	.19**	.41**	.40**	.71**			
11. Absorption	3.87	.70	.74	-.09	.03	-.07	-.03	.47**	.41**	.40**	.44**	.41**	.55**		
12. ORC	3.06	.85	.82	.02	.13	-.03	.02	.21**	.19*	.68**	.69**	.35**	.41**	.29**	
13. OCC	4.19	.68	.86	-.09	.06	.01	-.09	.34**	.34**	.48**	.51**	.36**	.46**	.67**	.43**

Notes. **p<.01, *p<.05; Sex: 1= male, 2 = female, Age: 1= less than 40, 2 = more than 40; Marital status: 1 = single, 2 = married/partner; Experience: 1= less than 10 years, 2 = more than 10 years; Enjoyment, *challenge*, outward, compensation, *vigour*, *dedication*, *absorption*, ORC and OCC were measured on a Likert scale from 1-5.

Table 6.4: Results of regression analyses for Pakistani hospital sample (N= 181)

Variables	Vigour	Dedication	Absorption	OCC (H1a & b)	ORC (H2a & b)	OCC (H3a)
	Model 1, step 1	Model 1, step 2	Model 1, step 3	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Sex	-0.07	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04	0.06	-.01
Age	0.16	0.10	0.01	0.11	0.03	.08
Marital status	0.12	0.16	-0.01	0.07	0.07	.05
Experience	-0.03	-0.05	-0.06	-0.16	0.02	-.11
Challenge	0.27**	0.23**	0.41**	0.27**	-0.11	-.12
Enjoyment	0.10	0.27**	0.47**	0.13	0.08	
Compensation				0.51**	0.52**	
Outward				0.0	0.20	
Vigour						-.02
Dedication						.14
Absorption						.55**
R2	.16	.11	.18	.16	.49	.48
F value	5,446**	4,237**	7,421**	5,543**	20,722**	20,111**

Notes: **p<.01, *p<.05, All beta coefficients appearing in the table are standardized.

H2a and H2b were tested in Model 3, Table 6.4, which related to the positive relationship between *compensation and outward*, on the one hand, and ORC, on the other hand. The results show that *compensation* was significantly related to ORC ($\beta = .52, p < .01$); *outward* was not significantly related to ORC ($\beta = .20$ n.s.). Thus, H2a was confirmed while H2b was not. Additionally, neither *enjoyment* nor *challenge* was significantly related to ORC ($\beta = .08$, n.s. and $\beta = -.11$, n.s., respectively). Third, the dependent variables were regressed on both the independent variable and the mediator. We expected the mediation of *vigor*, *dedication*, and *absorption* in the relationship between *challenge*, *enjoyment*, and OCC in H3a and H3b. However, the results in Model 2 show that *enjoyment* was not significantly related to OCC (and, therefore, did not fulfill the mediation condition specified by Baron and Kenney, 1986), so we did not test the mediation model for *enjoyment*. The results of Model 4 show that the effects of *challenge* on OCC were no more significant when *vigor*, *dedication*, and *absorption* were entered in the equation ($\beta = -.12$, n.s.). Of the three aspects of WE, only *absorption* showed a significant relationship with OCC and fully mediated the *challenge*-OCC model, as it became significant upon inclusion in the model while *challenge* became insignificant ($\beta = .55, p < .01$; $\beta = -.12$, n.s., respectively). The results of the Sobel test also indicated mediation of *absorption* in the *challenge* – OCC link ($z = 4.20, p < .01$). *Vigor* and *dedication* did not mediate the relationship between *challenge* and OCC; when entered, their effects were not significant ($\beta = -.02$, n.s. $\beta = .14$, n.s., respectively). This means H3a was partly confirmed while H3b was not confirmed. As in Study 1, only *challenge* showed a significant relationship with OCC; therefore, it is important to mention that most of our discussion in the following sections concerns the *challenge* aspect of IM alone.

6.8 Discussion

The current study was aimed at examining the underlying linkages between two dimensions of intrinsic motivation, two dimensions of extrinsic motivation, and employees' affective commitment to two foci, i.e., organizational and occupational. Further, an attempt was made to explain the expected relationship between IM and OCC through three dimensions of WE. The results of the study bring forth some important conclusions, providing a useful addition to the literature on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, ORC, OCC, and WE. To test the hypotheses we used two different employee samples from different labour constellations, one from a Dutch university (public) sector and the other from a Pakistani (private) hospital. This was done to enhance the validity and generalizability of our results. Interestingly, both samples showed similar results for most aspects of the study; however, a few differences were also observed. In the section below we discuss these findings and our conclusions.

In hypothesis 1, it was expected that IM would be related to the OCC of employees; the results of both studies showed that a significant relationship exists between the *challenge* subdimension of IM and OCC, but significance was not be attained for the *enjoyment*-OCC relationship in either study. Also, although we did not draw a hypothesis for the EM-OCC relationship, no significant relationship was found between the *outward* and the *compensation* aspects of EM and OCC for the Dutch sample; however, *compensation* was significantly related to ORC in the Pakistani sample.

It might be interpreted from the results of H1 that employees who are intrinsically motivated by the *challenging* nature of their work are more committed to their occupation. Both samples were composed of professional employees, who have been reported to be more committed to their

occupation owing the specific sets of skills they have attained. Although the IM - OCC relationship remains under investigated, many previous findings show that job characteristics such as the *challenging* nature of assignments stimulate intrinsic motivation in employees, which in turn produces positive outcomes (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). As noted earlier, the relationship between employee intrinsic motivation and occupational commitment has not been investigated in the extant research, so the present findings provide an important insight by identifying IM as significantly related to OCC.

The results of H2a and H2b (relationship between EM and ORC) were not confirmed in the Dutch sample as neither *compensation* nor *outward* was related to ORC. However, the *compensation* aspect was significantly related to ORC; therefore, H2a was supported in the Pakistani sample. These results can be explained owing to the differences in labour laws in the two sectors in the two countries. As noted earlier, at the Dutch university, extrinsic benefits in the form of salary structures are determined through national bargaining, leaving university management little power to negotiate them or make changes to the packages. The current earnings of academic staff are based on the public sector's 18-part grade structure. Each grade has an associated fixed salary scale, with between 9 and 12 annual increments. Salary increments are provided to most staff automatically, although legally institutions have the possibility of withholding them from poor performers. The structure is such that academics in different grades may have equivalent salaries (Weert, 2001). University employees thus may not link their extrinsic rewards with commitment to the organization because they perceive that the university has little power in determining them. However, this is not the case in the private sector, where, for instance, in the Pakistani hospital, power to give extrinsic rewards is in the hands of the organization and employee perceptions of organizational rewards directly

influence their attitudes and behaviours. Thus, employees who are extrinsically motivated reciprocate the organization through ORC. Another possible explanation for the differences in the EM - ORC relationship across the two samples is related to differences in the value of money owing to the different cultures and, more importantly, the different needs of employees in the two countries. The Pakistani economy is typically a developing economy where the per capita income is as low as 2.644\$, compared to 40.850\$ in the Netherlands (World Bank, 2008). These effects provide a clear explanation of our findings; employees value money more when they have less of it; they need it to meet their basic subsistence needs. The results are in line with the need hierarchy theory of motivation (Maslow, 1943). Future research in more countries may give evidence for one of the two explanations.

It is important to mention that the results regarding differences in the effects of motivation on organizational commitment between the public and private sectors have been documented in the literature (Steinhous & Perry, 1996). Cross-cultural differences are also a possible explanation for the differences in the relationship between EM and ORC. Employees in the Netherlands, being more individualistic (Hofstede, 1980; 1983), have different work values and social systems in which their social perceptions and social behaviour revolve more around their individual goals. Thus, they may consider the attainment of extrinsic rewards which meet their personal goals to be of greater value than the goals of the organization, leading to their non-identification with the organization. Employees in Pakistan, on the other hand, being low in individualism, subordinate personal goals to group goals and tend to be more emotionally attached to their organization, especially when their personal goals are also met. This could mean that employees in collectivist societies feel more obligated to the organization owing to different cultural patterns, interpersonal relationships, and stronger

ties, and reciprocate through higher commitment. On the other hand, the relationship between the *challenge* aspect of IM and OCC was significant across both samples because both constructs involve employees' individual values and goals and do not relate to goals or obligations towards other parties such as the organization. There is mixed support from extant research on the relationship between EM and organizational commitment, with some findings indicating a relationship (Moon, 2000) and some not (Herzberg, 1966).

As regards the mediation results, the findings of both studies provide evidence for the mediating role of different aspects of WE in the IM –OCC relationship. In the university sample, the relationship between *challenge* and OCC was mediated by *dedication*. This means that the Dutch university employees, who were intrinsically motivated because they found their jobs challenging, were more dedicated to their work, leading to higher commitment to their occupation. For the Pakistani hospital employees who were also intrinsically motivated by the *challenge* aspect of their work, their higher OCC was routed through their being *absorbed* at work. As noted above, in the current study we tested the interrelationships and identified a potential mediating mechanism, which had not been done previously. Overall, the results indicate, as expected, that WE provides a mechanism for the IM and OCC relationship to develop, and forms an explanation for this relationship. Intrinsically motivated employees have been found to be more engaged in their work and this in turn makes them more committed to their occupation (the work which they choose to do for life). It is important to mention here that we did not expect WE to mediate the EM- ORC relationship, because extrinsic motivation is not enough to keep one engaged in one's work. Extrinsically motivated individuals work only as much as necessary to meet their external goals such as getting an extra bonus,

increments in salary, etc. These employees lack a source of motivation from the work itself; therefore, they are not expected not to be as energetic, dedicated, or absorbed in their line of work as people high in intrinsic motivation.

6.9 Strengths

The current findings go beyond previous findings in distinguishing between the two forms and four dimensions of motivation and showing how these four dimensions of motivational orientation are related to organizational and occupational affective commitment. Further, we used the framework of three dimensions of WE, i.e., *vigour*, *dedication*, and *absorption* to explain the intrinsic motivation – occupational affective commitment linkage. The study took place in an international context and two distinct samples were used; the results provided convergent support for most of the hypotheses across the different occupational samples. For instance, *challenge* was related to OCC across both samples, it was related to WE across both samples, and different aspects of WE mediated the relationship between *challenge* and OCC. The different results for H2 across the two samples, however, are perfectly justifiable and highlight how different motivational orientations can produce different results in different contexts. For example, the compensation aspect of EM was related to both ORC and OCC in the Pakistani sample but it was not related to any form of commitment in the Dutch sample. Employees can differ in their motivational orientations depending on their level of need, and can accordingly differ in their attitudes, performance, and behaviours. However, in the samples, the form and magnitude of the IM–OCC relationship and the mediation of WE were comparable, thus providing some initial evidence of generalizability; this requires additional research.

Though no significant differences were observed with respect to the ORC and OCC of professionals and non-professionals across the university sample, the results suggest different determinants of the two forms of commitment, as is also suggested by Wallace (1995). IM explained variation in OCC in both samples, while EM contributed to determining ORC in one sample. The results of the study should be treated as significant and providing useful insights for future studies.

As mentioned above, it is noteworthy that this research was conducted in the context of both western and non-western culture. Most of the extant commitment research has been based on US and other western samples. Thus one important contribution of our research is to show how various employee commitments are related and what the comparative differences are in the interrelationships between the study variables across different cultures. Specifically, we found that employees with high EM exhibited higher levels of ORC and OCC in the Pakistani samples, while EM was not related to any foci of commitment in the Dutch sample.

6.10 Implications

The findings have important implications for the management of organizations. Organizations that are faced with the challenges of innovation and creativity may not be able to produce the desired results by adopting strategies aimed at increasing the EM of employees alone (Hennessey, 2003). The challenges of competitive advantage that modern day organizations face require their employees to be intrinsically motivated to do their job. IM was significantly related to the occupational commitment of employees in both studies, indicating that employees who were rich in intrinsic motivational orientations were also committed to their occupation

irrespective of the level of rewards they obtained in it. Provision of a well-structured incentive system characterized by market-based salaries and clear career paths alone will not enhance occupational commitment, although extrinsic motivators play a role in shaping the behavioural intentions of employees; unless and until they are intrinsically motivated to do their work and produce something because they believe they identify with their occupation, employees can not be retained. Intrinsically motivated employees can be expected to meet the *challenges* of their work environment in a better way; an activity that is invigorating for an intrinsically motivated employee can be a source of stress and low self-esteem for employees who are not inherently interested in it. They can have feelings of disengagement from work, and meeting only short-term goals.

6.11 Limitations and research perspective

The study had some limiting factors. As in most research in the social sciences, an important limitation of this research was the use of a cross-sectional approach. This type of paradigm makes the causality ambiguous, which is unlikely if a longitudinal approach is used. A longitudinal approach is more advantageous because data collection is done from the same sample but at regular intervals, leading to more unambiguous and dependable causality. Future research could be directed towards longitudinal analysis to establish this causality and also to establish reverse causality, if any exists. The possibility of potential bias due to a single data source can not be ruled out completely, although Harman's one-factor test results did not indicate its presence in either study. Data from multiple sources may have greatly strengthened the results, thus providing direction for future research. Data were collected from two different samples and in two different contexts. It

would be interesting to replicate the study in similar sectors across countries or within the country, or in different sectors within the country, to make further comparisons and analyze the results. The scope of future research could also be enhanced by using a larger sample to enhance the generalizability.

The present findings provide insight for an interesting extension to the motivation, commitment, and work engagement literature, and enable us to make some suggestions for future research. It would be interesting to investigate whether the linkages between motivation and commitment differ across sectors and countries. Are there any differences in the linkages between motivation and commitment for employees in high-paying occupations who are occupationally committed because of the associated extrinsic rewards compared with those in low-paying occupations who stay there because they are intrinsically motivated? Although we did not find any evidence for an interaction between IM and EM even in the Pakistani sample where both IM and EM were related to OCC, future researchers should probe further into such possibilities. Future research on the linkages between motivational orientations and behavioural outcomes such as organizational and occupational turnover intentions in different sectors, and so in different contexts, would also be interesting. It would also be interesting to investigate whether the different motivational orientations of employees also relate differently to their job performance and extra-role behaviours.

6.12 Concluding remarks

The study provides a useful extension to the commitment literature specifically by taking the occupational commitment in to account which remains largely under researched till date. As supported by both samples IM

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explained variation in OCC while EM contributed to determining ORC in one sample which means that different motivational orientations predict employee commitment uniquely towards different commitment foci. Importance of WE in the models of IM and OCC was highlighted by studying its meditational role. Though no significant differences were observed with respect to ORC and OCC of professionals and non professionals across university sample; both the Pakistani and Dutch samples showed that employees were more committed to their occupations than their organizations, thus also highlighting the need to study the occupational commitment models in future. The results of the study should definitely be treated as significant and insightful for future studies.

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General Discussion

7.1 Introduction

An overview of the situation of academic researchers around the world suggested a shortage of academic researchers and lower attractiveness of this occupation in the eyes of new entrants (Tan & Meijer, 2001). High turnover rates of academics have been reported, which together with retirement of senior researchers seem to aggravate the problem. Main causes suggested of the ‘problem’ are supervision issues, changes in the preferences of individuals, lower societal status attached to academia, lower salaries, individualized nature of relationships, poor working conditions and lacking in general skills. The current research aimed to provide solutions to the problem from HRM perspective. Since affective commitment both with the organization and the occupation are reported to be strong predictors of employee voluntary turnover, affective organizational and affective occupational commitment were the main focus in this research. The main research question that guided this research was as follows: *What are the (individual and organizational) predictors and outcomes of organizational and occupational affective commitment of professional employees within academia?*

We aimed to examine the potential antecedents of organizational commitment that remained untapped before and contribute to the better understanding of these concepts. Alike, much less research has been done to understand occupational commitment despite its increasing relevance not only for the organization but also for the societies at large. We introduced the concept of affective occupational commitment and tried to highlight its importance in terms of its interrelationships with organizational commitment on one hand and its consequences in terms of organizational and occupational turnover intentions. We expected that the predictors identified

in the research can significantly predict employee organizational and occupational commitment and thus play critical role in employee's decision to leave or stay in the world of science. The new determinants of commitment introduced in this dissertation could be grouped into (a) organizational antecedents such as dual LMX relationships, satisfaction with HR practices, employability perceptions, (b) situational antecedents such as work engagement and (c) personality antecedents such as intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, self efficacy and proactive personality. Moreover different mechanisms have been examined that could be explain the relationships between predictors and commitment, and between commitment and turn over. The predictors were chosen and studied specifically keeping in mind the problem causes of the scarcity of academic researchers worldwide as indicated in section 1.2. of this dissertation.

The first section of this chapter explains a brief background of the research problem, research question and an overview of main research finding. Section 7.2 deals with study findings chapter wise and provides answers to research sub questions raised in chapter one of the dissertation. Section 7.3 provides main research conclusions, strengths of the research and theoretical and practical implications. Section 7.4 provides research limitations and gives directions for future research which is followed by concluding remarks in the last section.

7.2 Main findings

The following section briefly highlights the summary of main findings in various studies.

Table 7.1: Overview of hypotheses and findings

Chapter no.	Hypotheses	Results
2	<i>H1: Promoter LMX (a) and assistant promoter LMX (b) are positively related to PhD's affective organizational commitment.</i>	Supported
	<i>H2: Promoter LMX (a) and assistant promoter LMX (b) are positively related to PhD's satisfaction with HR practices.</i>	Supported
	<i>H3: PhD's satisfaction with HR practices is positively related to their ORC.</i>	Supported
	<i>H4: PhD's satisfaction with HR practices mediates the relationship between (a) LMX promoter - affective organizational commitment and (b) LMX assistant promoter - affective organizational commitment.</i>	Supported
	<i>H5: The relationship between PhD's LMX and affective organizational commitment is stronger for the promoter than for the assistant promoter.</i>	Supported
3	<i>H1: Employability is positively related to affective organizational commitment.</i>	Supported
	<i>H2: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between employability and organizational commitment.</i>	Supported
	<i>H3: Self efficacy mediates the relationship between employability and organizational commitment.</i>	Supported
	<i>H4: Self efficacy strengthens the relationship</i>	Supported

	<i>between employability and organizational commitment.</i>	
4	<i>H1: Organizational commitment is positively related to occupational commitment.</i>	Supported
	<i>H2: Organizational commitment is negatively related with organizational turnover intention.</i>	Supported
	<i>H3: Occupational commitment weakens the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational turnover intention.</i>	Supported
	<i>H4: Occupational commitment is negatively related with (a) occupational turnover intention and (b) organizational turnover intention.</i>	Supported
	<i>H5: Organizational commitment weakens the relationship between occupational commitment and occupational turnover intentions.</i>	Not supported
5	<i>H1: Proactive personality is positively related to affective organizational (a) and occupational commitment (b) of employees.</i>	Partially supported
	<i>H2: The relationship between proactive personality and affective organizational commitment is mediated by job satisfaction.</i>	Supported
	<i>H3: The relationship between proactive personality and affective occupational commitment is mediated by occupational satisfaction.</i>	Partially supported
	<i>H4: Political skills strengthen the relationship between proactive personality and affective</i>	Partially supported

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	<i>organizational (a) and affective occupational commitment (b).</i>	
6	<i>H1: Challenge (a) and enjoyment (b) are positively related to affective occupational commitment of the employees.</i>	Partially supported
	<i>H2: Compensation (a) and outward (b) are positively related to affective organizational commitment of the employees.</i>	Partially supported
	<i>H3: Vigour, dedication and absorption mediate the relationship between challenge and affective occupational commitment (a) and between enjoyment and affective occupational commitment (b) of the employees.</i>	Partially supported

Chapter 2 was an attempt to answer the following research question: *How is Leader Member Exchange (LMX) promoter and LMX assistant promoter related to affective organizational commitment of PhD's? Does satisfaction with HR practices mediate this relationship?* Data for this study was collected from a sample of PhD employees (N = 122) at a Dutch university and effects of LMX quality of the two supervisors of the PhD were examined on their organizational commitment. Results of the study showed that PhD's LMX quality with promoter accounted for major variance in the organizational commitment and that LMX assistant promoter contributed to small degree of variance. Promoter being the boss at higher organizational status had stronger influence on various HR practices and could thus influence PhD's satisfaction with HR practices to a greater extent and thus contributing more variance in PhD's commitment. Results showed that PhD's having better LMX quality with their bosses are more satisfied

with the HR practices used by the university and thus tend to reciprocate with higher organizational commitment with the university.

Chapter 3 attempted to answer the next research question raised in chapter 1 which was as follows: *Is employability related to affective organizational commitment of employees? And is the proposed relationship mediated by job satisfaction? Further, is this relationship intervened by general self efficacy of employees?* Data were collected from 230 academic staff at a public university in Pakistan. Findings of the study showed that employability was positively related to employees' affective organizational commitment. The study identified two frameworks to explain the employability and organizational commitment relation i.e. job satisfaction which is more related to aspects of job and self efficacy which is more related to an individual's personality. Results showed that job satisfaction and self efficacy mediated the employability – affective organizational commitment relationship and that job satisfaction was a stronger mediator in the said relationship compared to self efficacy. Last study finding pertained to the strengthening effects of self efficacy on the employability – organizational commitment relationship.

Chapter 4 addressed the following research question: *What are the underlying linkages between affective organizational commitment, affective occupational commitment and turnover intentions related to organization and occupation? Which form of commitment is stronger predictor of turnover? Does occupational commitment moderate the organizational commitment and organizational turnover relationship?* Data for this study was collected from a Dutch sample of academic employees (N=153). First major conclusion of the study was that organizational commitment and occupational commitment is positively related meaning that professionals can be committed to both their organization and occupation at the same time.

Furthermore it was found that in line with existing research, organizational commitment was negatively related to organizational turnover intentions and that occupational commitment buffered this negative relationship between organizational commitment and organizational turnover intentions. Furthermore, occupational commitment is negatively related to both occupational turnover intentions and organizational turnover intentions with occupational commitment as a stronger predictor of organizational turnover intentions. Last study result showed no buffering role of organizational commitment in the occupational commitment – occupational turnover intentions relationship.

Chapter 5 attempted to answer the following research question: *Does proactive personality contribute to the formation of affective organizational and occupational commitment? Can this potential relationship be explained through job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction of employees? Further, do political skills moderate the proposed relationship?* This study was based on two occupationally distinct samples of professionals i.e. doctors at a Pakistani hospital (N=230) and academic employees at a Pakistani university (N=181). Results of the study indicated that proactive personality was positively related to organizational commitment and to occupational commitment. Job satisfaction and occupational satisfaction mediated the different relationship. Lastly, political skills significantly moderated the proactive personality-organizational commitment relationship. This means that organizational commitment of employees who were more proactive and more politically skilled were greater than the employees whose political skills were not so strong but were proactive.

Chapter 6 attempted to answer the following research question: *What are the underlying linkages between motivation and commitment?*

Does work engagement mediate this relationship? Two studies were conducted employing different contexts – one sample constituted academic employees at a public sector Dutch university (N = 153) and the other sample was a group of doctors at a Pakistani private sector hospital (N= 181). Results from the two studies showed that the *challenge* dimension of intrinsic motivation was positively related to occupational commitment in both studies while *enjoyment* was not. The relationship between *challenge* and occupational commitment was mediated by *dedication* dimension of work engagement in Dutch sample while this relationship was mediated by *absorption* dimension of work engagement in Pakistani sample. *Compensation* was related to ORC for the Pakistani sample of employees; while no aspect of EM was related to ORC in the Dutch sample.

7.3 Main conclusions, strengths and practical implications

This dissertation offers important conclusions and on the basis of those a guide for the practitioners, management of universities/organizations and for the academics in understanding various organizational, situational and personality predictors of organizational and occupational commitment beyond the ones studied earlier.

7.3.1 Organizational predictors

As noted before the research investigated dual LMX relationships, satisfaction with HR practices (Chapter 2) and employability (Chapter 3) as organizational predictors of affective organizational commitment. In examining the LMX- commitment relationship, this research went beyond traditional LMX-organizational commitment relationship and examined the much more common practical situations where the organizational structure is hierarchical and employee is often reportable to more than one boss. Under

such situations the LMX – organizational commitment is not as simple and straightforward as has been reported in the past. It was found that the LMX quality especially with the higher boss may bring more variance in employee commitment, as the LMX-organizational commitment relationships depend, among other things, on the relative degree of hold of each supervisor over various HR practices, relative power of each supervisor depending on his/her hierarchical status over and above the LMX quality of the employee with each supervisor.

Further looking at the organizational predictors of organizational commitment, we examined the role of employability in determining employee's affective organizational commitment. In doing so the intervening roles of job satisfaction and self efficacy were examined. This study provided empirical evidence of moderating and mediating role of self efficacy and identified it as an important variable that should be considered in examining models of employability.

These two studies regarding organizational predictors of commitment have some important theoretical and practical implications. An important lesson for practitioners is the realization that employee's satisfaction with HR practices is influenced by the relationship with his/her boss. Moreover, management should note that different targets or outcomes can not be achieved by same stick, meaning that both supervisors effect employee outcomes differently. The results have implications for enhancing employee commitment through quality LMX enhancement interventions. This means that enhancing work related interaction through guiding coaching or delegation can result in higher-level employee outcomes by greater levels of satisfaction with HR practices.

Moreover, management can enhance employability perceptions of employees by introducing strategies/policy initiatives such as (formal and

informal) training initiatives. The enhanced employability perceptions increase employee's job satisfaction and self efficacy and thus they tend to reciprocate the organization through higher commitment in return. There is also some more for managers to notice that how important role do the self efficacy perceptions of employees play both in linking and in strengthening the employability – organizational commitment relationship. Self efficacy could be concluded as not an entirely stable personality trait but efficacy perceptions could be enhanced through organizational interventions such as training programs as mentioned before, thus leading to more positive results. Apart from training programs, it also appears important to test the prospective employee's personality dispositions through HRM initiatives at the time of selection process; as the relationship between employability and commitment is expected to be stronger for more self efficacious individuals.

7.3.2 *Situational predictors*

Mediating role of work engagement (Chapter 6) was examined as a situational predictor in the motivation – commitment relationship. It was concluded that work engagement provide a mechanism for the intrinsic motivation and occupational commitment relationship to execute and form an explanation for this relationship. Intrinsically motivated employees were found to be more engaged in their work and this employee engagement in their work led to their commitment to the occupation. Additionally, it was found that work engagement did not mediate the extrinsic motivation – organizational commitment.

Conclusion on the role of work engagement in examining motivation-commitment relationship offer new insights both to the academics and practitioners by providing useful extension to existing literature. The study results were consistent with existing studies which show

positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and work engagement but do not support any significant relationship between extrinsic motivation and work engagement. Managers can benefit by examining the antecedents of work engagement and implementing HR practices such as work conditions and enhance the autonomy of a job that can enhance employee engagement at work.

7.3.3 *Personality predictors*

Proactive personality, political skills (Chapter 5), intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations (Chapter 6) of employees was examined as predictors of affective organizational and occupational commitment. It was concluded that proactive employees are more committed to their organization and to their occupation. Employees with a proactive personality can adapt to and understand their environmental expectations quickly, can manipulate their work environment in desirable ways and feel better control over their jobs and occupational environments. This could consequently lead to the development of perceived feelings of emotional attachment and being at home, more comfortable with their organization. In a similar vein, proactive people due to their inner trait of pursuing their occupational career goals proactively, tend to be more satisfied with the progression of their occupational goals, they anticipate their possibilities and try to execute the scenarios that are in their best favour, take steps that meet their occupational goals and expectations thus leading to their higher occupational satisfaction and more attachment with their occupation.

Organizations that wish to emphasize committed employees can be more successful if they attract people who have proactive personalities and are more adept in interpersonal skills such as political skills. Organizations might consider reviewing selection procedures with an eye toward

identifying and hiring more proactive employees. Given that proactive personality was related to higher organizational commitment and that this relationship was further strengthened by political skills of employees in both samples, the employees' ability to behave in a proactive and politically skilful way appears to constitute an organizational asset.

While proactive personality can be examined as a relatively stable personality trait, political skills can be learned and developed so organizational management might facilitate employee learning in ways that contributes to development of their political skills. For instance, organizations may think of assigning skilled mentors and provide other developmental experiences to their employees such as training opportunities (Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas & Ammeter, 2004) which can result in their better political abilities and can ultimately create positive change by influencing important attitudes and behaviours. Further, developmental programs should place greater emphasis on the need to learn about the formal and informal power structures in the organizations and understanding 'significant others' at work. Such programs and information can enhance and sharpen individual's political abilities and in turn be helpful for organizations.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation research results also offer implications for the management of organizations by concluding how different employee motivations influence different foci of commitment. Candidates may possess the necessary skills to do certain jobs, but may lack the necessary personality traits and consequently attitudes and behaviours that ensure person organizational fit. Take home message is the key that HR managers should understand the different needs and motivational tendencies of their employees. All employees working in the same occupation, and same organization, even within same work group and teams may respond

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differently to different organizational incentives owing to their different motivational orientations and thus organizational goals may not be effectively met even after incurring extra 'costs'. For instance an extra bonus may work for an employee rich in extrinsic motivational orientation but may not work for an employee whose motivation to work is not money but the work itself. Thus providing HRM incentives such as conducive work environment characterized with autonomy, freedom of work and enriched job assignments will serve to boost motivation to work of employees rich in intrinsic motivational orientations while HRM steps such as pay for performance, bonuses, salary raises etc will be more effective for employees that are extrinsically motivated.

This also means that it is important not only for the organization what kind of personal tendencies an individual has but also equally important for an individual to know his personal strengths and weaknesses. Knowing himself/herself better can lead him/her make better and more informed career decisions for instance regarding the choice of his organization and occupation where s/he does not have to face conflict in personal and/or organizational goals or where he/she fits into the organizational culture. For instance, an individual not intrinsically motivated for a research job may not be able to produce anything of quality thus causing trouble both for himself/herself and his/her organization. On the contrary he/she may be a best performer in some other task. Similarly, proactive individuals might be highly important for an innovative organization or where creativity is needed but individuals lacking that kind of (proactive) personality may not be able to produce the desired results despite their willingness and motivation to do that which could be troublesome for both the identities. Thus an individual should be aware of his inherent tendencies to take more informed steps.

Current study suggests that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and generalized self efficacy depict aspects that are innate or dispositional, but we also view aspects that can be changed i.e. diminished or enhanced according to the situation. As noted earlier, for instance, self efficacy can be enhanced through provision of employability while intrinsic motivation can be enhanced through conditions of autonomy (Deci and Ryan, 2000) and extrinsic motivation can be enhanced through monetary incentives and rewards offered by organization.

7.3.4 Outcomes of commitment in terms of turnover intentions

This study went beyond most of the traditional models of employee commitment which focus largely on organizational commitment and tend to over look occupational commitment. We introduced in this study the relatively new concept of occupational commitment and highlighted the need to include models of occupational commitment; along with organizational commitment in studying their various predictors. Further we also studied the effects of occupational commitment in the models of turnover and its interrelations with organizational commitment, results of which showed occupational commitment as a stronger predictor of both organizational and occupational turnover intentions compared to organizational commitment. Although occupational commitment sounds more relevant to individual's own career outcomes it should be treated equally importantly and appears equally relevant for the organizations. High occupationally committed employees spend more time in developing skills and pursuing their occupational goals at the organization in which they are member, they express less intention to withdraw from their occupations and from their organizations (Aryee & Tan, 1992; Blau, 1989). This conclusion should be taken as a contribution to existing literature on providing empirical evidence on the interrelationship between the two foci of commitment which have

been reported to conflict each other in some previous studies (Greene, 1978; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). It can be concluded that our ability to predict organizational and occupational turnover is enhanced when both occupational and organizational variables are considered. Even if the employees are committed to their organization, this commitment can not influence the degree of relationship between occupational commitment and occupational turnover intentions.

Organizations need to develop management techniques or strategies which also pay attention to developing their employees' career needs which in turn can lead to the employees' devotion to the company and buffer the negative effects of organizational commitment – organizational turnover intentions relationship. Research shows that only about one third of companies provide their employees with formal career planning and employee self-assessment opportunities (Gutteridge, Leibowitz & Shore, 1993). By concentrating on human resource practices such as internal promotion, training programs, and supervisory support, the organizations may try to increase level of affective organizational and occupational commitment of the researchers. This management strategy will work to reduce organizational and occupational turnover intentions of strongly occupationally committed researchers. It is also useful to adopt policies that enhance employees' occupational identities (Lee, Carswell & Allen, 2000). Taking the case of academic researchers these could include encouraging occupational activities (e.g., attending conferences or publishing chapters), providing valued rewards (e.g., better benefits), promoting their occupations, or sponsoring training opportunities to shape employees' emotional attachment to the occupation (Blau, Tatum & Ward-Cook, 2003). This means that managers should take both aspects of employees' intentions to leave the organization and occupation in to consideration at the same time as

they seem to be reciprocally related. Supportive attitude of the employer towards meeting the career goals of the employee can win employee's both the occupational and organizational commitment.

7.3.5 Samples

Some of the chapters in this dissertation employed two different samples in two different contexts with convergent findings 'overall' thus enhancing the validity of our findings. Furthermore, most of the extant commitment research has been based on U.S. and other western samples. One important contribution of our research is to study employee commitment and its determinants (such as employability, proactive personality and motivation) and the underlying processes in a non-western culture. The study took place in an international context where the country's prevailing social norms and expectations were quite different from those of U.S. and western organizational context. Specifically there exists very little empirical literature on the stated relationships in particular in Pakistan. Thus the present study is an attempt not only to study factors related to commitment but also to gain an insight into the little researched South Asian management perspective.

Data for this research was collected from a sample of professionals i.e. academic staff at a university and doctors at a hospital mainly because of the fact that we intended to study both occupational and organizational commitment and since occupational commitment has been more linked to professionals (and also they are reported to be more committed to their professions), therefore, this line of reasoning made us select the sample of professionals. This combination of employees in our study sample allowed us to make a comparison between the organizational commitment and occupational commitment of the two categories of employees i.e. professionals and non professionals. Interestingly, however, neither the two

sets of employees significantly differed in their organizational commitment and occupational commitment nor were any significant differences found with respect to their organizational and occupational turnover intentions. It is also interesting to note that overall mean occupational commitment was higher than mean organizational commitment for all the samples employed in all studies thus suggesting the existing notion that professionals are more committed to their occupations than their organizations.

The combination of public and private sector samples that this study constituted also has some advantages to offer. The nature and extent of differences between employees and organizations of the public and private sectors has long been a topic of academic debate. The employees in the public and private sector are reported to differ in their motivations and work values, and through current studies we were able to examine if the relationships between various determinants of organizational and occupational commitment differ amongst the two types of employees. Future research however needs to be done to analyze further the roots of such differences i.e. sector, culture, motivational needs or different occupations.

7.4 Limitations and directions for future research

Like most of the social sciences researches, an important limitation of this research was the use cross-sectional approach. This type of paradigm makes the causality ambiguous which is unlikely if longitudinal approach is used. Longitudinal approach is more advantaged because data collection is done from the same sample but on regular intervals leading to more unambiguous and dependable causality. Future research could be directed towards longitudinal analyses to establish this causality or also to establish reverse causality if any.

This study, like most studies of its kind relied on self-reported indicators of constructs by employees who volunteered to participate. Although Herman's one factor test did not support existence of self report bias for any of the samples employed in various studies, the results are however prone to bias and call for future research that removes this limitation. Also, sample size was relatively small for the different studies; a larger sample size could potentially lead to better validity of results.

Since the study mainly involved university sector, also with the exception of a hospital in some of the chapters, the results of the study may not be generalizable to other organizations outside academia, although we found convergence of results amongst these two occupations, and also we do not expect the variable and the interrelationships examined in the study to be occupation specific but still we can not confirm generalizability of our findings.

The study offers some directions for future research, apart from its limitations. The study may be replicated by comparing data across cultures, for example U. S. and other European countries to check for robustness of the conceptual model presented here. Another natural extension of this study could be to expand the model and include other dispositions and determine whether they add incremental variance beyond those included in the present study. For instance, the study on proactive personality could control the Big Five personality traits to examine what amount of explained variance is explained by proactive personality beyond the effects of Big Five on two foci of commitment.

It would further be interesting to replicate the study in similar sectors across countries or within the country or different sectors within the country to make further comparisons and analysis of results. Scope of future

research could also be enhanced by employing a larger sample to enhance the generalizability.

Differences in commitment with respect to culture have been noted in literature. Allen and Meyer (1990), for instance, noted in a study that employees in individualistic societies tend to be more affectively committed while those in collectivist societies tend to be more normatively committed. Another perspective is that, personal decisions about occupation are less likely influenced by cultural differences (Hofstede, 1997). When employees decide to leave or stay with a specific occupation, their decisions would reflect their emotional identification and attachment to the occupation rather than normative pressures. This means that commitment has been reported to develop differently and influenced by the culture of the respective country. Although there have been studies taking into account culture perspective when reporting organizational commitment, such studies lack because of overall paucity of occupational commitment literature. Future research on occupational commitment not only calls for attention towards examining other potential antecedents of occupational commitment but also to examine if occupational commitment varies across different occupations. It would also be interesting to study if antecedents of occupational commitment vary according to sector.

It would be interesting to further examine answers to the questions such as how can the managers of companies benefit from the changing scenario where employees tend to be more committed to their occupations? What does this mean for the life and management of organizations?

Future research could employ experimental designs such as quasi experimental longitudinal designs to assess the effectiveness of various HRM interventions such as training and development programs aimed at enhancing employability of employees, or mentoring programs aimed at

enhancing political skills of employees to gauge their effects on employee attitudes.

7.5 Concluding remarks

The bottom line is to understand the different variants involved in predicting employee commitment – which is a source of competitive advantage. The current study was an attempt to further our understanding on such predictors of commitment by delineating the process/mechanism through which individual's personality dispositions such as proactive personality, political skills, self efficacy, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and organizational factors such as dual LMX relationships and employability affect job-related attitudinal outcomes such as organizational and occupational commitment.

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Nederlandse Samenvatting
(Dutch Summary)

HOOFDSTUK 1

Inleiding

Een overzicht van de situatie van wetenschappelijke onderzoekers suggereert een tekort aan onderzoekers, en een lage aantrekkelijkheid van het beroep in de ogen van mogelijke binnenkomers (Tan en Meijer, 2001). Dit tekort aan academici wordt verergerd door de vergrijzing en pensionering van oudere onderzoekers, en door een groot aantal academici die van loopbaan verandert. Oorzaken die voor het tekort aan academici worden genoemd, zijn problemen met begeleiding van jonge academici, veranderingen in voorkeuren van individuen, lage sociale status van academici, lage salarissen, slechte arbeidsomstandigheden en een tekort aan autonomie.

In het, in deze dissertatie beschreven, onderzoek wordt getracht oplossingen voor het tekort aan academici te vinden vanuit een Human Resource Management (HRM) perspectief. Omdat *affektieve betrokkenheid met de organisatie* en *affektieve betrokkenheid met het beroep* (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993) worden gezien als goede voorspellers van vrijwillig verloop, vormen deze twee concepten de focus van dit onderzoek. De onderzoeksvraag luidt als volgt: *Wat zijn voorspellers en uitkomsten van affektieve organisatie- en affektieve beroepsbetrokkenheid van professionele werknemers binnen de academische sector?*

In dit onderzoek wordt met name aandacht besteed aan potentiële antecedenten van affectieve organisatie- en affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid, die nog niet eerder zijn onderzocht. Hierbij wordt expliciet aandacht besteed aan het concept van affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid dat, ondanks dat het concept steeds belangrijker wordt voor de organisatie, maar ook voor een samenleving als een geheel, nog weinig is onderzocht. In dit onderzoek wordt affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid gerelateerd aan affectieve

organisatiebetrokkenheid en worden beide vormen van betrokkenheid gezien in termen van intenties tot verloop, zowel met betrekking tot de organisatie als met betrekking tot het beroep.

De nieuwe antecedenten van affectieve betrokkenheid die in deze dissertatie worden geïntroduceerd kunnen worden gegroepeerd in (a) organisatie antecedenten, zoals duale Leader Member eXchange (LMX) relaties, tevredenheid met HR praktijken en 'employability' percepties, (b) situationele antecedenten, zoals werkbevlogenheid en (c) persoonlijke antecedenten, zoals intrinsieke en extrinsieke motivatie, self-efficacy en pro-actieve persoonlijkheid. Hiernaast worden verschillende mechanismen onderzocht die een mogelijke uitleg kunnen vormen voor de relatie tussen antecedenten en affectieve organisatie- en affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid enerzijds, en tussen affectieve organisatie- en affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid en intentie tot verloop anderzijds.

HOOFDSTUK 2

LMX-promotor, LMX assistent promotor en affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid

In hoofdstuk 2 van deze dissertatie wordt de volgende onderzoeksvraag beantwoord: *Hoe is Leader Member eXchange (LMX) met de promotor en LMX met de assistent promotor gerelateerd aan affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid van PhD studenten? In welke mate worden deze relaties gemedieerd door de tevredenheid met HR praktijken van PhD studenten?* Data voor deze study is verzameld uit een PhD studenten bestand (n=122) van een Nederlandse universiteit. In een vragenlijstonderzoek is ondermeer gevraagd naar de LMX met zowel de promotor als de assistent promotor en naar de affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid. Uit de resultaten

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van dit onderzoek blijkt dat de relatie met de promotor een groot deel van de affectieve betrokkenheid met de organisatie verklaart. Hiernaast blijkt ook de relatie met de assistent promotor een deel van de affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid te verklaren. De relatie tussen LMX met de promotor, als zijnde de baas met de hogere organisatiestatus en daardoor een sterkere invloed op de verschillende HR praktijken hebbend, en affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid, blijkt te worden gemedieerd door de tevredenheid met de HR praktijken van de PhD studenten. De resultaten laten zien dat PhD studenten die een betere LMX hebben met hun promotor meer tevreden zijn met de HR praktijken en dit met een hogere mate van affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid beantwoorden.

HOOFDSTUK 3

Employability perceptie en affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid

In hoofdstuk 3 werd ingegaan op de percepties van ‘employability’ (inzetbaarheid) van academici en werd de volgende onderzoeksvraag beantwoord: *Zijn percepties ten aanzien van ‘employability’ (inzetbaarheid) gerelateerd aan affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid van medewerkers? En, wordt deze relatie gemedieerd door baantevredenheid? En, wordt deze relatie beïnvloed door self efficacy van medewerkers?* De data voor deze studie is verzameld aan een universiteit in Pakistan en bevat gegevens van een groep van 230 academici. Uit de resultaten blijkt dat de percepties ten aanzien van employability (inzetbaarheid) positief gerelateerd zijn aan de affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid van academici. Deze relatie wordt zowel door baantevredenheid, dat meer gerelateerd is aan aspecten van een baan, als door self efficacy, dat meer gerelateerd is aan de persoonlijkheid van de medewerkers, gemedieerd waarbij baantevredenheid een sterker mediërend

effect vertoont dan self efficacy. Resultaten van dit onderzoek laten tevens zien dat self efficacy de relatie tussen percepties ten aanzien van ‘employability’ (inzetbaarheid) en affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid versterkt.

HOOFDSTUK 4

Affectieve organisatie- en beroepsbetrokkenheid en intenties tot verloop

In hoofdstuk 4 wordt het concept affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid geïntroduceerd en wordt de volgende onderzoeksvraag beantwoord: *Wat zijn de relaties tussen affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid, affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid en verloopintenties met betrekking tot de organisatie en het beroep? Welke vorm van betrokkenheid is hierbij een sterkere voorspeller van verloopintenties? En, modereert beroepsbetrokkenheid de relatie tussen affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid en de verloopintenties met betrekking tot de organisatie?* Data voor deze studie is verzameld onder ondersteunende staf en academici van een Nederlandse universiteit (n=153). De eerste conclusie van de studie is dat affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid en affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid positief aan elkaar gerelateerd zijn, wat betekent dat medewerkers zowel bij hun organisatie als bij hun beroep betrokken kunnen zijn. Daarnaast blijkt dat affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid negatief gerelateerd is aan verloopintenties met betrekking tot de organisatie, en dat affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid deze relatie buffert (modereert): een hoge affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid verzwakt de negatieve relatie tussen affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid en verloopintenties met betrekking tot de organisatie. Affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid blijkt negatief gerelateerd te zijn aan verloopintenties met betrekking tot het beroep, maar blijkt ook negatief gerelateerd te zijn aan

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verlooptintenties met betrekking tot de organisatie, waarbij affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid de sterkste voorspeller voor verlooptintenties met betrekking tot de organisatie blijkt te zijn. De relatie tussen affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid en verlooptintenties met betrekking tot het beroep blijkt niet gemodereerd te worden door affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid.

HOOFDSTUK 5

Pro-actieve persoonlijkheid, baan- en beroepstevredenheid, politieke vaardigheden, affectieve organisatie- en beroepsbetrokkenheid

In hoofdstuk 5 wordt de onderzoeksvraag beantwoord: *Draagt een proactieve persoonlijkheid bij aan de formatie van affectieve organisatie- en affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid? Worden deze potentiële relaties gemedieerd door baan- en beroepstevredenheid van medewerkers? En, modereert de politieke vaardigheden van medewerkers deze relaties.* Deze studie is gebaseerd op twee verschillende studies van professionals in Pakistan, één van doktoren van een Pakistaans ziekenhuis (n=230) en één van academici van een Pakistaanse universiteit (n=181). Resultaten van deze studies laten zien dat een proactieve persoonlijkheid positief gerelateerd is aan affectieve organisatie- en aan affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid. De resultaten laten tevens zien dat baan- en beroepstevredenheid de verschillende relaties mediëren. Daarnaast blijkt in beide studies dat politieke vaardigheden de relatie tussen proactieve persoonlijkheid en affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid modereert: deze relatie wordt sterker naarmate de politieke vaardigheden van medewerkers beter zijn.

HOOFDSTUK 6**Intrinsieke en extrinsieke motivatie, werkbevlogenheid en affectieve organisatie- en affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid**

In hoofdstuk 6, ten slotte, wordt ingegaan op de relatie tussen motivatie, werkbevlogenheid en beide vormen van affectieve betrokkenheid en wordt de volgende onderzoeksvraag beantwoord: *Wat zijn de onderliggende verbanden tussen (intrinsieke en extrinsieke) motivatie en affectieve organisatie- en beroepsbetrokkenheid? Worden deze relaties gemedieerd door werkbevlogenheid?* Aan de hand van een tweetal studies onder ondersteunende staf en academici van een Nederlandse universiteit (n=153) en doktoren van een Pakistaans ziekenhuis (n=181) zijn de verschillende deelvragen beantwoord. De ‘*challenge*’ dimensie van intrinsieke motivatie blijkt in beide studies positief gerelateerd te zijn aan affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid terwijl de ‘*enjoyment*’ dimensie van intrinsieke motivatie in beide studies geen effect blijkt te hebben op affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid. De relatie tussen de ‘*challenge*’ dimensie van intrinsieke motivatie en affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid wordt in het Nederlandse onderzoek gemedieerd door de ‘*dedication*’ dimensie van werkbevlogenheid en in het Pakistaans onderzoek wordt deze relatie gemedieerd door de ‘*absorptie*’ dimensie van werkbevlogenheid. De *compensation* dimensie van extrinsieke motivatie is gerelateerd aan affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid in het Pakistaanse onderzoek, maar vertoont geen relatie in het Nederlandse onderzoek.

Conclusie

In het laatste hoofdstuk van deze dissertatie worden de bevindingen van de eerdere hoofdstukken samengevat. Daarnaast wordt ingegaan op de beperkingen en de sterke punten van de verschillende studies, worden suggesties gedaan voor verder onderzoek en wordt ingegaan op de praktische implicaties van de onderzoeksresultaten.

Algemene uitkomsten. Uit de resultaten van de verschillende studies blijkt dat affectieve organisatie- en affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid positief gerelateerd zijn aan elkaar, en gerelateerd zijn aan verloopintenties met betrekking tot de organisatie en het beroep, waarbij de negatieve relatie tussen affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid en intenties tot verloop met betrekking tot de organisatie, wordt gebufferd door affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid. Daarnaast blijkt dat Leader-Member Exchange (LMC) naar zowel de promotor als naar de assistent promotor gerelateerd is aan affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid en blijkt de relatie tussen LMX promotor en affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid gemedieerd te worden door tevredenheid met HR praktijken. Percepties ten aanzien van employability (inzetbaarheid) blijken positief gerelateerd zijn aan affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid, en deze relatie wordt gemedieerd door baantevredenheid en self efficacy. Een proactieve persoonlijkheid blijkt positief gerelateerd te zijn met zowel affectieve organisatie- als ook met affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid, en deze relaties worden gemedieerd door baan- en beroepstevredenheid. Bovendien blijken de politieke vaardigheden van medewerkers de relatie tussen proactieve persoonlijkheid en affectieve organisatiebetrokkenheid te versterken. Intrinsieke motivatie is gerelateerd

aan affectieve beroepsbetrokkenheid en deze relatie wordt door verschillende dimensies van werkbevoegenheid gemedieerd.

Beperkingen en sterke punten. Ten eerste zijn de gebruikte datasets in dit onderzoek cross-sectioneel van aard waardoor uitspraken over oorzaak en gevolg moeilijk te ondervangen zijn. Ten tweede kan als zwakte worden aangemerkt dat gebruik is gemaakt van vragenlijsten en dat de betrokkenheid van medewerkers dus niet direct is gemeten. Wel geldt dat het onderzoek met behulp van data uit meerdere landen (Nederland en Pakistan), binnen meerdere sectoren (publiek en privaat) en onder verschillende typen professionals (academici en doktoren), is uitgevoerd.

Suggesties voor verder onderzoek. Ten eerste kan het onderzoek naar affectieve organisatie- en beroepsbetrokkenheid worden uitgebreid naar andere culturen, bijvoorbeeld naar de Verenigde Staten, andere Europese landen en naar andere sectoren van de arbeidsmarkt om de robuustheid van het conceptueel model te checken. Hierbij kan tevens het effect van culturele verschillen (Hofstede, 1997) worden meegenomen. Een andere mogelijkheid is uitbreiding van het onderzoek door meer en andere persoonlijkheidskenmerken, zoals de Big Five op te nemen. Ten slotte kan experimenteel onderzoek om het effect van mogelijke Human Resource Management (HRM) interventies op affectieve organisatie en beroepsbetrokkenheid te toetsen worden voorgesteld.

Praktische implicaties. De belangrijkste implicaties van dit onderzoek liggen in het management van medewerkers in termen van werving & selectie (het aannemen van mensen met de gewenste persoonlijkheid), het trainen van medewerkers (bijvoorbeeld in termen van politieke vaardigheden en het vergroten van hun self efficacy) en het waarderen van gewenst gedrag.

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Appendix 1

Satisfaction with HR practices (Torka 2007): Respondents were asked to *indicate (on a 5-point likert scale ranging from 1 = completely satisfied to 5 = completely dissatisfied) how much satisfied they are with the following set of HR practices.*

1. The amount of autonomy and freedom in my work
2. The amount of variety in my work
3. Challenge in my work
4. Salary
5. Fringe-benefits (e.g., retirement pay, reimbursement of travelling costs)
6. Job security
7. Career opportunities
8. Opportunities for development
9. Opportunities for additional education and training
10. Opportunities to visit conferences
11. Work-life balance
12. Information on rewards and fringe-benefits
13. Information on education and courses
14. Influencing (co-deciding) on the content of my PhD
15. Influencing department decisions
16. Availability of own PC at the work place
17. Own permanent work place
18. Space in my office
19. Facilities to perform my research well
20. The amount of appreciation

21. The quality of appreciation
22. The amount of supervision
23. The quality of supervision
24. The amount of support
25. The quality of support
26. The opportunity to work together with colleagues
27. The adequacy of the professional competence of my promoter.
28. The supervision and training plan