

The effects of organizational commitment, job involvement and  
career commitment on work-related attitudes and perceptions

by

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## PREFACE

The following study would not have transpired had it not been for the support of some remarkable people. I would like to thank my graduate committee, namely Dr. J. Peter Mattila, Dr. James C. McElroy, and Dr. Paula C. Morrow, for their time and their wisdom. Dr. McElroy and Dr. Morrow, in particular, offered me guidance and assistance far beyond the call of duty. Perhaps most importantly, they instilled in me the confidence to pursue this endeavor and the ones ahead, and inspired me tremendously, both personally and professionally. I am forever changed because of them.

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## CHAPTER 1.

### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

#### Introduction

The constructs of job involvement and organizational commitment have individually received considerable attention as both the antecedents and outcomes of a multitude of work behaviors and attitudes (Hammer, Landau, & Stern, 1981; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). More recently, career commitment has been capturing similar consideration. Morrow (1983) suggested that all three may be facets of work commitment, one focusing on the job, one on the organization, and the other on the career. Results of Blau's (1987) study, however, intimate that job involvement and organizational commitment can be operationalized as distinct constructs. Indeed, Morrow and McElroy's (1986) examination of the five facets of work commitment identified by Morrow (1983) indicated that organizational commitment, like the protestant work ethic, is a relatively independent construct. Job involvement, on the other hand, proved to at least partially overlap with other facets of work commitment. Career commitment was not included in this particular study (Morrow & McElroy, 1986).

Both job involvement and organizational commitment have been examined as independent predictors of a number of employee behaviors such as turnover (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977; Mowday, Porter, & Steers,

1982, as cited by Blau & Boal, 1989). Blau and Boal (1987) recently suggested that turnover, as well as absenteeism, can be better predicted by examining the interaction between these two work-related attitudes. Their conceptual model (see Figure 1) can be visualized as a four-cell diagram categorizing employees according to levels of organizational commitment and job involvement.

Cell 1 contains individuals who report high levels of both organizational commitment and job involvement. These employees are what Blau and Boal (1987) call *institutionalized stars*, for they are the organization's most prized human assets. It follows that these are also the employees whose turnover would be most dysfunctional and costly for the firm. According to Blau and Boal, institutionalized stars will be especially sensitive to perceptions of internal and external pay equity. Further, they will find satisfaction with the work itself, their future in the organization, supervisors and coworkers, and pay particularly important in their decisions to stay or leave.

An institutionalized star, then, is predicted to quit when he/she is: 1) unhappy with the company, 2) dissatisfied with his/her work, and 3) feeling underrewarded. If he/she is only unhappy with the organization, then he/she is likely to change from an institutionalized star to a lone wolf (Cell 2). Isolated dissatisfaction with the job, on the other hand, will turn the institutionalized star into a corporate citizen (Cell 3). Since it is presumably (and hopefully) unlikely that one will experience all

		Job Involvement	
		High	Low
Organizational Commitment	High	<p><u>1. Institutionalized Stars</u></p> <p>Salient satisfaction facets:  --the work itself  --future with company  --pay  --coworker  --supervisor</p>	<p><u>3. Corporate Citizens</u></p> <p>Salient satisfaction facets:  --coworker</p>
	Low	<p><u>2. Lone Wolves</u></p> <p>Salient satisfaction facets:  --the work itself  --working conditions  --pay</p>	<p><u>4. Apathetic Employees</u></p> <p>Salient satisfaction facets:  --reward</p>

Figure 1. Blau and Boal's (1987) model combining the effects of Organizational Commitment and Job Involvement

three feelings at once, it is also unlikely that institutionalized stars will seriously consider leaving and actively pursuing other positions (Blau & Boal, 1987). Actual turnover as well as intentions to turnover should be low.

Persons in Cell 2 report a high level of job involvement and a low level of organizational commitment. These are Blau and Boal's (1987) *lone wolves*, similar to Gouldner's (1958) *cosmopolitans* who feel no loyalty to their employers but are obsessed with their work. Lone wolves are predicted to be highly sensitive to satisfaction with the work itself or with symbols, such as financial reward, reflecting the importance of their work. It is assumed, since lone wolves are not organizationally committed and are believers in maximizing their work opportunities, that turnover among this group will be fairly high given the availability of other comparable opportunities.

Cell 3 contains individuals reporting low job involvement and high organizational commitment. Named *corporate citizens*, these are the employees who strongly identify with the organization and have internalized the organization's goals, but who are not personally attached to their jobs. Satisfaction with coworkers is particularly salient to these individuals. Blau and Boal (1987) consider corporate citizens, because of their low job involvement, to be less valuable from the firm's perspective



than institutional stars and possibly even lone wolves. Still, they hold some value in that they are not expected to voluntarily turnover.

The least valued members of the organization lie in the fourth cell. These are the *apathetic employees* who report both low organizational commitment and low job involvement. Blau and Boal (1987) claim that, since these employees feel no ties either to the organization or to their work, they are bound only by calculative judgments (maximizing opportunities). Turnover among this group, considered functional by the firm, should be pleasantly high. Similar to lone wolves, apathetic employees are most sensitive to satisfaction with rewards as well as the availability of other work, though the latter are not involved in their work as the former are.

Blau and Boal's (1987) conceptualization of how the interaction between job involvement and organizational commitment affects turnover (and absenteeism) is the impetus behind the present study. This study replicates the work of Blau and Boal (1987) with the addition of career commitment as a third interacting variable in the examination of work-related attitudes and perceptions. The inclusion of career commitment creates a three-dimensional diagram with eight cells rather than four to categorize individuals by reported levels (high or low) of the three constructs (see Figure 2).

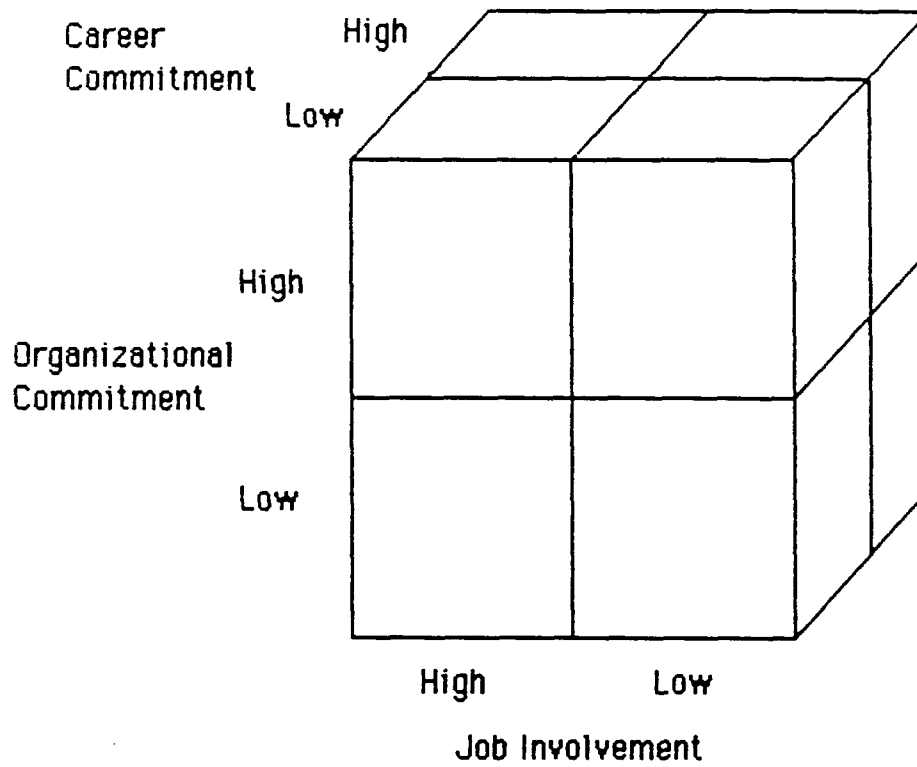


Figure 2. Blau and Boal's model combining Organizational Commitment and Job Involvement with the addition of Career Commitment as a third independent variable

The purpose of this thesis, then, is to test Blau and Boal's (1987) conceptualization of how commitment to one's organization and to one's job affect job-related attitudes and perceptions. In addition to directly testing their conceptualization, the model will be extended to include the impact of commitment to one's career. Tests of the direct impact of each of these forms of work commitment will be conducted and of the impact of the interaction between the three on the cognitions that may precede employee turnover. Hereafter, we will assume that turnover refers to external (outside the organization), voluntary, avoidable, and dysfunctional departures from an organization.

## CHAPTER 2.

## LITERATURE REVIEW AND PROPOSITIONS

## Organizational Commitment

There is fairly consistent empirical evidence indicating a close relationship between organizational commitment, or the relationship of the member to the system, and crucial behavioral outcomes such as employee turnover (Morris & Steers, 1980). For example, Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) assert that organizational commitment relates negatively to intentions to leave or turnover. DeCotiis and Summers (1987) call commitment a stabilizing force that maintains "behavioral direction" when employees' expectations are not met in the short run. For example, a highly committed employee is more likely to complacently accept a pay raise they perceive as inequitable than is one who is less committed.

So the firm can "get away" with more violations of employee expectations when their work force is a committed one (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). In fact, sacrifices, or actions without apparent benefit, can create "sacredness" (Salancik, 1977). In order to protect their egos, Salancik (1977) proposes, individuals develop "myths" to justify the seemingly senseless sacrifices they have made, in this case, for the organization. These myths are born of commitment and the attitudinal adjustments persons make to correspond with the situation or concept to which they are committed.

If this is, in fact, true, then it becomes obvious that employee commitment is crucial to the organization, for the latter is bound to be guilty of some such violations over the course of its life. Others argue that commitment may be a disadvantage to the organization and the employee alike because it creates a uniform and stale work force (Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987). Still, Luthans, Baack, and Taylor (1987) assure, the growing bulk of literature expresses that commitment is a desirable organizational outcome. While DeCotiis and Summers (1987) call organizational commitment central to organizational life, it is not something that exists spontaneously or by chance (Zahra, 1984).

#### Definitions of Organizational Commitment

A review of the literature discussing organizational commitment reveals a broad variety of definitions of the concept as well as methods of measurement. The outcome of such inconsistency has been the introduction of at least 25 concepts and measures related to work commitment in general (Morrow, 1983). Indeed, many scholars have adapted the organizational commitment construct to fit their own purposes. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) see commitment as an attitudinal concept regarding the perceived utility of continued participation in the organization. Abelson (1987) conceptualizes commitment, similar to equity theorists, as an exchange through which members compare aspects of their current position with parallel aspects of significant others' positions. And Zahra (1984) describes organizational commitment

as an employee's decision not only to comply with the employment contract but also to consciously advance the goals of the organization. He, too, finds that the term has unfortunately been used interchangeably with "loyalty to the company," "attachment to the firm," and "identification with the organization," though it is a broader concept with three essential components: 1) acceptance of organizational goals and values; 2) a willingness to exert substantial effort and 3) a concrete desire to maintain an active membership in the organization.

While this is not necessarily an unchangeable state, organizational commitment is, however, more stable than other attitudes such as job satisfaction (Zahra, 1984, and Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Commitment to the organization appears to develop slowly and consistently as employees contemplate their relationships with their employers and is, as Blau (1987) notes, relatively stable over time. The construct also appears to be broader in scope than job satisfaction (Pinder, 1984).

According to Angle and Perry (1983), definitions of organizational commitment fall into two major models. As they illustrate, there is a tendency among researchers to find single bases of commitment, either attributing it entirely to the employee or entirely to the employer.

Member-based model. Member-based model advocates place the origin of commitment in the individual's past behavior. In other words, commitment is defined as a state in which an individual becomes bound

by his/her actions (Salancik, 1977; Kiesler, 1971). Specifically, previous behavior must be public, explicit, irrevocable, and voluntary to be commitment-evoking (Angle & Perry, 1983; Salancik, 1977).

Salancik (1977) insists that behavior must be public or visible to be commitment-inducing for, if it is not, it cannot be undeniably linked to a particular individual. By publicly committing to goals, one is more likely to fulfill those goals. Behavior must also be relatively irrevocable or irreversible to induce commitment. That is, the more permanent the behavior, the more committing it appears to be. Demographic characteristics or situational factors, Salancik (1977) notes, may attach an individual to an organization in this manner. These external forces, such as children in school or a spouse with commitments of his/her own, are unrelated to the organization, yet they make one's membership with that particular organization irrevocable. Internal forces, such as tenure or organizationally specific skills and knowledge which one may develop over time, also contribute to the irreversibility of one's employment and, out of necessity, increase commitment. It simply becomes too costly and detrimental to leave.

Not only must behavior be visible and irrevocable to be committing, but it must be voluntary as well. An individual forced or trapped into some behavior will not be committed by it. If, on the other hand, the act is voluntary, one accepts personal responsibility for it and becomes bound to it (Salancik 1977).

A more general member-based model is Becker's (1960) side bet theory which defines one's commitment as the result of a series of side bets or investments. Such investments may be made actively by the individual in question or may be imposed on a passive individual by other persons or systems (Angle & Perry, 1983). Regardless, Becker (1960) associated the intensity of organizational commitment with the amount of time and effort one has invested in that organization (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). That is, the more an individual has at stake or stands to lose by leaving an organization, the more committed he/she will be. Involuntary personal attributes such as age and sex have been considered side bets by some, for they may affect alternative employment opportunities (Angle & Perry, 1983). Others dispute this notion (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

Additional side bets include the organization's use of compensation as "golden handcuffs" (Angle & Perry, 1983). If one's income level at his/her present job exceeds that of alternative options, he/she may feel there is too much to lose by leaving. However, empirical support of income as a side bet is weak unless other variables such as family responsibilities are considered (Angle & Perry, 1983). Certainly, a breadwinner upon whom other family members depend financially may be especially "committed" to his/her employer.



The hypothesis naming commitment a result of the personal history and attributes an individual brings to the organization has received significant support through research. Porter and Miles (1973) describe the member-based model as being focused on what employees bring into the organization as well as what they do while they are there (Angle & Perry, 1983).

Organization-based model. The alternative to the member-based approach is the organization-based approach, which places the origin of commitment in the organization itself. Supporting this approach is Blau's (1987) finding that, while other forms of work commitment such as job involvement are a function of both personal and environmental factors, organizational commitment is primarily a function of the environment. There exists, says the model, an exchange between the individual and the firm at the heart of which lies a psychological contract (Kotter, 1973). Essentially, both parties enter the employment arrangement with specific expectations of the other. Under the psychological contract, the employee offers his/her skills and effort in exchange for the fulfillment of his/her needs and goals by the organization.

Analogously, Grusky (1966) asserts that the two basic factors determining commitment strength are rewards received and the effort it takes to obtain them. He hypothesized that the greater the rewards one receives or expects to receive, the greater one's commitment to the

organization will be. Results of his research, however, did not support this. He also hypothesized that the greater the obstacles one has overcome to obtain the rewards, the greater one's commitment will be. This proved to be supported consistently by his results of a survey of managers from a large corporation.

Furthermore, managers in Grusky's (1966) sample with highly mobile careers were more strongly committed than their less mobile peers. Since upward mobility typically allows access to bigger and better rewards, this is not a surprising revelation. He does advise, however, that causality in the relationship between career mobility and organizational commitment cannot be determined from the data. In other words, the two are related, but whether one causes the other is unknown. Grusky's (1966) assumption is that mobility and commitment bear mutual influence upon each other.

If an employee believes the organization is treating him/her equitably, then commitment to that organization is more likely. This is due to the mechanism of reciprocation (Angle & Perry, 1983). One of human society's most ubiquitous norms, reciprocity is simply the tendency to return good deeds (Angle & Perry, 1983). It follows, then, that an individual's commitment to the organization may be the reciprocation of an organization's good deeds. The model adhering to these assumptions is aptly considered organization-based, for it suggests that commitment is initiated by the firm.

Like the member-based model, credible research supports the organization-based model (Angle & Perry, 1983). Steers (1977) found that commitment is increased when the organization meets employees' expectations and fulfills their most prominent needs. Similarly, DeCotiis and Summers (1987) conclude from their research that there is a state of mutual commitment, whereby the organization commits to satisfying its members' needs and expectations and the members respond by committing their efforts toward reaching organizational goals. Indeed, it does appear that people are strongly apt to reciprocate actions they value positively, or at least feel a sense of obligation to do so, and do unto others as they would like to have done unto them (Steers, 1977). As Zahra (1984) asserts, humans, by nature, are predisposed to being committed to an organization. It should be noted, however, that Salancik (1977) considers commitment to mold attitudes and maintain behavior even in the *absence* of positive reinforcements or tangible rewards. If this is true, then commitment exists in spite of rewards, not because of them.

Behavioral versus attitudinal approaches. Perhaps a more significant difference among organizational commitment definitions is the emphasis on behavior or attitude. As described by Blau and Boal (1987), two general approaches have been pursued. Some authors define organizational commitment as a behavior. Such an approach views the individual as committed if he/she feels constrained by past actions or sunk costs,

including an age or tenure-based salary or fringe benefits (Blau & Boal, 1987). It is seen as a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his/her actions, or identifies him/herself with particular behaviors. He/she subsequently becomes bound to beliefs which sustain those activities or behaviors (Salancik, 1977).

DeCotiis and Summers (1987) call organizational commitment a behavioral loop which hinges on personal investment. From this perspective, an individual acts, is rewarded by the organization and, thus, acts again. They cite good attendance, tenure, and performance as examples of commitment behavior, though it is difficult to prove that these behaviors are, indeed, the outcomes of organizational commitment. In other words, employees may be committed solely because they stand to lose too much by leaving the firm. The focus here is on overt manifestations of commitment (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Commitment is depicted as a calculative behavior or action resulting from past behaviors. This bears a striking resemblance to the member-based model aforementioned.

The attitudinal approach, on the other hand, views organizational commitment as a positive individual orientation toward the organization. Pinder (1984) sees it simply as a form of extreme loyalty to the company. It is an attitude or state in which the individual not only chooses to remain with the organization, but also identifies with the organization and its goals, and desires to facilitate those goals. The individual's

internalization of the organization's goals and values is, in fact, the distinguishing feature of this approach (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). It is to this attitudinal definition which Blau and Boal (1987) adhere.

While the latter approach emphasizes attitudinal commitment, the former recognizes the attitudinal component as well. As Mayes and Ganster (1988) argue, the attitudinal approach attaches the commitment attitude to the organization; the behavioral approach attaches that attitude to a behavior. Wiener (1982), for example, calls organizational commitment an attitude, resulting from internalized pressures, to behave according to and in pursuit of meeting organizational goals.

While various authors adopt different approaches in defining organizational commitment, Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) assert that each approach in isolation may be overly simplistic:

What is lacking is research which identifies the result of interactions between personal and organizational determinants of organizational commitment. That is, current research which neglects the interactive effects of personal and organizational variables is probably understating the complexity of the commitment process (p. 557).

It is conceivable that organizational commitment may be a manifold of all the above definitions. Perhaps it is both member and organization-based and both behavioral and attitudinal. Results of Hrebiniak and Alutto's (1972) study indicates that commitment has an exchange element as well as a structural element. Perhaps the construct

does not fit neatly into any one of the above categories but, rather, encompasses them all.

A common three-part definition of organizational commitment which transcends the above categories has surfaced in recent literature. The multidimensional construct, earlier attributed to Zahra (1984), consists of the member's: 1) desire to stay with the organization; 2) acceptance of and belief in the organization's goals and values; and 3) willingness to exert conscious effort on the organization's behalf (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Morrow, 1983; Zahra, 1984; Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987). Simply stated, the committed employee identifies with the firm (attitudinal) and displays this identification through his/her performance and tenure (behavioral). This is beyond passive loyalty; it is an active involvement in the organization combined with a desire to contribute to the organization's well-being. Moreover, it involves both attitudes and actions. This discussion will adopt the three-part definition in its entirety.

A further distinction which is consistent with the three-part definition aforementioned is made by Kidron (1978). He separates commitment into calculative and moral components which parallel parts one and two of that definition. An individual's willingness to stay with the organization (part one) may be deemed calculative commitment if it is in his/her own best interest, given the alternatives, to do so. An individual's acceptance of and belief in organizational goals and values

(part two) is more likely to be moral commitment. In a recent article, Vardi, Wiener, and Popper (1989) also separated organizational commitment into two conceptual parts. They called one instrumental-calculative, reportedly determined by considerations of self-benefit, and the other normative, which includes internalized pressures to act on behalf of the organization's interests. Separate assessment of the two could improve organizational commitment research (Vardi et al., 1989).

#### Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Research on the antecedents of organizational commitment fall into three main groups: 1.) personal characteristics; 2.) organizational characteristics; or 3.) the person-organization fit (Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987). Each has received considerable attention and will be discussed separately below.

Personal characteristics. One group of studies focuses on the relationship between personal or demographic variables and commitment. Luthans, Baack, and Taylor (1987) include locus of control, age, educational level, time spent with supervision, and both organizational and position tenure in the list of demographic variables related to commitment strength. Results of their 1987 study revealed a significant relationship between demographics and commitment, as expected. Because their sample included a conglomeration of subordinates and

supervisors from diverse organizations, their findings seem fairly generalizable and support many previous studies.

Especially strong was the relationship they found between an internal locus of control and reported commitment, possibly due to internals' need for cognitive consistency (Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987). Such results are found quite consistently across studies, though they are typically weak. Locus of control is related to the attributional process, representing the extent to which individuals believe that what happens to them is or is not within their own personal control. People who attribute the cause or control of events to themselves have internal loci, while those who attribute the cause or control to their environment are said to be externally oriented.

Internals believe they are the masters of their own fates; externals see themselves as victims of fate. The former perceive themselves as having more choices, found by Staw (1974) to be related to commitment, than do the latter. If an internalizer remains with the organization, he/she may claim to be committed in order to maintain consistency with his/her frame of mind. For that matter, all organizational commitment may be created to retrospectively rationalize and justify past and present behaviors (Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987) .



Age, level of educational attainment, and tenure were also found to have significant impacts on organizational commitment (Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987). That is, older workers, workers with higher education levels, and workers with longer tenure tended to be more committed than their peers. Grusky (1966) earlier found a positive relationship between length of service (tenure) and commitment, due largely to the perception of time investment. According to Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972), increased age similarly increases commitment, apparently due to the accrual of investments in the present firm and the decreased attractiveness of older individuals to other firms. Younger workers who have not yet made as large an investment in the firm are also not as committed as their older counterparts. Aranya and Jacobson (1975) similarly found a small, positive correlation between age and organizational commitment, though it was not a significant finding. Education appeared to be inversely related to commitment to the firm though, again, the correlation looks weak (Aranya & Jacobson, 1975). In other words, the higher one's level of educational attainment, the more career alternatives he/she should have and, thus, the less likely he/she is to feel committed to any one organization.

In a slightly different angle on education, Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) found, in a sample of teachers and nurses, that those who planned to continue their education were less committed to the firm than are those with no such plans. Intentions to become further educated, it is

theorized, signals professionalism or "cosmopolitanism," both antitheses of commitment to the present employer. It is rather surprising, then, that individuals from white-collar backgrounds tend to be more committed than those from blue-collar backgrounds since white-collar individuals should tend more toward professionalism as well. This seeming contradiction may be the result of early exposure to blue-collar parents' negative attitudes about employers and the workplace, since blue-collar positions tend to be less desirable than white-collar positions (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

Sex and marital status relate to organizational commitment as well, though Aranya and Jacobson (1975) found only a small and nonsignificant correlation for the latter. In the case of gender, women change employers less often than men, indicating stronger commitment among the former. However, Gray (1989) recently reported finding a significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and feminist gender ideology among a sample of female nurses. Marital status appears to play a bigger role than gender. Both married and separated individuals, especially women, are less likely than singles and males to consider employment alternatives (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). Most likely, married and separated members, especially those with children, face more responsibilities and, consequently, greater costs upon leaving the organization than do singles (Aranya & Jacobson, 1975). Thus, this may be deemed commitment, but it certainly is calculative in nature. Gray

(1989) also found that organizational commitment was positively related to the presence of children and negatively related to the degree to which work interferes with one's home life.

Abelson's (1987) findings tend to contradict these conclusions, however. He studied the turnover of nursing personnel from five rural nursing homes for one year, comparing the stayers, unavoidable leavers, and avoidable leavers. Results of an analysis of variance indicated no significant differences in the individual characteristics of the three groups. Yet, avoidable leavers reported less satisfaction and commitment than did unavoidable leavers or stayers. And, as suggested by the Exit/Voice model (Mayes & Ganster, 1988), avoidable leavers reported more job tension and withdrawal cognitions (to be discussed).

Organizational characteristics. Organizational characteristics and relationships have also been studied as antecedents to commitment. Luthans, Baack, and Taylor (1987) found, as previous research had shown, that the more a leader structures the work situation, the more committed the employees within that situation seem to be. Perhaps employees, or at least those who want to excel, appreciate guidance from their supervisors on how to effectively perform their roles. After all, highly committed employees are, by definition, driven toward accomplishing organizational goals (Morris & Steers, 1980). Specific guidelines should eliminate role ambiguity, a potential precursor to turnover.

Morris and Steers (1980) also focused on the organizational or structural antecedents of employee commitment. Using multiple regression analyses, they examined the combined influence of five particular structural variables on organizational commitment: 1) decentralization, defined as the perceived participation in decision making; 2) formalization, the degree of employee awareness concerning written rules and procedures of the job; 3) supervisory span of control; 4) span of subordination, or the number of supervisors over a particular subordinate; 5) perceived functional dependence; and 6) work group size. Their research is based on the assumption that the reality of these variables, or any variables for that matter, is actually the employees' perceptions of them.

Results of Morris and Steers' (1980) analyses reveal statistically significant bivariate relationships between organizational commitment and the structural variables of decentralization, functional dependence, and formalization. Further, the set of six structural variables together explained 20 percent of the variation in organizational commitment, making them plausible factors in its development.

Substantial research supports the notion that persons often exhibit either fight or flight responses (aggression or withdrawal) when under psychological stress, much like animals faced by physical threat. Mayes and Ganster's (1988) hypothesis, typically referred to as the Exit/Voice model, separates employees' reactions to stress at work into exit

(flight) responses and voice (fight) responses. According to the model, organizational commitment plays a moderating role in the process leading to fight or flight and, ultimately, retention or turnover. The presence of job stressors, namely role conflict, role ambiguity, and/or a poor personality-environment (P-E) fit, in the workplace are predicted to cause lowered satisfaction and/or reduced commitment, the job-related strains which presumably moderate the chain of events. In other words, organizational commitment may be affected by the aforementioned stressors and, in turn, may affect retention/turnover (Mayes & Ganster, 1988). Similarly, Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) theorize that excessive stress from the opposition of forces or influences at the workplace can negatively affect organizational commitment. More specifically, role tension and uncertainty decrease commitment by increasing the perceived desirability of extraorganizational alternatives.

Person-Organization fit. A third group approaches the study of commitment antecedents as a pairing of employees' needs and values with the organization's norms and values. This person-organization "fit" approach cites a good fit as one that enhances commitment. Luthans, Baack, and Taylor (1987) examined the person-organization fit as the interaction between locus of control and leader-initiating structure and found that the better the fit, the stronger the commitment. Contrarily, however, Blau (1987) found that the fit does not predict organizational commitment.

Luthans, Baack, and Taylor's (1987) model, supported by their research, shows all three categories of variables--demographic, organizational, and person-organization fit--as causally related to organizational commitment. Morris and Steers (1980) agree that, based on previous findings, commitment appears to be influenced by a number of factors including personal attributes, job characteristics, and work experiences. In particular, they examined the structural influences of decentralization, formalization, supervisory span of control, perceived functional dependence, and work group size, as perceived by the employees themselves.

Zahra (1984) also contends that background, personality, and organizational factors all affect organizational commitment. Though Blau (1987) disagrees with the inclusion of the person-organization fit variable, the model nevertheless reinforces the notion that the process of commitment development is quite complex, involving any number of factors.

#### Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Employees who are highly committed to the organization are more likely to make sacrifices for it and tend to devote more time and effort to organizational goals (Pinder, 1984). They are also less likely to be absent from work (Steers, 1977). Strong organizational commitment can even breed a sense of comfort and security with respect to one's membership in a particular organization (Pinder, 1984).

As aforementioned, Mayes and Ganster (1988) theorize that individuals who are committed to the organization are less likely to quit and more likely to express a voice in dissatisfying circumstances. Yet they note that committed employees are probably also less likely, regardless of dissatisfaction, to try to make changes in the firm. They base this on the finding that norms for consistency, along with the motivation to justify previous decisions and the possibility for prospective rationality, are conducive to strengthening commitment (Mayes & Ganster, 1988). Thus, in environments with the conditions described, employees should be highly committed and accept the firm as it is. This corresponds to DeCotiis and Summer's (1987) notion that committed employees will forgive an organization's minor, or perhaps not so minor, imperfections and remain.

While Mayes and Ganster's (1988) study indicates that the goal acceptance and motivation segments of commitment are significantly related to the precursors of turnover, it revealed no relationship between commitment and actual turnover. Apparently the process is far more complicated than the model illustrates and key mediating variables have been overlooked. Commitment was, nonetheless, found to interact with role ambiguity in a negative relationship with the fight response (Mayes & Ganster, 1988). Thus, highly committed employees experiencing role ambiguity do not typically exhibit political behavior.

The desire or willingness to stay with the firm (part 1 of the preferred organizational commitment definition) is also considered by many to be an attitude which prevents turnover (March & Simon, 1958; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). DeCotiis and Summers (1987) even argue that the desire to stay should be considered a consequence, rather than an element, of organizational commitment. In a recent comparison study, Shore and Martin (1989) found that, among a sample of bank tellers, organizational commitment was more strongly correlated with turnover intentions than was job satisfaction. The same was not true for hospital professionals. On the other hand, job satisfaction was more highly correlated with supervisory performance ratings than organizational commitment for both samples. Shore and Martin view this as an indication that specific job attitudes, such as job satisfaction, relate more closely to task-related outcomes, in this case performance ratings, while global organizational attitudes, such as organizational commitment, relate to such organization-related outcomes as turnover intentions.

### Summary

A considerably large body of literature on organizational commitment has developed and continues to grow. So diverse are the definitions and reported findings, that summarizing becomes difficult. For the most part, organizational commitment is considered desirable, if not crucial, to the organization. But the definitions of the concept vary.



Conceptualizations tend to be either member-based (e.g., Salancik, 1977; Kiesler, 1971; Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Porter & Miles, 1973), or organization-based (e.g., Blau, 1987; Kotter, 1973; Grusky, 1966; Steers, 1977; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987), or both (e.g., Angle & Perry, 1983). The definitions of organizational commitment can also be categorized as behavioral (e.g., Salancik, 1977; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979) or attitudinal (e.g., Pinder, 1984; Blau & Boal, 1987; Wiener, 1982), although Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) suggest that each individual approach is lacking. Indeed, the preferred definition of late consists of three dimensions and includes both attitudinal and behavioral facets (e.g., Zahra, 1984; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Morrow, 1983; Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987).

In general, organizational commitment has been found to be positively related to such antecedents as age, tenure, and an internal locus of control (e.g., Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987; Staw, 1974; Grusky, 1966; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Staw, 1974; Abelson, 1987), negatively related to education (e.g., Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Aranya & Jacobson, 1975), and higher among females and married people (e.g., Aranya & Jacobson, 1975; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Gray, 1989). Significant relationships between organizational commitment and organizational decentralization, functional dependence, formalization, and role conflict or ambiguity have also been reported (e.g., Morris & Steers, 1980; Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987; Mayes & Ganster, 1988; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). Perhaps most importantly, the better the fit between the employee and

the organization, the greater organizational commitment tends to be (Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987).

Organizational commitment also has been related to outcomes such as lower absenteeism (e.g., Steers, 1977) and turnover rates (e.g., Mayes & Ganster, 1988), greater employee effort, and feelings of comfort and security (e.g., Pinder, 1984). While this appears to be an impressive list, the attempts to identify the elements of organizational commitment, its antecedents and its outcomes will--and should--wage on before we can safely assume anything.

### Job Involvement

Though more attention has been captured by the concept of commitment to the organization, recent literature has also indicated a growing interest in individuals' commitment to their jobs. Morrow (1983) calls the latter a form of work commitment with a focus on the job itself. To date, the concept has been plagued by confusion and redundancy, resulting in considerable disagreement over terminology (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). While various researchers have given this construct various names, e.g., ego involvement (Allport, 1947), it is most often termed "job involvement" (Wiener & Vardi, 1980). Even so, the term is far from precise (Wiener & Gechman, 1977).

### Definitions of Job Involvement

Studies of job involvement have led to two major classes of definitions (Saal, 1978). Some favor defining job involvement as a performance/self esteem relationship. Pinder (1984), for example, defines it loosely as the relationship between one's work and one's self-concept. This definition has commonalities with the protestant work ethic because it suggests that an individual's perceived self-worth is a function of his/her performance on the job (Morrow, 1983). It has also been defined as a component of self-image (Morrow, 1983; Saal, 1978). This latter view emphasizes personal identification with the work itself.

Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) found their data to be more consistent with the former definition, namely that job involvement is a relationship between one's self esteem and one's performance. Consistent with the second definition, Mudrack (1989) recently called it the extent to which one identifies with one's job, regarding that job as important in his/her life and central to the self-concept. Also consistent with the first category, Pinder (1984) specifically describes the person involved in his/her job as one who 1) actively participates in that job; 2) sees it as his/her central life interest; 3) considers performance on that job to be central to his/her self-esteem; and 4) finds performing the job consistent with his/her self-concept. He even goes so far as to say that extremely job-involved people often become obsessed with their work. Their

emotional moods, in turn, become dependent upon their work performance. Pinder's (1984) definition may be problematic in that it may overlap other constructs. However, while he does cite evidence that job involvement is related to both job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation, he insists that the three are distinct constructs.

Wiener and Gechman (1977) offer a third definition which views involvement as a value orientation toward work learned early in the process of socialization. This resembles the sociological approach to be discussed later in this review. Like organizational commitment, job involvement appears to be quite stable over time (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Lodahl and Kejner (1965) call it the degree to which a person psychologically identifies with his/her work or the importance of work to that person's perceived self-worth, as well as a readiness to be judged by one's work. This is an internalization of feelings about the "goodness" of work which Lodahl and Kejner (1965) believe can be enhanced, if not developed, by the organization through socialization. Hence, they also consider job involvement a possible measure of the ease with which an employee can be further socialized by the organization. If this is true, then job involvement may be stable but not unchangeable. A possible fourth conceptualization cited by Blau and Boal (1987) focuses simply on the degree to which an individual actively participates in his/her job.

Undoubtedly the most well known and widely used measure of job involvement is that developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965). Widespread agreement exists at least on the popularity of this tool (Morrow, 1983; Kanungo, 1982; Saal, 1978). But, while Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) 20-item Likert scale has emerged as one of the preferred measuring instruments, the dust has hardly settled. The study of job involvement has historically proven problematic in terms of conceptual ambiguities and poor measurement instruments (Kanungo, 1982). Despite the recent increase in research on the subject, conceptual understanding and agreement remains elusive (Wiener & Gechman, 1977). Typically the job involvement construct has been vague and loaded with excess meaning.

Kanungo (1982) cites four possible reasons for the excess "baggage" the construct has come to carry. For one thing, the identification of the antecedents and outcomes of the construct is often blurred. Kanungo (1982) also blames the merging of two distinct concepts, job involvement and intrinsic motivation on the job, for the overloaded involvement construct. Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) popular measure of job involvement is, according to Kanungo (1982), blatantly guilty of this confusion. That is, they combine items representing both concepts. The question, "I live, eat, and breathe my job," relates to psychological identification with the job. But "sometimes I'd like to kick myself for the mistakes I make in my work," addresses the intrinsic motivation at work for meeting self-esteem needs. Kanungo (1982) claims that these are measures of two very different things.

Third, Kanungo (1982) argues that the definition of job involvement encompasses both cognitive and positive emotional state elements which overload it. Again he attacks Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) scale for containing items representing both concepts. The item, "the major satisfaction in my life comes from my job," describes, according to Kanungo (1982), an affective state. Conversely, "the most important things that happen to me involve my work" describes a cognitive state.

Finally, Kanungo (1982) asserts that most conceptualizations of job concept have failed to address the two different contexts in which individuals can exhibit involvement. Job involvement can be examined in a specific job context, namely the present job, as a function of the degree to which the job satisfies the individual's needs. Or it can be examined via a generalized work context wherein involvement is a normative belief about the value or centrality of work in individuals' lives. Kanungo (1982) is careful to note that this construct should not be confused with and does not overlap with organizational commitment. To clarify, job involvement is a specific belief, either in a specific or a general context, which an individual holds regarding his/her job, while organizational commitment is a general attitude toward the organization.

Attitudinal vs. behavioral approaches. Most of the approaches to job involvement focus on intrapersonal attitudinal processes through which theorists attempt to explain work behaviors (Wiener & Gechman, 1977).

In her discussion of the satisfaction/performance correlation, Fisher (1980) criticizes research attempting to correlate an attitude with a behavior, two different things. Based on similar arguments, Wiener and Gechman (1977) prescribe an alternative. What is needed, they say, is an approach which handles job involvement as a subset of job behaviors. Interestingly, they use the terms job involvement and work commitment interchangeably. This blurring of constructs is exactly what Morrow (1983) suggests is troubling such research. Kanungo (1982) reports findings supportive of a conceptual distinction between job involvement and work commitment, indicating that the two terms should not be interchanged.

Pinder (1984) considers job involvement an attitude which manifests itself in various behaviors. But, as was discussed earlier, Wiener and Gechman (1977) are critical of the typical urge to measure job involvement as an attitude. Following a study of female teachers in a suburban elementary school, they conclude that work commitment (job involvement) cannot be significantly predicted by attitudinal measures. They tested four such measures, namely Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) scale, Dubin's (1956) central life interest measure, a question asking if people would work if it was not economically necessary (Morse & Weiss, 1955), and a question measuring ego involvement (Vroom, 1962), and found that demographic variables are not significantly related to job involvement. Based on their results, Wiener and Gechman (1977) emphasize the

superiority of a behaviorally oriented scale of measurement. Whether or not their argument is valid, they appear to be guilty of blatantly mangling the work commitment terminology.

Toward developing their well-known measurement scale, Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) research indicated that job involvement, or the readiness to be judged according to one's work was, indeed, a multidimensional attitude, as opposed to Wiener and Gechman's behavioral approach, which can be quantified and ranked with moderate reliability. Their 20-item scale, including statements such as "I live, eat, and breathe my job," seems to be generalizable across jobs and populations. Items based on Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) scale were borrowed from Kanungo's (1982) scale for the present study.

#### Antecedents of Job Involvement

Theories regarding job involvement can be categorized into three prevailing perspectives (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Job involvement has been investigated as: 1) an individual difference variable; 2) a function of the situation; and 3) an interaction between individual and situational characteristics. In support of these classifications, Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) cited findings of bivariate correlations between job involvement and both personal characteristics and situational characteristics, as well as work outcomes (satisfaction, performance, etc.), with none of these relationships showing any more magnitude than the other two. This should not, Saal (1978) warns, be taken to necessarily indicate that the three



variables explain equal portions of variance in involvement, only that their correlations are approximately equal in size.

Much of the variance in job involvement remained unexplained by *any* of these correlations. However, Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) did find markedly independent personal and situational variable effects on job involvement. The latter seems to correlate more strongly with the attitudes of low job-involved individuals than with those of the more highly job-involved. Regardless, says Pinder (1984), both the individual and the organization should be considered as determinants of job involvement.

Job involvement research can also be earmarked in terms of who is doing the research. Psychologists tend to focus on organizational conditions, such as meaningfulness of the work and satisfaction with supervision, which lead to involvement. Blau and Boal (1987), for example, adhere to the psychological identification approach to job involvement for their studies. Sociologists, on the other hand, focus on the socialization process leading to an individual's incorporation of work-related norms and values (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) assessment of the two approaches maintains that the psychological approach is inadequate for interpreting organizational behavior of any nature because it ignores the implications of our being social creatures. Dubin (1961) agrees, arguing that human attitudes and behaviors are born of social experiences.

Based on the results of their study of nurses and engineers, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) composed a profile of the highly job-involved individual. They found that this individual was typically older, more satisfied with his/her work and opportunities for promotion, more satisfied with coworkers and his/her supervisor, ambitious, upwardly mobile, and socially motivated. One can see the similarities with the individual who reports being highly committed to the organization (see prior section). Unlike organizational commitment, however, a reliable relationship between job involvement and performance has yet to be substantiated (Saal, 1978).

Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) found a positive relationship between the magnitude of one's job involvement and the strength of both one's growth needs and one's adherence to the Protestant Work Ethic. They also found that tenure and the scope of the job are positively related to job involvement. Workers with the authority to make decisions relative to their jobs tend to be more involved in their jobs as well (Pinder, 1984). Pinder (1984) summarizes by calling the determination of job involvement an interaction of personal needs and values with various aspects of the job and the job context. Similarly, Sverko (1989) recently presented a model indicating that the level of job involvement, or the degree of importance of one's work, depends on the perceived possibilities for satisfying one's salient work values on the job.

As aforementioned, Kanungo (1982) calls the distinction between the antecedents and outcomes of job involvement a difficult one to make. Rabinowitz and Hall's (1978) notion that involvement is a "feedback variable" acting as both a cause and an effect of work behavior may help explain these ambiguities. Perhaps the process is a cyclical one in which it is difficult to determine a beginning or an end.

#### Consequences of Job Involvement

Considerable research indicates that employees who are highly involved in their jobs are more likely to be satisfied with both their jobs and the organizations by which they are employed. They also tend to be more committed to those organizations and, consequently, exhibit better attendance habits. These relationships are not strong, however, and study results were actually mixed overall (Pinder, 1984). Based upon Rabinowitz and Hall's (1977) finding that job commitment and job satisfaction are moderately related, Wiener and Vardi (1980) consider satisfaction an outcome of job commitment. Still, Pinder warns, it is difficult to determine the direction of these correlations, in spite of their strength and consistency. Whether job involvement leads to such consequences or vice versa is still uncertain.

Gechman and Wiener (1975) have shown that job involvement may be a force behind the effort one puts into the job. Performance effectiveness, however, bore only a very weak and inconsistent correlation with commitment to the job. Gorn and Kanungo (1980) found,

in a cross-sectional study of insurance sales representatives working on commission, moderate relationships between job involvement and self-reported effort and performance, measured in terms of salary. Too little research exists at the present, however, to make any conclusions on this linkage. Pinder (1984) hypothesizes that various characteristics of the individual, the job, and the organization combine to cause some level of job involvement and job satisfaction, which not only affect the individual's performance, but are affected by it as well.

An ultimate outcome of low job involvement may be employee turnover. In a study of telephone operators and service representatives, Wickert (1951) discovered that those who had left their jobs reported less job involvement. At what point they became disinvolved is unknown. However, those who remained felt they had some degree of autonomy and were at least somewhat important to the company's success.

An extreme level of job involvement, says Pinder (1984), can be considered workaholism. At the other extreme are the nearly completely uninvolved Machiavellians (Mudrack, 1989). Pinder suggests that the consequences of workaholism are both positive and negative. Workaholics, who constitute approximately 5% of the adult population (Machlowitz, 1980), thrive on their work and, thus, are typically the hardest workers, a positive consequence for the company. A possible negative outcome is the threat workaholism can be to one's health, not to mention one's personal relationships. Surprisingly, workaholics may also be rather poor

performers because they try to do too much. By attempting to be "super employees" who do everything themselves, they may spread themselves too thin and not do any one thing very well.

Another possible negative consequence of workaholism is the affect it may have on employees who are not involved in their jobs to such an extreme. That is, workaholics can be intimidating or annoying to those who must work with them. As Machlowitz (1980) describes, the consequences of extreme job involvement, or workaholism, can be both positive and negative, both for individuals and the organization as a whole. High job involvement without becoming obsessive seems to be the ideal.

In his 1982 study, Kanungo assessed three formats for measuring job and work involvement, namely the questionnaire, semantic differential (Job Involvement Semantic Differential scale), and graphic (Job Involvement Graphic scale) techniques. Almost without exception, the questionnaire is the method of choice. But Kanungo (1982) found that, for cross-cultural and comparative research, other formats such as graphic may prove to be superior. For one thing, graphic techniques do not require that the respondent be literate. To summarize, Kanungo (1982) suggests the utilization of these alternatives to the questionnaire to enhance cross-cultural validity and generalizability of findings.

### Summary

While job involvement has received less research attention than organizational commitment, it appears to be gaining ground. The various definitions of job involvement typically fall into three broad categories: one emphasizing a performance/self-esteem relationship (e.g., Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977; Pinder, 1984; Mudrack, 1989); one a component of self-image (e.g., Saal, 1978); and one a socialized value orientation toward work (e.g., Wiener & Gechman, 1977; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). Like organizational commitment, job involvement has been approached as both an attitude (e.g., Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) and a behavior (e.g., Wiener & Gechman, 1977), as well as a combination of the two (e.g., Pinder, 1984). The approaches of psychologists and sociologists can also be distinguished.

As Kanungo (1982) asserts, job involvement research has been laden with conceptual and measurement problems. The blurring of antecedents and consequences and the overlapping with other constructs are partly to blame (Kanungo, 1982). Among the antecedents which have been linked with job involvement are work autonomy (e.g., Pinder, 1984), tenure and growth needs (e.g., Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977) as well as age, ambition, upward mobility, and satisfaction with work, coworkers, supervision, and promotion opportunities (e.g., Lodahl & Kejner). Other research suggests that job satisfaction may be a consequence of job involvement (e.g., Wiener & Vardi, 1980), in addition to low absenteeism and turnover

(e.g., Pinder, 1984; Wickert, 1951), although Pinder (1984) suggests that the direction of these relationships may be indeterminable. The extreme case of job involvement, namely workaholism, can have outcomes both positive and negative for employees and the organization alike. The ideal seems to be high job involvement falling just short of being obsessive (Machlowitz, 1980).

### Career Commitment

A more recently recognized facet of work commitment is that of commitment toward one's career. Like organizational commitment and job involvement, there is considerable disagreement over what this construct should be called. Career commitment has also been termed career motivation (e.g., Blau, 1988), career salience (e.g., Greenhaus, 1971), professional commitment (e.g., Tuma & Grimes, 1981), and career orientation (e.g., Cochran, 1983), to name but a few. Whether these capture exactly the same attitudes and/or behaviors remains unclear.

Perhaps with the increasing interest and subsequent research in this area, the construct will gain clarity and conciseness. At the present, there is a dearth of literature on career-focused commitment. Results of Blau's (1988; 1989) studies, however, do suggest that it is a construct which is operationally distinct from both job involvement and organizational commitment and, thus, deserves separate attention. In addition, Blau (1989) reported finding evidence supporting the

convergent and discriminant validity of the career commitment construct. What remains to be determined, according to Blau (1989), is whether a minimal threshold level among occupations, below which career commitment is not operational, exists and, if so, where that cutoff lies. Perhaps further research across a broad range of occupations would help answer such questions.

#### Definitions of Career Commitment

The career itself is an interesting phenomenon for study in that it is longitudinal in nature. Any given position is merely a portion of one's career path (Scholl, 1983). Thus, commitment to a career would appear to be longitudinal as well. It extends beyond one particular position and/or one particular organization unless, of course, an entire career is spent in one position with one employer.

Cochran (1983) suggests that a strong career orientation is characterized by an established and definite occupational direction which is consistent with and adapted to the individual's self-assessment. According to Marshall and Wijting (1980), the career orientation construct can be divided into two separate factors, that of career centeredness and career commitment. If this is so, then Cochran's description includes the definitions of both, though neither one is distinguishable. Career commitment, in Marshall and Wijting's view, is the degree of importance of work activities in one's life as well as the desire to work regardless of financial need. The latter is hypothetical in nature and may be difficult to measure.



Blau (1985) defines career commitment simply as an attitude towards a profession within a vocation, the emphasis being on the vocation and not any specific job. He claims that this definition carefully promotes exclusiveness and prevents overlap with other constructs such as commitment to the organization and to a particular job. Further, he earmarks dedication to career aspirations as an indicator of high career commitment (Blau, 1988).

In a recent study, Koslowsky (1987) examined a sample of 73 psychology students at Bar-Ilan University, outside of Tel-Aviv, Israel. He unexplainably asserts that studying college students rather than employees leads to a more precise measure of career commitment. His definition of choice deems career commitment the psychological attachment to a career (Koslowsky, 1987). Morrow (1983) defines career-focused work commitment as the degree of importance one perceives his/her career to have in his/her life. It should be noted, however, that she found some overlap between career commitment and other facets of work commitment. More specifically, Wiener and Vardi (1980) reported moderate intercorrelation between organizational commitment, job involvement, and career commitment. They suggest, however, that the relative outcomes of each are different enough to warrant individual attention.

### Antecedents of Career Commitment

As Koslowsky (1987) reports, a number of antecedents of career commitment have been analyzed, including age, tenure, education, and gender. Gender as a predictor of career commitment has been the most extensively examined. Several studies indicate that females are less committed to full-time careers than are males. However, Blau (1988) feels that more research in the area of career commitment antecedents is sorely needed before any absolute statements can be made.

Quadagno (1978) examined gender differences in career patterns and tested the assumption that women are less committed to their careers and, thus, exhibit more irregular careers with more interruptions, primarily due to child-rearing and family demands. The results did not support this assumption. Career interruptions among male and female physicians did not differ significantly, although the distributions and lengths of the interruptions did. Quadagno (1978) concluded that such assumptions reflect the lower-paying, lower-status occupations which women have traditionally held, and not the level of commitment women exhibit toward them.

A recent study similarly tested the hypothesis that career commitment would differ by gender (Bishop & Solomon, 1989). Again, no evidence of a gender difference was found. Results of Koslowsky's (1987) study of college students also revealed no significant correlations between career commitment and age, sex, or tenure (grade level). He

does, however, believe that the family as well as general life circumstances can have an effect.

In contrast to these reports, Powell and Posner (1989) recently found evidence of a gender effect on career commitment. Among a sample of middle managers, men appeared to be more committed to their careers, as opposed to their family/home lives, than women, although the women perceived a greater spilling of work anxieties into their personal lives. This apparent gender effect was, according to Powell and Posner's attribution, largely a function of the subjects' sex-role identities. When masculinity, femininity, and family status were considered in addition to gender, the main effect of the latter was not significant. Moreover, no significant relationship between family status and career commitment for either men or women was revealed.

Streib and Schneider (1971) found greater degrees of career commitment among persons in white-collar and professional occupations than among those in blue-collar occupations. They concluded that high status occupations are conducive to stronger commitment, largely because of that status. Professionals of both genders tended to be more committed to their careers and either retire later or do not remain in retirement more often than nonprofessionals.

In Blau's (1988) sample of insurance company employees, supervisors were found to have a higher mean career commitment level than did field office employees. He thus concludes that tenure may correspond with

career commitment, although status again seems a plausible factor. Among a sample of nurses, he did, indeed, find a positive and significant relationship between tenure and career commitment.

### Consequences of Career Commitment

Koslowsky (1987) suggests that career commitment can be an effective predictor of future behavior. He warns, however, that the career in question must be clearly distinguishable and specific for the level of commitment to it to be linked with specific outcomes. In addition, if the outcomes are to be predicted, they must be behaviorally measured.

While Wiener and Vardi (1980) found that career commitment was a nonsignificant predictor of outcomes, Koslowsky (1987) found that it explained a large portion of outcome variance. Three of the four individual outcome behaviors he examined in his sample of college students, namely the number of hours spent studying, the number of meetings with instructors, and the number of hours spent writing, were significantly correlated with career commitment. The more highly committed the students were to their field, the more often they demonstrated these behaviors. The fourth behavior, the number of visits to the library, did not appear to be independently related to commitment. Among a sample of full-time bank tellers, Blau (1989) found a significantly negative relationship between career commitment and turnover, mediated by career withdrawal cognitions.

As Quadagno (1978) describes, the career commitment construct and the behavior it may explain must be independent. For example, we should not assume that a sporadic work life necessarily indicates low career commitment. Many studies have, unfortunately, overlooked this distinction. Perhaps further research will offer more substantial findings regarding career commitment.

### Summary

As this review indicates, little research to date has focused on the career commitment construct. While Blau (1988; 1989) asserts that it is an operationally distinct construct, there is still debate over its clarity and an urgent need to determine a minimal threshold level (Blau, 1989). Perhaps better established is the notion that career commitment is longitudinal in nature, transcending any one organization or any one job. A number of definitions of career commitment (e.g., Cochran, 1983; Marshall & Wijting, 1980; Blau, 1985; Blau, 1988; Koslowsky, 1987; Morrow, 1983) have been suggested, as have antecedents and consequences. Age, tenure (e.g., Blau, 1988), education, gender (e.g., Koslowsky, 1987; Quadagno, 1978; Bishop & Solomon, 1989; Powell & Posner, 1989), and type of occupation (e.g., Streib & Schneider, 1971) are among the antecedents studied, with a distinct emphasis on gender. The scant research on career commitment consequences has focused on such outcomes as college students' study habits (Koslowsky, 1987) and employee turnover (Blau, 1989). Indeed, a great deal of ground has yet to be covered.

## Research Propositions

Based on this literature, particularly the model proposed by Blau and Boal (1987), one would expect work commitment, in general, to be positively related to job attitudes and perceptions. While the bulk of the literature, as well as Blau and Boal's model, focused on organizational commitment and job involvement, the following proposition is offered to include career commitment as a form of work commitment.

Proposition 1: For each given type of commitment, more committed individuals are expected to report more positive job attitudes and perceptions than less committed individuals.

This proposition predicts how any given form of commitment, be it focused on the organization, the job, or the career, impacts on job attitudes and perceptions. What is not specified is the manner in which these forms of commitment interact with one another. The three have been found to be reasonably independent of each other (e.g., Blau, 1988; Pinder, 1984). It is, however, necessary to posit how these forms of commitment will interact in affecting job attitudes and perceptions. In the absence of specific literature, a general proposition is offered:

Proposition 2: Various forms of work-related commitment are expected to interact such that high levels across commitment forms will tend to exacerbate the positive effects of commitment on job attitudes and perceptions, while mixed levels of commitment types will tend to lessen the effects of commitment on work attitudes and perceptions.

## CHAPTER 3.

### THE METHODOLOGY

#### Sample and Data Collection

The sample for this study consisted of clerical workers, library assistants, and laboratory technicians at a large midwestern university. Questionnaires approved by the University's Committee on Human Subjects were mailed to 457 such employees, 100 of whom were randomly chosen clerical workers. The other 357 constituted all of the library assistants and laboratory technicians employed by the university. Of the 457 questionnaires distributed, 256, or 56%, were returned in usable form. The sample, with a mean job tenure of 3.91 years, consisted largely of females (94.1%). Across all three occupations, less than half of the employees (44.4%) had college degrees. The average subject was slightly over 37 years of age.

#### Measures

The questionnaire used in this study consisted of 171 items intended to measure numerous attitudes, perceptions, and demographic characteristics (see Appendix). The form was divided into six sections, including Opinions About Your Work; Opinions About Your Job; Opinions About the Type of Work You Do; Nature of Your Work; Opinions About ISU; and Background Data. Concise directions appeared at the beginning of

each section. The different measures used to assess each of the study's three independent variables and each of the sixteen dependent variables are discussed below.

### Organizational Commitment

Among the independent variables, organizational commitment was measured via items from Mowday, Steers, and Porter's (1979) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). Mowday et al.'s instrument was chosen because of its known test-retest and internal consistency reliabilities as well as the considerable predictive, convergent, and discriminant validity it has been found to have. These items were developed based upon the three-part definition calling organizational commitment: 1) an acceptance of and belief in organizational goals and values; 2) a willingness to exert substantial effort; and 3) a concrete desire to maintain an active membership in the organization.

According to Mowday et al. (1979), all three conceptual aspects are tapped by their 15 items, utilizing a 7-point Likert scale response format. That is, respondents were asked to choose among responses of: strongly disagree (value = 1), moderately disagree (2), slightly disagree (3), neutral (4), slightly agree (5), moderately agree (6), and strongly agree (7). Five of the 15 items were negatively slanted, with the intention of lessening response biases, and, thus, required reverse scoring. Finally, the 15 responses were totaled and a mean value, to be used as a



summary measure of organizational commitment, was determined. For this sample, a Cronbach alpha value of 0.92 was found, indicating a high reliability for the scale.

### Job Involvement

Kanungo's Job Involvement Questionnaire was included in the survey to measure job involvement among the subjects. The ten-item scale, based upon the conceptualization of job involvement as a psychological identification with a job, was previously found to have internal consistency and test-retest coefficients of 0.87 and 0.85 respectively (Kanungo, 1982). The present analyses produced a slightly smaller, but acceptable, Cronbach coefficient of 0.83. The response format was a five-point Likert scale offering the anchors of strongly disagree (value = 1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5). Two of the items were negatively stated, making reverse scoring necessary. Scores on the ten items were then averaged and converted back to the five-point metric for a summary job involvement measure.

### Career Commitment

The survey also included Blau's (1985) eight-item scale, consistent with the definition of career commitment as one's attitude toward his/her vocation or profession, to measure this independent variable. The word "profession" in each item was changed to "field", however, to better suit the sample being used. As with the measures of organizational commitment and job involvement, three of these items were negatively

worded and required reversed scoring. Like the job involvement items, these items were formatted in a five-point Likert scale with response anchors of strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5). A summary measure of career commitment was derived by summing the eight numerical responses, converting to the original metric, and figuring a mean value. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for this sample was 0.86.

#### Satisfaction with Facets of Work

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) was chosen to measure job satisfaction. This popular standardized instrument purportedly evaluates the subject's satisfaction with five major facets of the job: 1) the work itself (18 items); 2) pay (8 items); 3) promotional opportunities (9 items); 4) supervision (18 items); and 5) coworkers (18 items). The 71 items offer the subject response choices of "yes", "no", or "?" for undecidedness. In order to quantify and summarize the results, "yes" responses were given a value of 3.00; "no" responses were given a value of 0.00; and "?" responses a value of 1.00. Analyses presented a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of 0.91 for the combined facets, and coefficients of 0.79 for satisfaction with the work, 0.78 for pay satisfaction, 0.86 for satisfaction with promotions, 0.86 for supervision satisfaction, and 0.88 for coworker satisfaction.

### Perceived Job Content

Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) was included to measure the subjects' perceptions of core job dimensions, namely variety, autonomy, task identity, significance, feedback from agents, feedback from the job itself, and dealing with others. The first of the two parts consisted of seven items with Likert scale response options. Unique to this portion of the instrument were the seven numerical anchors corresponding with only three descriptive anchors (very little=1; moderately=4; very much=7). The second part consisted of 14 statements with seven-point Likert scale reaction options (very inaccurate=1; mostly inaccurate=2; slightly inaccurate=3; uncertain=4; slightly accurate=5; mostly accurate=6; very accurate=7). A motivating potential score (MPS), computed as  $((\text{Variety} \times \text{Identity} \times \text{Significance})/3) \times \text{Autonomy} \times \text{Feedback from the Job}$  and indicative of the job's potential for arousing intrinsic motivation within individuals (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), was also derived from the JDS to be used as a dependent variable.

Although some researchers have failed to find support for the JDS, Hackman and Oldham (1975) have reported evidence of the instrument's reliability and validity. In the present study, the following Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients were found: 0.72 for the variety dimension; 0.86 for autonomy; 0.85 for identity; 0.77 for significance; 0.87 for feedback from agents; 0.87 for feedback from the job itself; 0.73 for dealing with others; and 0.88 for the MPS.

### Futuristic Perceptions

Perceived ease of movement, the intention to stay (or quit), and the desire for promotion were all measured via selected items from Landau and Hammer's (1986) scales. More specifically, three of Landau and Hammer's items were chosen to evaluate the perceived ease of movement variable, although some wording was modified. For the present study, the three items all bore seven-point Likert scale response options, including strongly disagree=1; disagree=2; somewhat disagree=3; neutral=4; somewhat agree=5; agree=6; and strongly agree=7. The mean response value across the three was used to indicate the subject's perceived ease of movement. A modest 0.74 Cronbach alpha coefficient was found.

The intention to stay, conversely deemed the intention to quit by Landau and Hammer (1986), was gauged according to their three item scale with seven-point Likert scale response anchors, identical to those described above (ranging from strongly disagree=1 to strongly agree=7). The summary score was derived by summing the three responses and calculating the mean. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for this scale was 0.85.

Finally, Landau and Hammer's (1986) four-item scale was used to measure the desire for promotion, termed the desire for mobility by the originators. Like the scales measuring perceived ease of movement and the intention to stay, this scale offered seven-point Likert response

scales with the same anchors as those described above. Again, a mean response value was determined for the four items and was used as a single measure. Analyses exhibited a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.80 for the scale.

### Research Design

This study consists of three independent variables, namely the three forms of work commitment deemed organizational commitment, job involvement, and career commitment. Based on their scores on the three work commitment scales, subjects were classified as "High" or "Low" relative to the overall median value of scores on each commitment scale. Consequently, the method of this study is a 2 X 2 X 2 factorial design with two levels (High versus Low) of three forms of work commitment forming eight cells of subjects. The cells varied in size from 22 subjects with low organizational commitment X high job involvement X low career commitment and with high organizational commitment X high job involvement X low career commitment to 53 subjects with low organizational commitment X low job involvement X low career commitment. The sixteen dependent variables used to capture a variety of job attitudes and perceptions included: satisfaction with work; satisfaction with pay; satisfaction with promotional opportunities; satisfaction with supervision; satisfaction with coworkers; perceptions of job variety, autonomy, task identity, significance, feedback from

agents, feedback from the job itself, and dealing with others; a motivational potential score (MPS); perceived ease of movement; intention to stay; and the desire for promotion.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were used to determine the impact of the independent variables (i.e., the three forms of work commitment) on the sixteen job attitudes and perceptions. Prior to determining the effect of the forms of commitment on each individual job attitude and perception, multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) tests were conducted to determine the impact of the three forms of commitment across all of the job attitudes and perceptions, with the exception of the MPS. The latter was excluded from the MANOVA since it is composed of five of the job content perceptions, namely variety, identity, significance, autonomy, and feedback from the job, already included. The results of the MANOVAs (see Table 2), using Pillais, Hotellings, Wilks, and Roys' criteria, were significant only for the tests of main effects. Given the significance of those main effects, univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests for each of the sixteen dependent variables were subsequently performed for exploratory purposes. Eight cell means were also determined for each of the dependent variables to allow for categorical comparisons and T-tests were performed to establish the significance or nonsignificance of the differences in those means.

## CHAPTER 4.

### RESULTS

#### Reliability

To test the internal consistency of the eight scales, including thirteen subscales, used to conduct this study, Cronbach alpha coefficients were computed for each (see Table 1). The alpha values for the independent variable measures all fell above 0.80, with the Job Involvement scale (Kanungo, 1982) being the lowest at 0.83. Finding an alpha coefficient of 0.86 for Blau's (1985) Career Commitment scale is encouraging, in light of the fact that the construct is relatively new and has been researched by a very few. The alpha values for the dependent variables, on the other hand, fell within a slightly lower range, from 0.73 for the Dealing with Others subscale to 0.88 for the motivating potential score (MPS), both from the JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). In general, however, the reliability of each of the instruments used appears to be satisfactory.

#### Main Effects

The results involving the main effects of the three independent variables, including organizational commitment, job involvement, and career commitment, on each of the sixteen dependent variables appear in

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and Cronbach alphas for the measurement devices

Scale	Number of items	Response Range	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach alpha
Organizational Commitment	15	1 to 7	4.80	0.97	0.92
Job Involvement	10	1 to 5	2.50	0.61	0.83
Career Commitment	8	1 to 5	2.99	0.81	0.86
<b>JDI</b>					
Work Satisfaction	18	0, 1 or 3	1.82	0.58	0.79
Pay Satisfaction	8	0, 1 or 3	1.45	0.75	0.78
Promotion Satisfaction	9	0, 1 or 3	0.80	0.78	0.86
Supervisor Satisfaction	18	0, 1 or 3	2.38	0.60	0.86
Coworker Satisfaction	18	0, 1 or 3	2.34	0.63	0.88
<b>JDS</b>					
Dealing with Others	3	1 to 7	5.24	1.32	0.73
Autonomy	3	1 to 7	5.28	1.34	0.86
Identity	3	1 to 7	5.02	1.52	0.85
Variety	3	1 to 7	4.44	1.32	0.72
Significance	3	1 to 7	5.30	1.20	0.77
Feedback from Agents	3	1 to 7	4.26	1.51	0.87
Feedback from Job	3	1 to 7	5.07	1.19	0.87
<b>MPS</b>					
Ease of Movement	3	1 to 7	3.57	1.35	0.74
Intention to Stay	3	1 to 7	5.50	1.47	0.85
Desire for Promotion	4	1 to 7	4.74	1.37	0.80



Tables 2, 3, and 4. As was earlier described, a MANOVA was first performed, including all but the MPS dependent variable, to determine whether further analyses were warranted. As Tables 2, 3, and 4 indicate, the results of the three MANOVA revealing main effects for each of the three independent variables were significant at the 0.001 level. Hence, the conduction of univariate analysis of variance tests (ANOVAs) was justifiable. The results of the ANOVA tests for main effects appear in Tables 2, 3, and 4 as well. The main effects of the three independent variables are described separately below.

#### Organizational Commitment

As Tables 2, 3, and 4 display, the organizational commitment variable was significantly related to six of the sixteen dependent variables at the 0.05 level of significance. Specifically, organizational commitment was found to significantly affect three of the job satisfaction subscales (satisfaction with the work itself, satisfaction with pay, and satisfaction with promotions)(see Table 2); one subscale of perceptions of work (task significance)(see Table 3); and employee perceptions of their ease of movement and their intentions to stay (see Table 4).

According to these results, organizational commitment has the strongest positive effect on the intention to stay ( $M_{\text{High OC}} = 6.24$ ,  $M_{\text{Low OC}} = 4.77$ )( $M$  = mean score) followed by its positive effect on satisfaction with the work itself ( $M_{\text{High OC}} = 2.04$ ,  $M_{\text{Low OC}} = 1.62$ ).

Table 2. MANOVA results and ANOVA results for facets of satisfaction (JDI)

Sources of Variation	MANOVA	Satisfaction with:					
		Work F-value ( $\eta^2$ )	Pay F-value ( $\eta^2$ )	Promotions F-value ( $\eta^2$ )	Supervisors F-value ( $\eta^2$ )	Coworkers F-value ( $\eta^2$ )	
<u>Main Effects</u>							
Organizational Commitment	5.75**	19.93** (5.82)	11.56** (4.59)	5.27* (2.17)	1.80	1.63	
Job Involvement	3.10**	21.20** (6.19)	0.93	0.13	0.52	0.03	
Career Commitment	4.37**	24.46** (7.14)	1.01	0.90	2.16	18.23** (6.98)	
<u>Two-Way Interactions</u>							
OC x JI	1.57	0.98	0.49	0.11	0.16	0.35	
OC x CC	0.96	0.02	0.14	0.03	0.01	1.66	
JI x CC	1.00	0.07	0.00	0.04	0.09	0.01	
<u>Three-Way Interaction</u>							
OC x JI x CC	1.29	4.13* (1.21)	0.91	0.04	3.01	0.08	

\* p &lt; 0.05 \*\* p &lt; 0.001.

Table 3. ANOVA results for perceptions of job content (JDS)

Sources of Variation	Dealing w/Others F-value (eta <sup>2</sup> )	Autonomy F-value (eta <sup>2</sup> )	Identity F-value (eta <sup>2</sup> )	Variety F-value (eta <sup>2</sup> )	Significance F-value (eta <sup>2</sup> )	Feedback F-value (eta <sup>2</sup> )	Feedback from job F-value (eta <sup>2</sup> )
<u>Main Effects</u>							
Organizational Commitment	2.09	0.25	0.42	2.20	4.48* (1.61)	0.26	0.41
Job Involvement	5.32* (1.98)	17.99*** (6.27)	1.47	19.26*** (6.22)	7.91** (2.85)	2.27	4.43* (1.61)
Career Commitment	2.44	4.32* (1.50)	6.37* (2.37)	8.64** (2.79)	0.24	3.44	5.98* (2.18)
<u>Two-Way Interactions</u>							
OC x JI	0.31	0.22	0.01	4.93* (1.59)	0.36	1.35	0.69
OC x CC	1.29	0.35	0.27	0.09	2.12	0.39	0.42
JI x CC	0.48	0.20	0.71	2.11	0.53	0.62	1.01
<u>Three-Way Interaction</u>							
OC x JI x CC	0.46	0.26	0.46	1.03	0.39	0.82	0.36

\* p &lt; 0.05 \*\* p &lt; 0.01 \*\*\* p &lt; 0.001.

Table 4. ANOVA results for MPS and futuristic job perceptions

Sources of Variation	MPS F-value (eta <sup>2</sup> )	Ease of Movement F-value (eta <sup>2</sup> )	Intention to Stay F-value (eta <sup>2</sup> )	Desire for Promotion F-value (eta <sup>2</sup> )
<u>Main Effects</u>				
Organizational Commitment	0.30	8.32** (3.08)	67.01*** (16.62)	2.96
Job Involvement	21.92*** (7.21)	0.69	9.05** (2.25)	0.45
Career Commitment	10.41*** (3.42)	0.08	18.55*** (4.60)	22.19*** (7.53)
<u>Two-Way Interactions</u>				
OC x JI	0.15	0.06	1.08	0.09
OC x CC	0.10	1.10	5.82* (1.44)	0.34
JI x CC	0.00	0.38	1.19	1.32
<u>Three-Way Interaction</u>				
OC x JI x CC	0.06	4.04* (1.50)	4.71* (1.17)	3.56

\* p &lt; 0.05 \*\* p &lt; 0.01 \*\*\* p &lt; 0.001.

Organizational commitment also positively impacted satisfaction with pay ( $M_{\text{High OC}} = 1.61$ ,  $M_{\text{Low OC}} = 1.27$ ) and satisfaction with promotion opportunities ( $M_{\text{High OC}} = 0.92$ ,  $M_{\text{Low OC}} = 0.67$ ), making it more strongly tied to job satisfaction facets measured by the JDI than to work perceptions measured by the JDS. In fact, of the seven subscales of the JDS, organizational commitment was positively linked to only one (perceived task significance;  $M_{\text{High OC}} = 5.55$ ,  $M_{\text{Low OC}} = 5.14$ ) and did not impact the motivating potential score (MPS) significantly. Finally, it was found that an increase in organizational commitment also significantly increased the subjects' perceived ease of movement ( $M_{\text{High OC}} = 3.82$ ,  $M_{\text{Low OC}} = 3.36$ ).

Rough estimates of the amount of variance in the dependent variables explained by organizational commitment were calculated using eta squared (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983) and are reported in Tables 2, 3, and 4. The amount of variance explained by organizational commitment ranged from 1.60 percent of that of perceived task significance to 16.60 percent of that of intention to stay.

### Job Involvement

As with organizational commitment, the highly significant MANOVA results ( $F = 3.10$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) for the job involvement variable warranted performing separate ANOVAs for each of the dependent variables. Similar to organizational commitment, ANOVA results, shown in Tables 2, 3, and 4, indicate that the job involvement variable was significantly related to eight of the sixteen dependent variables, namely satisfaction with the

work itself, dealing with others, perceived autonomy, perceived task variety, perceived task significance, perceived feedback from the job, the MPS, and intentions to stay.

These findings show that job involvement has the most impact on one's perceptions of work, with more involved individuals perceiving a greater chance of dealing with others ( $M_{\text{High JI}} = 5.45$ ,  $M_{\text{Low JI}} = 5.07$ ); greater autonomy ( $M_{\text{High JI}} = 5.70$ ,  $M_{\text{Low JI}} = 4.92$ ); greater task variety ( $M_{\text{High JI}} = 4.90$ ,  $M_{\text{Low JI}} = 4.04$ ); and more feedback from the job itself ( $M_{\text{High JI}} = 5.33$ ,  $M_{\text{Low JI}} = 4.90$ ). In fact, the motivating potential score (MPS), a formula for determining the likelihood of job enrichment being successful for a particular job, was also significantly and positively affected by job involvement ( $M_{\text{High JI}} = 169.07$ ,  $M_{\text{Low JI}} = 120.35$ ). Furthermore, individuals higher in job involvement are more satisfied with their work ( $M_{\text{High JI}} = 2.05$ ,  $M_{\text{Low JI}} = 1.60$ ) and report greater intentions to stay in their current position/organization ( $M_{\text{High JI}} = 5.98$ ,  $M_{\text{Low JI}} = 5.06$ ).

The percentages of variance in the dependent variables explained by reported job involvement were comparable to those for organizational commitment (see Tables 2, 3, and 4). That is, job involvement's explanatory power ranged from 1.61 percent of the variance in perceived feedback from the job to 7.21 percent of the variance in the MPS.

### Career Commitment

Again, the results of the MANOVA test for career commitment were significant ( $p < 0.001$ ), justifying the subsequent separate ANOVA runs. Career commitment was significantly related to nine of the sixteen dependent variables (see Tables 2, 3, and 4). Career commitment was found to be significantly related to two aspects of job satisfaction (i.e., satisfaction with the work itself and with coworkers); four of the subscales involving descriptions of work (i.e., autonomy, task identity, task variety, and feedback from the job itself) as well as the MPS; and perceptions of the intention to stay and desire for promotion.

More specifically, the results reveal that an increase in career commitment is accompanied by increases in both satisfaction with the work itself ( $M_{\text{High CC}} = 2.04$ ,  $M_{\text{Low CC}} = 1.59$ ) and with coworkers ( $M_{\text{High CC}} = 2.53$ ,  $M_{\text{Low CC}} = 2.17$ ). Likewise, individuals with greater career commitment also perceive their jobs as having greater task autonomy ( $M_{\text{High CC}} = 5.55$ ,  $M_{\text{Low CC}} = 5.04$ ); greater task identity ( $M_{\text{High CC}} = 5.28$ ,  $M_{\text{Low CC}} = 4.75$ ); greater task variety ( $M_{\text{High CC}} = 4.79$ ,  $M_{\text{Low CC}} = 4.11$ ); and more feedback from the job itself ( $M_{\text{High CC}} = 5.34$ ,  $M_{\text{Low CC}} = 4.87$ ). These results, along with the significant positive relationship between career commitment and the MPS ( $M_{\text{High CC}} = 163.16$ ,  $M_{\text{Low CC}} = 124.16$ ), suggest that career commitment is more strongly linked to perceptions about work as measured by the JDS than to the facets of work satisfaction measured by the JDI. However, increasing career commitment appears to increase

intentions to stay ( $M_{\text{High CC}} = 6.01$ ,  $M_{\text{Low CC}} = 5.00$ ) the most, while it decreases the desire for promotion ( $M_{\text{High CC}} = 4.30$ ,  $M_{\text{Low CC}} = 5.16$ ). The latter effect is a seeming contradiction which may support Blau's notion of a threshold level below which career commitment is not operational.

The eta squared values reported in Tables 2, 3, and 4 show that the amount of variance explained by career commitment ranged from 1.50 percent of the variance in perceptions of task autonomy to 7.53 percent of the variance in the desire for promotion. Taken together, the results of the analyses of the main effects rendered by the three forms of work commitment (organizational, job, and career) on job attitudes and perceptions provide support for Proposition 1.

### Two-Way Interaction Effects

Although the results of the MANOVA tests of the two-way interactions did not offer justification for performing separate ANOVAs for the two-way interactive variables, they were done exploratorily. Only two of the possible 48 two-way interactions were statistically significant (see Tables 2, 3, and 4). Organizational commitment and job involvement interact to significantly affect perceptions of task variety while the combination of organizational commitment and career



commitment affect intentions to stay. The precise nature of these effects are discussed below.

#### Organizational Commitment X Job Involvement

Table 5 and Figure 3 show the nature of the interaction between organizational commitment and job involvement on perceived task variety. This figure shows that job involvement was positively and significantly related to perceived task variety only when organizational commitment was high (greater than the median of 4.80). In other words, an increase in job involvement on the low/high continuum significantly affected perceptions of task variety if, and only if, organizational commitment was already high. When reported organizational commitment was low (below the median), a change in job involvement did not impact perceived variety significantly. This interaction accounted for 1.59 percent of the variance in perceived task variety. Coupled with the fact that only one of sixteen possible effects was statistically significant, this indicates a rather isolated finding that does not merit much attention.

#### Organizational Commitment X Career Commitment

The combined impact of organizational commitment and career commitment affected just one dependent variable, namely the intention to stay. Table 6 shows the cell mean values for the latter according to high and low levels of organizational commitment and career commitment. Plotting the values (see Figure 4) and testing the significance of the

Table 5. Two-way interaction cell mean values for Perceived Task Variety

		Job Involvement	
		Low	High
Organizational Commitment	Low	4.05	4.53
	High	4.02	5.14

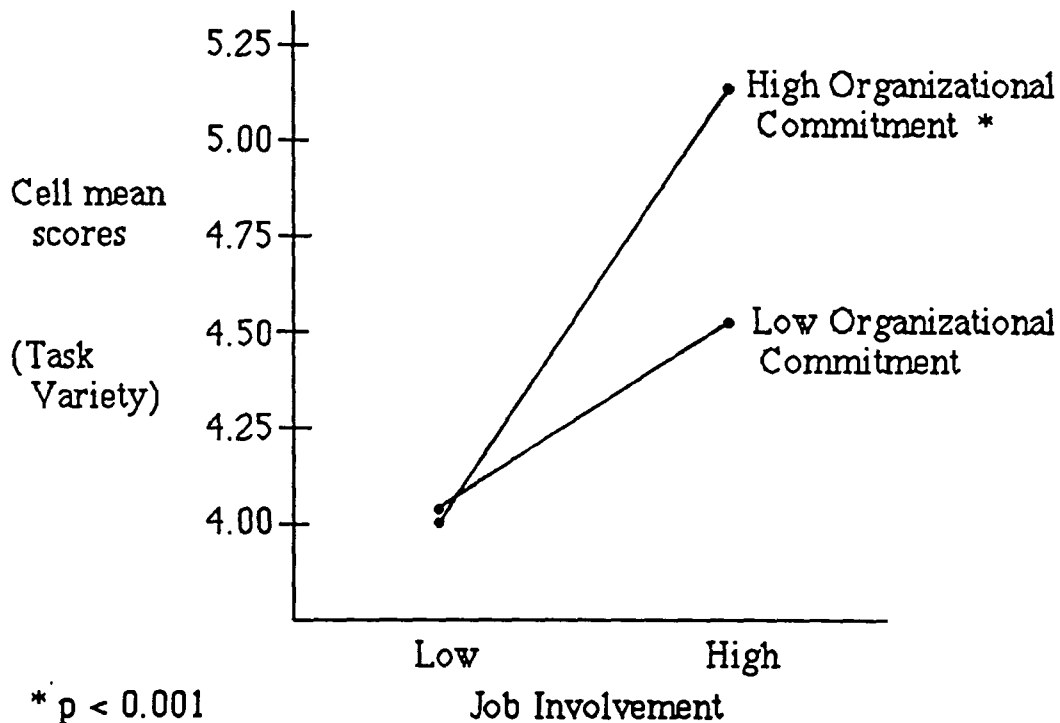


Figure 3. The interaction effect of Job Involvement and Organizational Commitment on Perceived Task Variety

Table 6. Two-way interaction cell mean values for the Intention to Stay

		Career Commitment	
		Low	High
Organizational Commitment	Low	4.29	5.45
	High	6.01	6.40

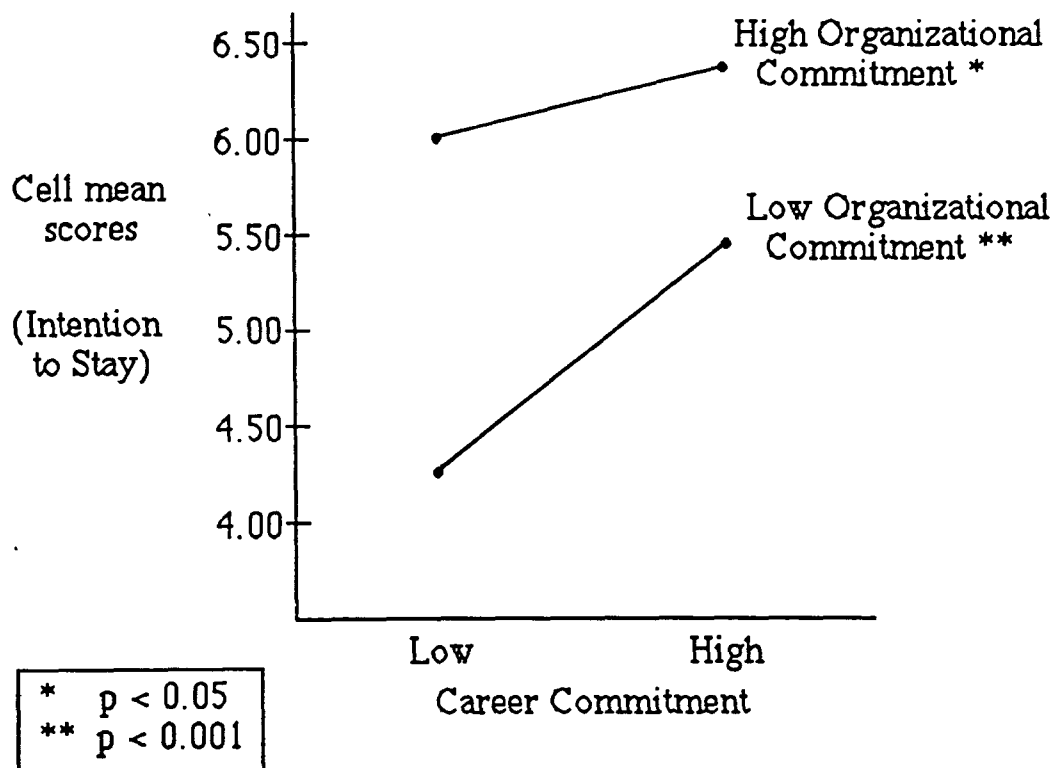


Figure 4. The interaction effect of Career Commitment and Organizational Commitment on Intention to Stay

differences in means revealed that career commitment was positively and significantly linked to the intention to stay for both high and low levels of organizational commitment. Said differently, higher levels of career commitment appear to have the power to enhance individuals' intentions to stay, but have a greater positive influence on those who are low in commitment to the organization. As with the previous two-way interactions, organizational commitment X career commitment accounted for only 1.44 percent of the variance in the intention to stay. Again, the absence of other significant findings leaves this effect as an isolated finding.

#### Job Involvement X Career Commitment

The job involvement X career commitment interaction was not significantly related to any of the sixteen work-related attitudes or perceptions. Taken together, the limited and isolated nature of these two-way interaction effects offers no support for Proposition 2.

#### Three-Way Interaction Effects

The interaction of organizational commitment, job involvement, and career commitment had a significant impact on three of the work-related attitudes/perceptions as shown in Tables 2, 3, and 4. Specifically, satisfaction with the work itself, perceived ease of movement, and

intention to stay were all significantly affected by the interaction of the three forms of commitment.

Table 7 and Figure 5 reveal that the addition of career commitment to the interaction of organizational commitment and job involvement has a statistically significant positive affect on satisfaction with the work itself for all individuals except those low in both organizational commitment and job involvement. This combined effect of the three forms of work commitment explained just over one percent of the variance in reported satisfaction with the work itself.

In the case of perceived ease of movement, career commitment did not seem to add significantly to the three-way interaction effect. As Table 8 and Figure 6 indicate, the level of perceived ease of movement differed with the level of organizational commitment X job involvement, as well as career commitment, but T-tests showed that changes in the latter did not significantly impact the level of perceived ease of movement. Additional T-tests indicated that organizational commitment was the most active ingredient in this interaction effect. This is consistent with the fact that commitment to the organization was the only one of the three forms to have a significant main effect on perceived ease of movement. The three forms of work commitment interacted to explain 1.50 percent of the variance in this perception.

Table 7. Three-way interaction cell mean values for Satisfaction with the Work Itself

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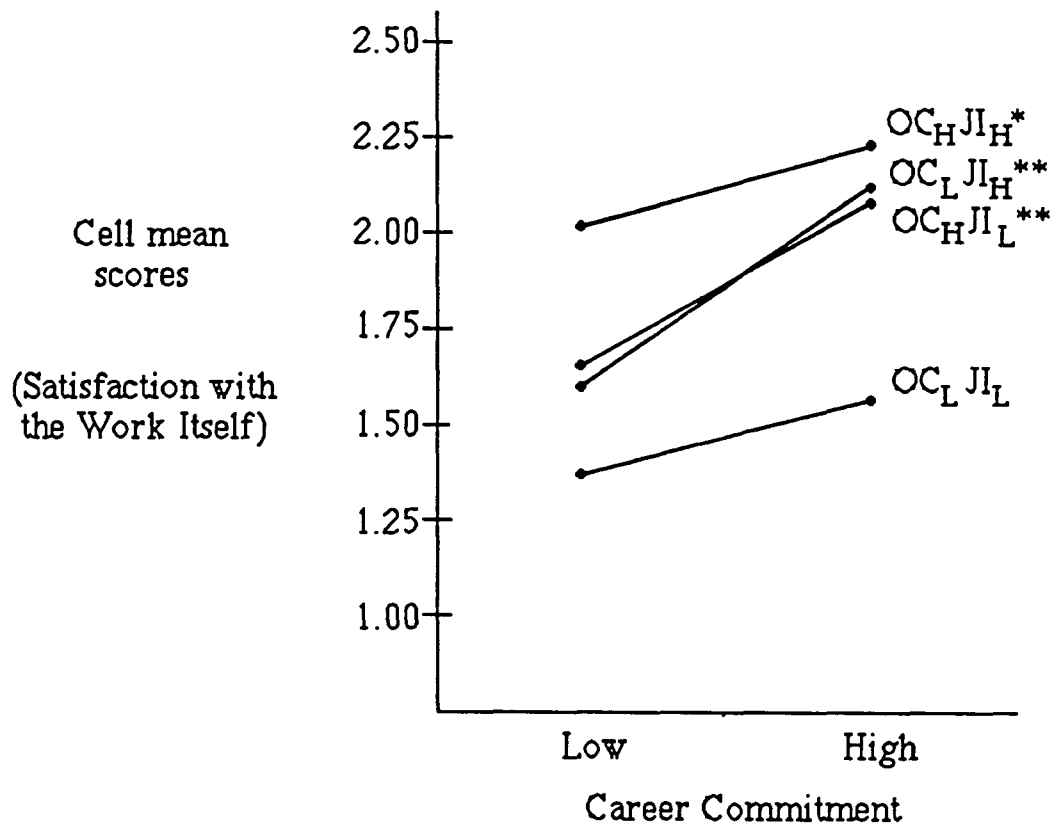
For Low Career Commitment

		Job Involvement	
		Low	High
Organizational Commitment	Low	1.38	1.61
	High	1.64	2.02

For High Career Commitment

		Job Involvement	
		Low	High
Organizational Commitment	Low	1.59	2.12
	High	2.09	2.23

---



\*  $p < 0.05$   
 \*\*  $p < 0.01$   
 OC = Organizational  
 Commitment  
 JI = Job Involvement  
 H = High  
 L = Low

Figure 5. The interaction effect of Organizational Commitment, Job Involvement and Career Commitment on Satisfaction with the Work Itself

Table 8. Three-way interaction cell mean values for  
Perceived Ease of Movement

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For Low Career Commitment

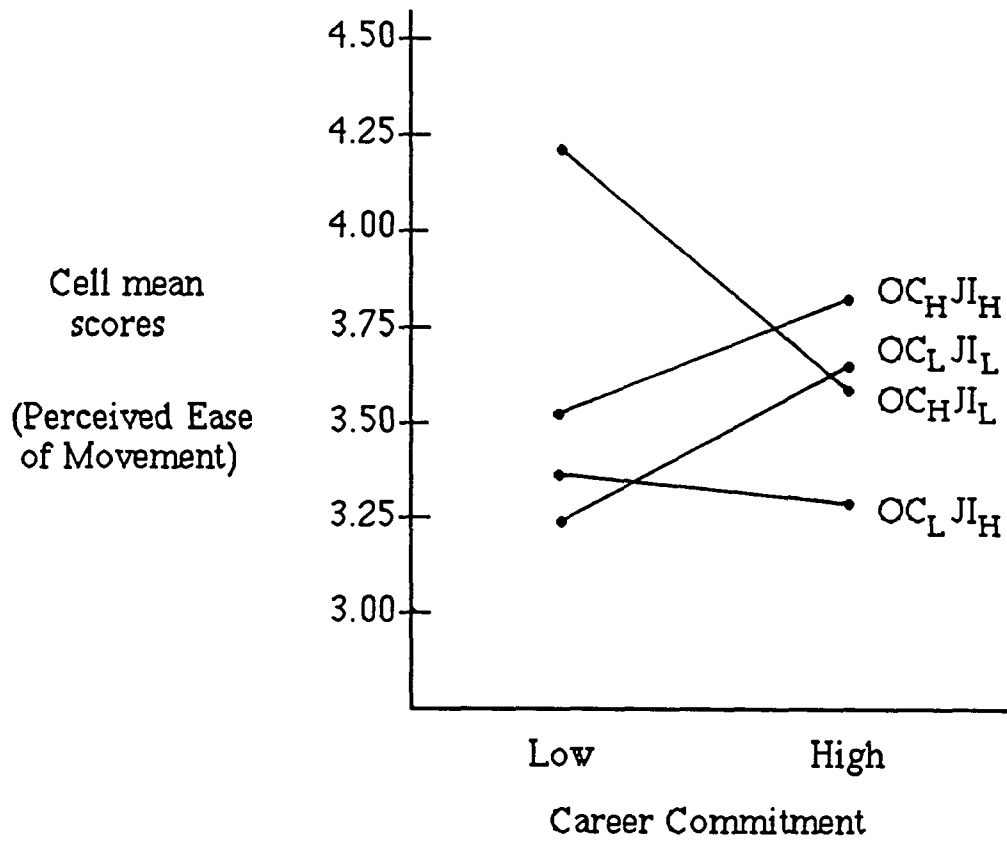
		Job Involvement	
		Low	High
Organizational Commitment	Low	3.24	3.36
	High	4.22	3.54

For High Career Commitment

		Job Involvement	
		Low	High
Organizational Commitment	Low	3.65	3.29
	High	3.60	3.83

---





OC = Organizational Commitment
JI = Job Involvement
H = High
L = Low

Figure 6. The interaction effects of Organizational Commitment, Job Involvement and Career Commitment on Perceived Ease of Movement

Table 9 and Figure 7 depict the three-way interaction on the intention to stay. According to this figure, increasing career commitment has a significant and positive impact on intention to stay, but only for those employees low in organizational commitment and high in job involvement. For the other three combinations of levels of organizational commitment and job involvement, a change in career commitment did not significantly change intentions to stay. This interaction explained just over one percent of the variance in intention to stay scores.

Perhaps one should also note the link between the three-way interaction and desire for promotion, since it was close to being considered significant ( $F = 3.56, p = 0.06$ ). In this case, career commitment significantly impacted the dependent variable (desire for promotion) for all combinations of high and low organizational commitment and job involvement except when both were high. Still, the three-way interaction accounted for just 1.21% of the variance in the desire for promotion, leaving a great deal unexplained. Similarly, the link between satisfaction with supervisor and the three-way interaction variable was nearly significant ( $F = 3.01, p = 0.08$ ) with 1.22 percent of the variance explained. Overall, the results for the three-way interaction effects offer some, albeit of limited explanatory power, support for Proposition 2.

Table 9. Three-way interaction cell mean values for  
Intention to Stay

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For Low Career Commitment

		Job Involvement	
		Low	High
Organizational Commitment	Low	4.25	4.39
	High	5.78	6.29

For High Career Commitment

		Job Involvement	
		Low	High
Organizational Commitment	Low	4.85	6.02
	High	6.28	6.46

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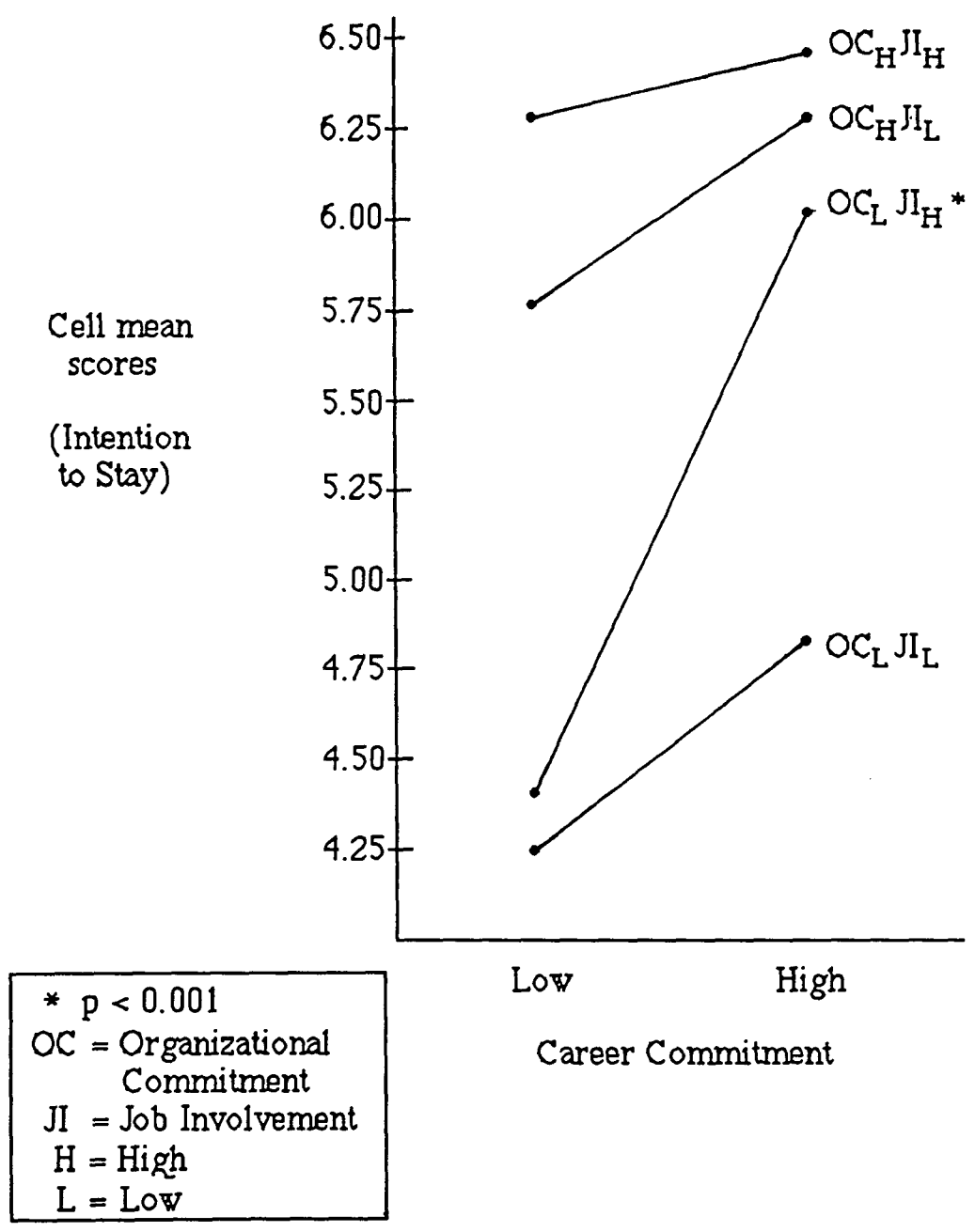


Figure 7. The interaction effect of Organizational Commitment, Job Involvement and Career Commitment on Intention to Stay

## CHAPTER 5.

## DISCUSSION

## Differing Effects

As the previous section indicates, the findings of this research were mixed. While Proposition 1 was soundly supported by the main effect results, Proposition 2 received very limited support. That is, the main effects of organizational commitment, job involvement, and career commitment did positively impact the job attitudes and perceptions to which they were significantly linked, as Proposition 1 suggests. The only exception was career commitment's negative affect on the desire for promotion, a puzzling finding which will be discussed later in this section. All of the other significant main effects were in the direction expected. That is, separate increases in organizational commitment, job involvement, and career commitment resulted in increases in various job attitudes and perceptions.

The three forms of work commitment, namely organizational commitment, job involvement, and career commitment, did not, however, affect the dependent variables identically. Rather, some fairly distinct patterns emerged. Of the three, job involvement and career commitment were more similar in their effects. Both types of commitment were more strongly linked to the job content perceptions measured by the JDS.

Organizational commitment, on the other hand, was more strongly associated with the facets of job satisfaction gauged by the JDI. One partial explanation for this difference is that job involvement and career commitment are more interrelated with each other than either is with organizational commitment, as Morrow and McElroy (1986) found. If this is, indeed, the case, then it would follow that the effects of the two would resemble each others' more than they would resemble the effects of organizational commitment.

Moreover, the patterns follow some commonsensical lines. It is certainly logical, for instance, that individuals highly committed to the organization would also report higher levels of job satisfaction. The two would seem to go hand in hand. As Mayes and Ganster (1988) assert, employees with high organizational commitment are more likely to be accepting of their work and their employer. Thus, they should be expected to report higher levels of satisfaction with the facets of their work.

It can also be considered logical that the form of commitment focusing on the job itself is more strongly linked to job perceptions (JDS scores) and the resultant motivating potential score (MPS). Individuals highly involved in their jobs would presumably report highly favorable perceptions of the content of those jobs. Again, the two go together intuitively. Although Lodahl and Kejner (1965), Wiener and Vardi (1980), and Pinder (1984) reported finding a positive relationship between job

involvement and job satisfaction, the present results showed job involvement was related to only one of the five facets of job satisfaction measured (satisfaction with the work itself). Interestingly, this work satisfaction facet was one of only two of the dependent variables to be positively linked to all three forms of work commitment, the other being the intention to stay. The subjects are, in general, happier with the work they do than with the context in which they do it, possibly a sample specific finding. ✓

The link between career commitment and job perceptions may not be as obvious as that between job involvement and job perceptions but, again, plausible explanations can be offered. For example, individuals highly committed to their careers would presumably perceive their jobs favorably, or would attempt to move on. Even if they did not have positive perceptions about their jobs, they might report them as such in order to vindicate this step on their career paths and maintain cognitive consistency. Regardless, the job involvement and career commitment constructs have been shown to overlap (Morrow & McElroy, 1986) to an extent and, thus, the fact that their effects on job perceptions and attitudes bear similarities should not be surprising.

Of the futuristic perceptions (perceived ease of movement, intention to stay, and desire for promotion), the intention to stay with the organization was the most strongly affected by all three forms of work commitment. Not surprisingly, individuals reporting high organizational

commitment were also those who reported the greatest intentions to stay with the organization. An increase in organizational commitment also caused the greatest increase in those intentions. All three forms of commitment explained impressive amounts of the variance in intentions to stay. Only organizational commitment had a positive and significant impact on perceived ease of movement, although one might expect such a relationship with career commitment.

The fact that career commitment, a longitudinal attitude manifesting itself in behavior, affected individuals' desire for promotion was expected as well. What was not expected was the direction of that effect. That is, the relationship was negative; an increase in career commitment resulted in a decrease in the desire for promotion. This seems to defy logic. Perhaps Blau's (1989) notion that a minimum threshold, a level among occupations below which career commitment is not operational, applies. If such a cut-off actually exists, then the occupations sampled here, including clerical workers, library assistants, and laboratory technicians, may fall below that level. Erratic results would, in that case, be understandable. Similar studies using samples from other occupations might shed some light on this matter. It may be that research involving subjects from more professional fields would produce more meaningful results. Thus, determining if such a threshold exists and/or where it lies could be the one of the most important steps to take next. This lone finding should not, however, be taken for more than it is.



Overall, organizational commitment, job involvement, and career commitment separately impacted a number of job attitudes and perceptions. The amount of variance in the dependent variables of which these three explained was respectable more often than not. A six percent increase in satisfaction with the work itself due to an increase in one of the three forms of work commitment, for example, is quite encouraging.

Unlike Proposition 1, Proposition 2 received only partial support. Very few of the two-way interactions among the three forms of work commitment had significant impacts on the job attitudes and perceptions measured. In the cases where they did, Proposition 2 was sometimes supported and sometimes not. In support of the proposition, when high organizational commitment and high job involvement interacted, perceived task variety was the most strongly and positively affected. The same was true for the interactive effect of organizational commitment and career commitment on intentions to stay. Yet the two were rather isolated findings.

The results of the three-way interactions were more complex and mixed. The effect of the three-way interaction on satisfaction with the work itself, for instance, was the strongest and the most positive when all three forms of work commitment were high. Mixed levels of the three also positively and significantly affected satisfaction, however, except when both job involvement and organizational commitment were low. Thus, the second portion of Proposition 2, stating that mixed levels

of commitment types will tend to lessen the effects, was not entirely supported.

The three-way interaction also positively impacted perceived ease of movement and intentions to stay. For the latter, the inclusion of career commitment in the interaction significantly and positively affected intentions to stay only when organizational commitment was low and job involvement was high. In other words, the interaction of mixed levels of the three forms of commitment had the most positive effect on those intentions and the second portion of Proposition 2 was not supported.

The sum of these results offers some interesting implications. Based on these findings, one might build an argument calling it detrimental for individuals to feel high levels of all three forms of work commitment at once. Perhaps experiencing high levels of all three causes some degree of cognitive dissonance. That is, strong loyalty to one's organization, one's job, and one's career may be incompatible sentiments. To avoid such mental conflict, individuals may choose, whether it be consciously or not, to be most committed to one of the three--either the organization, the job, or the career. The results would, indeed, seem to indicate that too much commitment (as in too many foci) may not always be a good thing. Employees juggling high organizational commitment, high job involvement, and high career commitment may not

be the prize they appear to be. Any one of the three alone may be the ideal. These notions offer an intriguing direction which future research could take.

### Comparison to Blau and Boal's (1987) Model

According to Blau and Boal's (1987) model, the facets of work satisfaction which are most salient to individuals depend somewhat on those individuals' combined levels of organizational commitment and job involvement. For example, Blau and Boal's Institutionalized Stars, who are both highly committed to the organization and highly involved in their jobs, were proposed to consider satisfaction with the work itself, the future with the organization, pay, coworkers, and the supervisor most salient. Contradictorily, the present study indicates that the interactions of both high and low levels of organizational commitment and of job involvement have no significant effect on any of the work satisfaction facets. The combination of organizational commitment and job involvement affected only one dependent variable, that of perceived task variety, significantly. The results showed, in other words, that the interaction of organizational commitment and job involvement was not related to facets of work satisfaction as Blau and Boal (1987) had hypothesized.

The main thrust of Blau and Boal's (1987) model, however, is the prediction of turnover, as well as absenteeism, via the interaction of organizational commitment and job involvement. In their recent study, they tested the predictive power of their conceptual model and found that this interaction accounted for a significant amount of the variance in turnover (Blau & Boal, 1989). While the present study did not examine actual turnover figures, it did consider the subjects' intentions to stay with the organization. These results indicate that neither such intentions nor the job attitudes and perceptions linked with turnover were significantly affected by the combination of organizational commitment and job involvement. Thus, the present results do not support Blau and Boal's (1989) findings. This conclusion is based on the assumption, however, that intentions to stay (or leave) relate to actual voluntary turnover rates. If the two are not related, as has been asserted, then these findings could be compatible with Blau and Boal's.

#### Potential Limitations and Future Research

Certainly this study should not close the case on interactive effects among organizational commitment, job involvement, and career commitment. The results were both encouraging and discouraging, but even the discouraging results should not end such research. Like any study, this one had some possible flaws, discussed below, which may have had an impact on the results.

First of all, this study dealt entirely with perceptual data, obtained through a paper and pencil instrument. The lack of concrete data could have been a detriment, although it was a study of work attitudes and perceptions. Perhaps a comparison of observable behavior and reported attitudes and perceptions would help clarify this issue. Determining the behaviors connected with such attitudes and perceptions would, however, be quite subjective in itself. Thus, using perceptual data as opposed to hard data may not be as problematic as some would assert.

Another potential limitation of this study is that its sample may be considered unrepresentative of employees across all occupations and in all organizations. That is, these results may not be generalizable to other individuals in other settings. As aforementioned, the present sample consisted of clerical workers, library assistants, and laboratory technicians, all at a large midwestern university. Universities are seemingly a unique group of employers providing rather unique work contexts. Blau and Boal's (1989) study, on the other hand, used a sample of field office employees from an insurance company. In light of this difference, the earlier comparison of results may not be warranted. These two types of organizations may be different enough to affect their employees' perceptions and attitudes differently. Replicating this study using organizations within other industries would be desirable.

The fact that this sample was largely (94.1%) female may limit the generalizability of the results as well. In other words, it is possible that some of these findings are gender specific. Previous research on gender differences for these variables has produced mixed results. For example, Aranya and Jacobson (1975) found organizational commitment to be stronger among women, while Powell and Posner (1989) found career commitment to be higher among men. On the other hand, Quadagno (1978) and Koslowsky (1987) both reported finding no gender differences in the latter. Similar studies with male subjects and/or mixed samples could be helpful in testing for the existence of gender differences and the generalizability of these findings. In sum, the possibility exists that future research with different samples could reveal different results.

As previously mentioned, the negative relationship found between career commitment and the desire for promotion is an enigma.—This unusual finding hints that something may be amiss. Continued research of the operativeness of the career commitment construct is necessary. The notion that a minimum threshold level, below which the construct cannot be operationalized, exists somewhere among occupations merits serious consideration. In spite of the enigmatic negative effect career commitment had on desire for promotion, however, the inclusion of this form of work commitment in the interactions appeared to improve the explanatory power of the other variable(s) overall.

Finally, the potentially limiting design of this research should be noted. Before the data were analyzed, the original sample was dichotomized at the median organizational commitment score into two cells, one with high organizational commitment and one with low. These two groups were, in turn, each dichotomized into a group with high job involvement and a group with low job involvement. The resultant four cells of subjects were divided into eight according to high and low levels of career commitment. This dichotomous design, based on median scores, most likely produced rather conservative statistical results since the focus was on the masses in the middle. The extreme outliers were essentially ignored. Whether this impacted the meaningfulness of the findings positively, negatively, or not at all is uncertain, but it is worthy of future consideration.

Whenever research is conducted, potential problems and limitations will exist and should be acknowledged. No findings can ever be accepted unquestionably. These findings are certainly no exception and the aforementioned are only the possible limitations which have been recognized. Other limitations may very well be present. Still, this study appears to be sound in many respects. The substantial reliability of the measuring instruments used is but one of its strengths. The uniqueness of the results' implication that too much work commitment may be detrimental is another.

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APPENDIX:  
SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE



## Opinions About Your Work

This section asks you your opinion about various aspects of your job (e.g., your pay, supervision, co-workers). Think of your present work. What is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write:

Y for "YES" if it describes your work

N for "NO" if it does not describe it

? if you cannot decide

WORK

- |                    |                   |   |
|--------------------|-------------------|---|
| 1. ___ Fascinating | 7. ___ Respected  | 13. ___ Challenging                     |
| 2. ___ Routine     | 8. ___ Hot/Cold   | 14. ___ On your feet                    |
| 3. ___ Satisfying  | 9. ___ Pleasant   | 15. ___ Frustrating                     |
| 4. ___ Boring      | 10. ___ Useful    | 16. ___ Simple                          |
| 5. ___ Good        | 11. ___ Tiresome  | 17. ___ Endless                         |
| 6. ___ Creative    | 12. ___ Healthful | 18. ___ Gives a sense of accomplishment |

Now think about your pay. Answer in the same manner.

PAY

- |   |                                  |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 19. ___ Income adequate for normal expenses | 23. ___ Less than I deserve      |
| 20. ___ Barely live on income               | 24. ___ Highly paid              |
| 21. ___ Bad                                 | 25. ___ Underpaid                |
| 22. ___ Insecure                            | 26. ___ Income provides luxuries |

Now think about the opportunity for advancement. Answer in the same manner.

PROMOTIONS

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 27. ___ Good opportunity of advancement | 31. ___ Unfair promotion policy           |
| 28. ___ Opportunity somewhat limited    | 32. ___ Infrequent promotions             |
| 29. ___ Promotion on ability            | 33. ___ Regular promotions                |
| 30. ___ Good chance for promotion       | 34. ___ Fairly good chance for promotions |
|   | 35. ___ Dead end job                      |

Think about your supervision and read the phrases and then write

Y for "YES" if it describes your supervisor

N for "NO" if it does not

? if you cannot decide

SUPERVISION

- |                           |                                  |                             |
|---------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 36. ___ Asks my advice    | 42. ___ Up-to-date               | 47. ___ Stubborn            |
| 37. ___ Hard to please    | 43. ___ Doesn't supervise enough | 48. ___ Knows job well      |
| 38. ___ Impolite          | 44. ___ Quick tempered           | 49. ___ Bad                 |
| 39. ___ Praises good work | 45. ___ Tells me where I stand   | 50. ___ Intelligent         |
| 40. ___ Tactful           | 46. ___ Annoying                 | 51. ___ Leaves me on my own |
| 41. ___ Influential       |                                  | 52. ___ Around when needed  |
|                           |                                  | 53. ___ Lazy                |

Now think about the people you work with (your co-workers). Answer in the same manner.

CO-WORKERS

- |                     |                              |                          |
|---------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 54. ___ Stimulating | 60. ___ Fast                 | 66. ___ Unpleasant       |
| 55. ___ Boring      | 61. ___ Intelligent          | 67. ___ No privacy       |
| 56. ___ Slow        | 62. ___ Easy to make enemies | 68. ___ Active           |
| 57. ___ Ambitious   | 63. ___ Talk too much        | 69. ___ Narrow interests |
| 58. ___ Stupid      | 64. ___ Smart                | 70. ___ Loyal            |
| 59. ___ Responsible | 65. ___ Lazy                 | 71. ___ Hard to meet     |

**Opinions About Your Job**

Listed below are statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about their work and the job they do. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by drawing a circle around one of the five numbers below each statement.

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

1. If offered a similar job in a different department or lab, I would not want to leave because of my co-workers.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

2. I am very much personally involved in my job.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

3. Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

4. My co-workers make this job bearable.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

5. My formal education overqualifies me for my present job.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

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

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6. My job frequently provides me with new challenges.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
7. Some continuing education related to my job would improve my job performance.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
8. Most of my interests are centered around my job.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
9. I consider my job to be very central to my existence.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
10. My co-workers add little to the enjoyment of my job.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
11. I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
12. The most important things that happen to me involve my job.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
13. My talents are not fully utilized on my job.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
14. To me, my job is only a small part of who I am.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
15. I enjoy my job because of my co-workers rather than the actual tasks I do.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
16. My work experience is more than is necessary to do my present job.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
17. Usually I feel detached from my job.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
18. My job provides me with many opportunities to learn new things.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
19. I live, eat and breathe my job.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
20. My co-workers are the main reason why I stay with my present job.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
21. I have mastered nearly every aspect of my job.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
22. I spend time outside of working hours with my co-workers.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5
23. The day-to-day content of my job seldom changes.  
1                      2                      3                      4                      5

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

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24. I have very strong ties with my present job which would be very difficult to break.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

25. Frankly, I am overqualified for the job I hold.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

26. My job has a lot of potential for change and growth.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

27. Assuming things in your personal life and work remain about the same, what is the probability you will continue to work in your present job in the near future?

- a. Very High. I am 95-100% sure I will continue.
- b. Strong. I am 75-95% sure I will continue.
- c. Uncertain. But the chances I'll continue are greater than the chances I'll change.
- d. Uncertain. But the chances I'll change are greater than the chances I'll continue.
- e. Low. I am 75-95% sure I will change or try to change.
- f. Very Low. I am 95-100% sure I will change or try to change.

Opinions About the Type of Work You Do

Many of us have opinions about the field in which we work, independent of our specific job and employer (i.e., we could do similar work in a different job and for a different employer). Please describe your feelings about your career by indicating your level of agreement with the following statements.

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

1. I definitely want a career for myself in a scientific/laboratory field.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

2. If I could get into a different field which paid the same, I would probably take it.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

3. If I could do it all over again, I would not choose to work in a scientific/laboratory field.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

4. If I had all the money I needed without working, I would probably still continue to work in my present field.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

5. I like my field too well to give it up.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

6. This is the ideal field for a life's work.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

7. I am disappointed that I ever entered a scientific/laboratory field.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

1                      2                      3                      4                      Strongly  
Strongly                      Disagree                      Neutral                      Agree                      Agree  
Disagree

8. I spend a significant amount of personal time reading articles or books related to my field. 105

1                      2                      3                      4                      5

9. Assuming things in your personal life and work remain about the same, what is the probability you will continue to work in your present field (i.e., do the same kind of work) in the near future?

- a. Very High. I am 95-100% sure I will continue.
- b. Strong. I am 75-95% sure I will continue.
- c. Uncertain. But the chances I'll continue are greater than the chances I'll change.
- d. Uncertain. But the chances I'll change are greater than the chances I'll continue.
- e. Low. I am 75-95% sure I will change or try to change.
- f. Very Low. I am 95-100% sure I will change or try to change.

Nature of Your Job

In order to analyze your job meaningfully, we need to know how you view it. Please answer Parts A and B.

Part A: This part of the questionnaire asks you to describe your job, as objectively as you can. Please do not use this part of the questionnaire to show how much you like or dislike your job. Instead, try to make your descriptions as accurate and as objective as you possibly can. Please circle the number which is the most accurate description of your job.

1. To what extent does your job require you to work closely with other people (either students or people in related jobs at ISU)?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Very little; dealing with other people is not at all necessary in doing the job.

Moderately; some dealing with others is necessary.

Very much; dealing with other people is an absolutely essential and crucial part of doing the job.

2. How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Very little; the job gives me almost no personal "say" about how and when the work is done.

Moderate autonomy; many things are standardized and not under my control, but I can make some decisions about the work.

Very much; the job gives me almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is done.

3. To what extent does your job involve doing a "whole" and identifiable piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is it only a small part of the overall piece of the work, which is finished by other people or by automatic machines?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

My job is only a tiny part of the overall piece of work; the results of my activities cannot be seen in the final product or service.

My job is a moderate-sized "chunk" of the overall piece of work; my own contribution can be seen in the final outcome.

My job involves doing the whole piece of work, from start to finish; the results of my activities are easily seen in the final product or service.

4. How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?

1-----2-----3-----4106-----5-----6-----7

Very little; the job requires me to do the same routine things over and over again.

Moderate variety.

Very much; the job requires me to do many different things, using a number of different skills and talents.

5. In general, how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Not very significant; the outcomes of my work are not likely to have important effects on other people.

Moderately significant.

Highly significant; the outcomes of my work can affect other people in very important ways.

6. To what extent do managers or co-workers let you know how well you are doing your job?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Very little; people almost never let me know how well I am doing.

Moderately; sometimes people may give me "feedback"; other times they may not.

Very much; managers or co-workers provide me with almost constant "feedback" about how well I am doing.

7. To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well you are doing--aside from any "feedback" co-workers or supervisors may provide?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Very little; the job itself is set up so I could work forever without finding out how well I am doing.

Moderately; sometimes doing the job provides "feedback" to me; sometimes it does not.

Very much; the job is set up so that I get almost constant "feedback" as I work about how well I am doing.

Part B: Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job.

You are to indicate whether each statement is an accurate or an inaccurate description of your job.

Once again, please try to be as objective as you can in deciding how accurately each statement describes your job--regardless of whether you like or dislike your job.

Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

How accurate is the statement in describing your job?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Inaccurate	Mostly Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Uncertain	Slightly Accurate	Mostly Accurate	Very Accurate

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. The job is arranged so that I have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. The job is never simple and repetitive.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very	Mostly	Slightly	Uncertain	Slightly	Mostly	Very
Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Inaccurate		Accurate	Accurate	Accurate

- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. The job cannot be done adequately <sup>107</sup> by a person working alone--without talking or checking with other people.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost always give me feedback about how well I am doing in my work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. The job provides me with lots of opportunities to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. The job itself provides many clues about whether or not I am performing well.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. The job itself is relatively significant or important in the broader scheme of things.

Opinions About ISU

Listed below are a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the organization they work for. With respect to ISU, please indicate how you agree or disagree with each statement by drawing a circle around one of the seven numbers below each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly		Somewhat		Somewhat		Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Agree	Agree

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help make ISU successful.
- 1            2            3            4            5            6            7
2. I talk up ISU to my friends as a great organization to work for.
- 1            2            3            4            5            6            7
3. I feel very loyal to ISU.
- 1            2            3            4            5            6            7
4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for ISU.
- 1            2            3            4            5            6            7
5. I find that my values and ISU's values are very similar.
- 1            2            3            4            5            6            7
6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of ISU.
- 1            2            3            4            5            6            7
7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work were similar.
- 1            2            3            4            5            6            7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

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8. ISU really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
9. It would take very little to change my present circumstances to cause me to leave ISU.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
10. I am extremely glad that I chose ISU to work for, over other organizations, I was considering at the time I joined ISU.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
11. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with ISU indefinitely.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with ISU's policies on important matters relating to its employees.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
13. I really care about the fate of ISU.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
14. For me, ISU is the best of all possible organizations to work for.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
15. Deciding to work for ISU was a definite mistake on my part.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
16. My chances for moving above my present position are high.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
17. It would be easy to find a job in another department.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
18. My chances for getting a higher level job at ISU are good.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
19. Job vacancies at ISU are usually filled by people from outside the university.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
20. An ISU employee who applies for another job at ISU has a better chance of getting that job than someone from the outside who applies for the job.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
21. As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave ISU.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
22. I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---
23. I am actively looking for a job outside of ISU.
 

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---



1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

24. I would like a job with more responsibility.

1            2            3            4            5            6            7

25. If I'm not promoted from my present job within three to five years, I will be disappointed.

1            2            3            4            5            6            7

26. I would feel much better about working at ISU if I were promoted.

1            2            3            4            5            6            7

27. I am not interested in moving from my present job.

1            2            3            4            5            6            7

28. Assuming things in your personal life and work remain about the same, what is the probability you will remain with ISU in the near future?

- a. Very High. I am 95-100% sure I will stay.
- b. Strong. I am 75-95% sure I will stay.
- c. Uncertain. But the chances I'll continue are greater than the chances I'll leave.
- d. Uncertain. But the chances I'll stay are greater than the chances I'll stay.
- e. Low. I am 75-95% sure I will leave or try to leave.
- f. Very Low. I am 95-100% sure I will leave or try to leave.

29. If you decided to leave ISU, how would you describe your chances for getting another job in the Ames area?

- a. Very High. I am 95-100% sure I would find a job.
- b. Strong. I am 75-95% sure I would find a job.
- c. Uncertain. But the chances I would find a job are greater than the chances I would not.
- d. Uncertain. But the chances I would not find a job are greater than the chances I would.
- e. Low. I am 75-95% sure I would not find a job.
- f. Very Low. I am 95-100% sure I would not find a job.

Background Data

In order to analyze our data in a meaningful fashion, we need some background information from each respondent. Please answer each of the following questions by circling the appropriate response or filling in the blank.

1. What is your class title (e.g., Secretary II): \_\_\_\_\_

2. Sex:        Male        Female

3. Age today: \_\_\_\_\_

4. What is your marital/family status?

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| a. single, no dependents                         | d. married or living with partner, with dependents |
| b. single, with dependents (head of household)   | e. other (please specify)                          |
| c. married or living with partner, no dependents | _____  |

5. How long have you been in your current position? \_\_\_\_\_ years

6. How many different positions have you held while employed at ISU?

- |        |          |         |                  |
|--------|----------|---------|------------------|
| a. one | c. three | e. five | g. more than six |
| b. two | d. four  | f. six  |                  |

7. How long have you worked in your present field (e.g., scientific/laboratory, library, secretarial/clerical)? \_\_\_\_\_ years
8. How long have you been employed by ISU in any position? \_\_\_\_\_ years
9. How long were you employed prior to coming to ISU? \_\_\_\_\_ years
10. How many lateral moves (job changes) have you made since coming to work at ISU? \_\_\_\_\_ moves
11. How many upward moves (promotions) have you made since coming to work at ISU? \_\_\_\_\_ moves
12. How many downward moves (demotions) have you made since coming to work at ISU? \_\_\_\_\_ moves
13. What is your highest level of formal schooling?
  - a. high school diploma or certificate
  - b. one year post high school education or training
  - c. two years post high school education or training
  - d. three or more years post high school education or training
  - e. one year of college
  - f. two years of college
  - g. associate of arts degree
  - h. three years of college
  - i. baccalaureate degree
  - j. some graduate work
  - k. master's degree
  - l. other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_.
14. Do you consider your work here at ISU to be temporary (i.e., do you plan to leave once you or someone else completes his or her education)?
 

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes, I consider myself temporary.

\_\_\_\_\_ No, I consider myself permanent.