JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN GREECE

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THESIS SUMMARY
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Organizational commitment and job satisfaction are two interrelated work attitudes, and the kind of relationship is influenced by the economic sector and the type and form of employment. Also, employees develop commitment profiles that relate differently to job satisfaction and its facets. Furthermore, individuals experience two different regulatory foci that relate to the forms of organizational commitment and these foci develop into separable characters that moderate the commitment/satisfaction relationship. Finally, since commitment predicts organizational citizenship behaviours, and satisfaction relates to these behaviours, then job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and OCBs. In Study 1 this research, investigated research hypotheses based on the moderating role of the economic sector to job satisfaction/organizational commitment relationships, and especially to the forms of commitment and the facets of satisfaction – extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction. Overall, 618 employees successfully completed the questionnaires (258 from private sector companies and 360 from the public administration). Then, distinguishable organizational commitment profiles developed and constructed from the forms or constructs of commitment. Two different samples were used in Study 2 in order to test the relevant hypotheses – 1,119 employees from the private sector and 476 from the public sector. Study 3 used the concept of regulatory focus, where the two foci relate differently to forms of organizational commitment and these two states moderate the satisfaction/commitment relationship and furthermore, individuals develop four separable regulatory focus characters based on the two major regulatory foci. Moreover, the moderating intervention is crucially influenced by the employment status of the individuals. The research hypotheses developed in this part were tested through two samples of employees: 258 working in the private sector and 263 in the public sector. Study 4 examined the mediating role of job satisfaction on the organizational commitment/organizational citizenship behaviours relationship. It argued that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between the forms of commitment and OCBs, and furthermore, job satisfaction mediates more strongly the relationship between these forms and loyal boosterism (one of the OCB dimensions). The relevant hypotheses were tested through a combined sample of 646 employees, equally drawn from the two sectors. The results were discussed, implications and contributions analyzed, and limitations and recommendations for future research presented.

Key words: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, regulatory focus, organizational citizenship behaviours, Greece

DEDICATION

To my wife Sofia and my daughters Sissy and Angeliki.

PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS FROM THIS RESEARCH

Markovits, Y., Ullrich, J., van Dick, R., and Davis, A.J. (2008) Regulatory foci and organizational commitment, *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 73 (3): 485 - 489

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Markovits, Y., Davis, A.J., and van Dick, R. (2005) Organizational commitment profiles and job satisfaction among Greek private and public sector employees, *Working paper,* RP0524, Birmingham: Aston Business School Research Institute

Markovits, Y., van Dick, R., and Davis, A.J. (2006) The moderating role of regulatory focus in the commitment-satisfaction relationship, *26ᵗʰ International Congress of Applied Psychology*, Athens: International Association of Applied Psychology

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ABBREVIATIONS

α = Cronbach's α coefficient
AC = Affective commitment
ACS = Affective Commitment Scale
AOC = Affective organizational commitment
BOCS = British Organizational Commitment Scale
CC = Continuance commitment
CCS = Continuance Commitment Scale
df = Degrees of freedom
ES = Extrinsic satisfaction
F = F value
HISAC = High sacrifices
HRM = Human Resource Management
INHE = Interpersonal helping
ININ = Individual initiative
IS = Intrinsic satisfaction
JDI = Job Descriptive Index
JDS = Job Diagnostic Survey
JI = Job involvement
JIG = Job-in-General Scale
JS = Job satisfaction
JSS = Job Satisfaction Survey
LO = Loyalty
LOALT = Low alternatives
LOBO = Loyal boosterism
m = Mean value
Max = Maximum
Min = Minimum
MSQ = Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
N = Sample number/size
NA = Negative affect
NC = Normative commitment
NCS = Normative Commitment Scale
OB = Organizational Behaviour
OC = Organizational commitment
OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behaviour
OCQ = Organizational Commitment Questionnaire
OCS = Organizational Commitment Scales
OD = Organizational Development
OI = Organizational identification
OJS = Overall Job Satisfaction Scale
p = Level of significance/p-value
PA = Positive affect
PANAS = Positive and Negative Affectivity Scale
PEIN = Personal industry
POS = Perceived Organizational Support
PREV = Prevention focus
PROM = Promotion focus
PSM = Publc Service Motivation
REGFOC = Regulatory focus

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RFT = Regulatory Focus Theory
s.d. = Standard deviation
SDT = Self-determination Theory
SET = Social Exchange Theory
t = t-value
WOP = Work and Organizational Psychology

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Justification of research and contribution to knowledge

The relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction has not been thoroughly investigated within the Greek cultural and organizational context and there have been only studies examining indirectly organizational commitment and job satisfaction with respect to other variables (cf. Bourantas & Papalexandris, 1992; Peeters, Montgomery, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2005; Togia, Koustelios, & Tsigilis, 2004; Koustelios, Theodorakis, & Goulimaris, 2004; Antoniou, Davidson, & Cooper, 2003; etc.). However, a study on the relationship of organizational commitment to job satisfaction has been conducted in the 1990s by Karassavidou and Markovits (1994); although, it focused on one particular scale and conceptual framework of organizational commitment (Cook & Wall, 1980) and the sample was constituted of blue-collar workers. Most of the studies in Greece related job satisfaction to stress and burnout and focused more on the individual level, rather than the organizational one. Moreover, no empirical studies – either in Greece or elsewhere – have been implemented concerning organizational commitment and job satisfaction and the effect these have on their relationship to the type and form of employment, i.e., employees working under private sector contracts and employees recruited to work for the State – both at a Central and a Regional level – as civil servants. Thus, the present research examines how the economic sector influences the relationship between the forms of commitment and the facets of satisfaction, questioning a stereotype that civil servants are poorly committed and, by and large, dissatisfied with their jobs. The examination of these research questions is important since the knowledge of the relationships developed for employees working into different economic sector and employment forms may influence the development of Human Resource Management (HRM) policies and provide explanations for the differences on job-related attitudes exhibited in the private sector and the public sector.

Furthermore, the existence of organizational commitment profiles has been mainly restricted to the American organizational context (cf. Irving, Cawsey, & Cruikshank, 2002; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) with the notable exception of Wasti's (2005) work in Turkey. However, even these studies focused on the existence of profiles based on Meyer, Allen and Smith's (1993) three-commitment framework – affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. This field research extends the present scientific knowledge by examining another conceptual framework – organizational commitment constructed by organizational identification, job involvement, and loyalty (Cook & Wall, 1980) and distinguishing these profiles according to the form of employment relationship, i.e., private sector and public sector employees. Moreover, the organizational commitment profiles are related to job satisfaction, whereas, all previous studies examined profiles with respect to focal and contextual task performance. Thus, the new material introduced via this research is the relation of commitment profiles to job attitudes and their examination with respect to the employment differences, i.e., the distinction between private and public sector employees. The answers provided to the respective research questions will have a two-fold scope: on the one hand, they will cross-validate the development, existence and relevance of organizational commitment profiles for other cases, apart from organizational citizenship behaviours and turnover intentions, and on the other hand, they will strengthen the argument for profiles by pointing out that their existence is not related to the methodological tool used, i.e., Meyer and Allen's three-dimensional model of organizational commitment.

So far, it is known that regulatory focus is distinguished between promotion focus and prevention focus and affect goals, outcomes and performance. However, little is known concerning the relationship of regulatory focus to organizational commitment. This research examines how the two regulatory focus states relate to the three forms of organizational commitment and goes beyond this by examining the intervening effect of regulatory focus to

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the organizational commitment/job satisfaction relationship. This issue has never been examined and its significance is important since the relevant self-regulation foci construct distinguishable personality characters establishing that employees respond differently to management practices and exemplify different attitudes toward their job. The overall effect is to develop distinguishable employee characters that should respond in different ways to HRM policies and practices and have attitudes toward their jobs relevant to their regulatory focus characters. This study examines a novel issue in the relevant Work and Organizational Psychology (WOP) field and responds to Meyer and his colleagues' exhortation to see the relationship between self-regulation and attitudes (cf. Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004).

Finally, international research updates examined and related attitudes to performance, both extra-role and in-role ones. In particular, it has been seen that organizational commitment and job satisfaction could predict extra-role behaviours at work, such as, organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs). However, nothing is said on what could influence the degree of the relationship between organizational commitment and OCBs. This research tests the hypothesis that organizational commitment is closely related to OCBs, and that this effect is caused by the strong influence of organizational commitment on job satisfaction. In other words, job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours. This model is tested with respect to the forms of commitment and the dimensions of OCBs, showing that affective commitment and normative commitment are closely related to loyal boosterism, due to the strong influence of these forms of commitment on job satisfaction. The final sets of hypotheses relate to the mediating role of job satisfaction on the predictive relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours, and can provide fruitful arguments and recommendations to academics and HR practitioners on 'how' or 'why' organizational commitment predicts or causes OCBs, and more importantly the forms of commitment predict

loyal boosterism. Job satisfaction as a *mediator* can explain this relationship, since it is the mechanism through which commitment influences extra-role performance.

The hypotheses developed and tested in all four field quantitative studies have both theoretical contributions to the relevant WOP knowledge, being themselves new propositions on the theory, and also practical implications to organizations and management, especially HRM, since the research is conducted in the private and public sector and the results could provide specific recommendations for action to management. All these are discussed thoroughly both during the presentation of the studies, as well as in Chapter 7, where the conceptual framework developed is reviewed as an integrated whole.

1.2. Thesis overview

The thesis is divided into seven chapters: the first chapter has the justification of the research, the contribution to knowledge, and the thesis overview, and the second chapter provides introductory material and knowledge, the basic definitions of the examined concepts − job satisfaction, organizational commitment, regulatory focus, and organizational citizenship behaviour, and their relations between them, as well as with their antecedents. The third chapter presents the conceptual framework for Study 1 of this research, and examines how the economic sector in Greece moderates the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The fourth chapter deals with the conceptual framework for Study 2, develops commitment profiles and relates them with job satisfaction in both sectors. The fifth chapter moves into Study 3, where regulatory focus is introduced and is related to organizational commitment and further, regulatory foci characters are developed and their moderation is examined with respect to job satisfaction and organizational commitment in both sectors. The sixth chapter deals with the final conceptual framework for Study 4, where the mediating role of job satisfaction is examined with respect to the relationship between

organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours. The final – seventh – chapter contains the general conclusions derived from this research related to the research hypotheses and the whole conceptual framework, their implications for theory, policy and practice, and the limitations of the research, and recommendations for further research. The thesis concludes with the references list and the appendices with the various questionnaires adopted for all field studies (Table 1.1 shows all four studies).

Table 1.1: The four studies

STUDY	SAMPLE	QUESTIONNAIRE
Study 1: The moderating role of the economic sector on job satisfaction and organizational commitment	618 (258 private sector, 360 public sector)	MSQ (with Warr et al.), ACS, NCS, CCS (18 items), PANAS
Study 2: Organizational commitment profiles and job satisfaction in both sectors	1,119 private sector, 476 public sector	MSQ (with Warr et al.), BOCS (with Lawler & Hall, Mowday et al., Buchanan), ACS, NCS, CCS (18 items)
Study 3: The moderating role of regulatory focus on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in both sectors	521 (258 private sector, 263 public sector)	MSQ (with Warr et al.), ACS, NCS, CCS (18 items), Regulatory focus (Lockwood et al.), PANAS
Study 4: The mediating role of job satisfaction on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours	646 (323 from private and public sector, respectively)	MSQ (with Warr et al.), ACS, NCS, CCS (21 items), OCB (Moorman & Blakely)

Figure 1.1 shows the whole integrated conceptual framework that is formulated in order to design the relevant research hypotheses that were tested in the four independent field

studies. This integrated framework is separated into four integral parts that compose the four studies.

Figure 1.1: The general conceptual framework
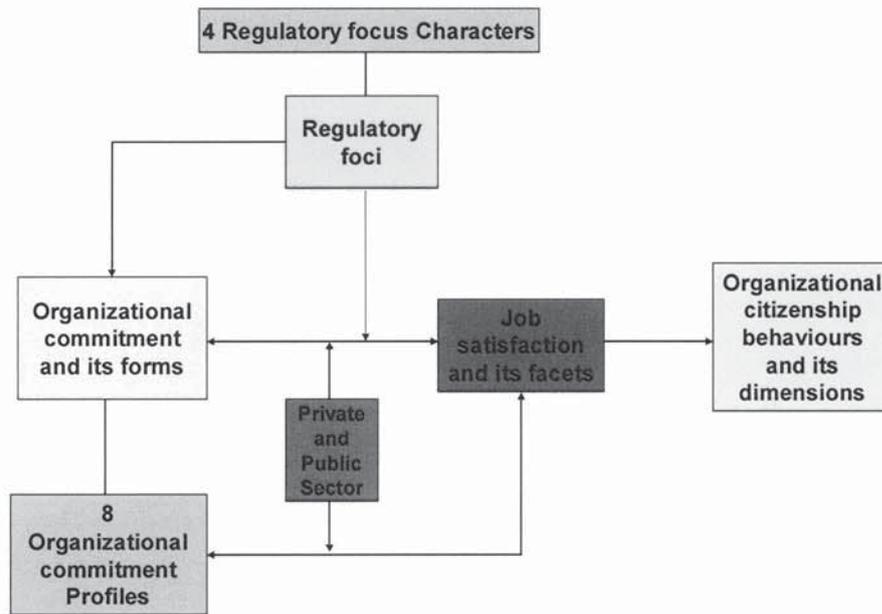
Organizational commitment and job satisfaction are two interrelated work attitudes, but little is known on how their relationship is moderated by the type of employment contract, i.e., how satisfaction and commitment is differentiated in employees from the private and public sectors (e.g., Karl & Sutton, 1998; Naff & Crum, 1999; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2006). This research raises this question and examines the moderating role of the economic sector to the relationship of the forms of commitment with the facets of satisfaction. Moreover, the forms or constructs of organizational commitment develop into distinguishable profiles that relate differently to the various outcomes (e.g., see on commitment profiles: Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Wasti, 2005; Gellatly, Meyer & Luchak, 2006). However, until today, international research has focused on the relationship of these profiles to performance, intentions and behaviours. This research examines these profiles with respect to job satisfaction, and examines them in both private and public sectors,

in order to disclose their differences, and moreover, it extends the profiles framework by using another one methodological tool for organizational commitment – that of Cook and Wall (1980), apart from the one used in all studies so far, i.e., that of Allen and Meyer (1990). It is also known that regulatory foci relate to job attitudes (for instance, see work on the relationship of regulatory focus to job satisfaction and organizational commitment: Higgins, Simon, & Wells, 1988; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004; Van-Dijk & Kluger, 2004; Kark & Van-Dijk, 2007), but nothing is known on which state of regulatory focus – promotion focus or prevention focus – relates more strongly than the other to the forms of organizational commitment – affective, normative, and continuance. This knowledge is important for the development of tailor-made HR policies. This research develops relevant hypotheses and tests then, and in turn, develops distinguishable characters out of the two regulatory focus states and examines their moderation by the organizational commitment/job satisfaction relationship, in both economic sectors. Finally, although other studies have shown that the attitudes predict behaviour (e.g., see on the relationship between the two attitudes and extra-role behaviours: Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002: LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002; Gautam, Van Dick, Wagner, Upadhyay, & Davis, 2005), there is no empirical evidence why commitment is closely related to organizational citizenship behaviours. This research hypothesizes and tests that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between the forms of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours, i.e., the strong influence of commitment on satisfaction is responsible for the relationship between commitment and OCBs. This conceptual framework is examined through relevant research hypotheses via four independent field studies conducted in Greece to employees from both private and public sector.

CHAPTER 2: THE RESEARCH AND THE PRESENTATION

AND ANALYSIS OF THEORETICAL CONCEPTS

2.0. Chapter summary

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are two prominent work-related attitudes that influence employee motivation and HRM policies decided by management. Greece is a rather ill-explored geographical area concerning attitudes and their role and influence in the organizational environment. This chapter presents the theoretical problem of this doctoral thesis, analyses the Greek cultural and organizational environment, introduces and reviews the theoretical concepts (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, regulatory focus, and organizational citizenship behaviours), their relations with other variables, the measurement scales used for quantitative studies, and presents a brief of the methodology used for the current research.

2.1. Background to the research

This research was initiated by a field study conducted by the author and Eleonora Karassavidou, Assistant Professor of Human Resources Management at the Aristotle's University of Thessaloniki back in the mid-90's where blue-collar workers from 11 manufacturing companies answered a structured questionnaire measuring job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and job security. This was the first study in these areas ever conducted in Greece and the results were presented at the 6th European Conference of the European Association of Labour Economists held in Warsaw, Poland in 1994. Since then there have been no other field studies conducted in Greece; leaving this area of work and organizational psychology ill-explored and researched in Greece. In the meantime, new scales of measurement have developed in the field and new situations emerged in the Greek organizational and social context, the most significant being, Greece's full membership to the European Union and the globalization of the socioeconomic and industrial relations issues. Furthermore, Human Resources Management policies and

procedures adopted both in the private and public sector, and the modernization of the organizational environments, e.g., adoption of the New Public Management concept in the public administration, flexible working patterns, ownership changes in the private sector companies through mergers and acquisitions, extensive privatization of public sector organizations, reduction of the social security system and of welfare state, harshening of socioeconomic conditions for the majority of the citizens, massive immigration from Eastern Europe and the Balkans, new forms of discrimination and the increasing conservatism of society, were some of the most prominent developments in Greek society.

The present research, taken under consideration of the aforementioned changes and developments (positive and negative alike), investigated current Greek employees – both in the private and public sector – and examined issues related to their degree and type of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. All field studies were conducted within the Greek socioeconomic and organizational environment, since the researcher, apart from being a Greek national, is also working and living in this country. The field studies started in 2004 and lasted until 2007. During these years numerous employees from the private sector and the public sector were approached and asked to complete the questionnaires developed for the purposes of the research studies. The employees were found either in their workplaces or in vocational training seminars. In most of the cases, they answered the questionnaire instantly; although, many of them decided to fill them in at their own convenience and pace.

2.2. The research problem

The present research examines the general relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction within the Greek organizational and cultural context and its interplay with other factors, such as sectoral differences, self-regulation processes and work-related behaviours. In particular, it examines the importance and significance of measuring

and examining these organization and job attitudes for employees. Since employees in the private and public sector experience substantially different employment and organizational conditions, contracts and work environments, the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction should differ substantially, resulting to the development and implementation of tailor-made management practices and policies for human resources. So, far there have not been any studies examining the role of economic sector and type of employment on the interplay between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Moreover, Study 1 of the current research proposes that economic sector (private vs. public) plays a moderating role on the relationship between commitment and satisfaction. Furthermore, this study questions the belief that civil servants are poorly committed towards their organization. This research examines these objective differences and proposes appropriate Human Resource Management (HRM) policies and procedures in order to keep employees satisfied with their jobs and committed toward their organizations. A satisfied and committed employee is most likely to be motivated at work, to perform well and be effective, productive, and efficient. Thus, the first general problem investigated in the current research is the role of the economic sector on the organizational commitment/job satisfaction relationship. As it will be seen in the forthcoming chapters, this issue has not been investigated in the relevant international bibliography, but instead organizational commitment and job satisfaction is examined with respect to private and public sector employment independently.

Following from these acknowledged sectoral and objective differences, a number of distinguishable and theoretically interpretable organizational commitment profiles for these employees have been developed, demonstrating an influential effect on employees' job satisfaction, resulting from the employment status of the individuals, i.e., private or public sector employees. These organizational commitment profiles are based – for the first time - on two different commitment conceptual frameworks, the first initially developed by Cook and

Wall (1980) and the second by Meyer, et al. (1993). Although, commitment profiles have been examined extensively during the last ten years, their research was restricted to organizational citizenship behaviours, turnover and withdrawal intentions. The current research relates the profiles issue to job satisfaction, thus, extending the relevant study on commitment profiles and makes a further contribution by examining these profiles with respect to the private/public sector distinction. Apart from the theoretical contribution, the practical relevance is obvious, since based on the findings and the differences associated to the type and form of employment, appropriate HR policies could be developed in order to make employees feel satisfied with their jobs. Thus, the second research problem is: which commitment profiles make employees more satisfied with their jobs and how do these differ from private sector to public sector?

The third study of the doctoral thesis examines the relationship of the self-regulation processes with the aforementioned attitudes. Self-regulation has been conceptualised through the Regulatory Focus Theory (RFT) proposing two separate regulatory foci – promotion focus and prevention focus. For the first time, it is proposed that individuals develop four regulatory focus characters based on the two major regulatory foci, and these characters intervene in the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction by moderating it. Moreover, this intervention is crucially influenced by the employment status of the individuals – private or public sector employees. By acknowledging these four characters and managing to distinguish them, appropriate HRM policies are constructed and related to those based on the development of the organizational commitment profiles. This study relates and examines empirically – for the first time – the relationship between regulatory focus states and organizational commitment forms and extends this by showing how regulatory focus moderates the commitment/satisfaction relationship, taking under consideration the type and form of employment. This examination, together with the development of the distinguishable

regulatory focus characters, is new material to the WOP theory, having also considerable practical implications for HR managers.

The research concludes by reaching to the final set of relationships, i.e., job satisfaction is already proved to be related to the positive and extra-role job-related behaviours, such as the so-called organizational citizenship behaviours (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). The aim of the fourth study was to examine this hypothesized mediating relationship between organizational commitment/job satisfaction/organizational citizenship behaviours. This is a new contribution to the relevant theory and practice, since, so far, job satisfaction was seen as a mediator between dispositional or demographic factors and extra-role behaviours or turnover intentions. This examination on the current research shows that organizational commitment is closely related to organizational citizenship behaviours, and in particular to one of its dimensions - loyal boosterism, and that this effect is caused by a strong influence of organizational commitment on job satisfaction. In other words, this research problem is associated with the factors affecting the strength of the predictive relationship between commitment and extra-role behaviours, and it concludes that job satisfaction is responsible for this. This is important both from a theoretical standpoint and a practical one, since HR managers should aim to select employees showing a potential for commitment and on the other hand, management should develop policies and practices aiming to strengthen organizational identity and culture and providing clear and thorough mission and goals to employees.

Concluding, therefore, the main research problem of this thesis is to disclose how the various forms of organizational commitment interplay so as to determine or project employees' level of job satisfaction and, in particular, the satisfaction derived from the extrinsic rewards and that derived from the intrinsic accomplishments, taking under consideration the type and form of employment. Also, it considers what sort of commitment

profiles make people feel more satisfied with their job, with particular reference to the private sector/public sector distinction. Furthermore, this research examines how self-regulation foci relate to the forms of organizational commitment and moderates the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and finally, since job satisfaction is related to organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) and organizational commitment to OCBs, the research examines the mediating role of job satisfaction to the relationship between organizational commitment and OCBs.

2.3. The Greek organizational and cultural context

Greece is rarely explored in management research (Myloni, Harzing, & Mirza, 2004; Papalexandris, 1992) although it is represented in major studies of cross-cultural variation. Indeed its position in these studies is quite distinctive. The GLOBE studies (Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness; House et al., 2004) located Greece in the Eastern Europe cluster while Hofstede's earlier work (1980) located Greece in a broadly "Near Eastern" cluster (cf. Ronen & Shenkar, 1985) including Arab countries, Spain, some Latin American countries and Turkey (the characteristics of this cultural group are high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, low individualism and medium masculinity). Another cross-cultural study by Griffeth, Hom, Denisi and Kirchner (1985) clustered Greece with the Latin European countries of Spain, Portugal and Italy, and the Netherlands and Belgium. They used job satisfaction (co-work satisfaction, pay satisfaction, supervision satisfaction, promotional satisfaction, and work satisfaction), organizational commitment (the feeling of identification or being part of the company, measured with seven items), role overload, organizational climate and structure, in order to complete their research. Although, Griffeth et al. (1985) used many variables to conduct their cross-cultural research (128 items overall), they did not use any of the generally accepted scales of that time. Furthermore, sample sizes from each country were very small (for example, from Greece the sample size was 23, from

Austria 44, and from Finland 36). In terms of the societal values, institutional collectivism and uncertainty avoidance were highly valued, while power distance and assertiveness were less valued than in most of the GLOBE participant countries. Of the nine GLOBE dimensions, only gender egalitarianism was both highly valued and widely practiced in Greece. Societal practices (in contrast to values) were reported to be high on assertiveness and power distance, and low on performance orientation, institutional collectivism, humane orientation and uncertainty avoidance. Hofstede's findings were largely similar, although he reported high power distance being valued rather than just practiced. This shift from Hofstede's study to the GLOBE findings may be a function of economic development and related changes that Greece has experienced in the past 30 years.

All cross-cultural studies show that Greek managers and management attitudes and decisions are different from those of the British, Germans, or the US. Starting this literature review from the work by Lammers and Hickson (1979), Greece is characterized more as a typical bureaucracy, with a high power distance between employees and employers, and a high rule orientation. These cultural patterns are exactly the opposite from those that predominate in the Anglo-Saxon countries. Hofstede (1980) – in his pioneering work on cross-cultural comparisons – found that the cultural characteristics of Greek managers were: very strong on uncertainty avoidance, rather high on power distance, rather collectivist on attitudes, and high on masculinity. Also, Hofstede (1983; 2001) provided a more complete cluster analysis of 50 countries and three regions where Greece is clustered together with Spain, Argentina, Turkey, Brazil, and the Arab countries and Britain is clustered together with Ireland, New Zealand, Canada, Australia, and the U.S.A. The differences between Greece and selected countries on the four cultural dimensions of Hofstede (in brackets are the maximum and minimum scores per dimension) are presented on Table 2.1. However, all these cross-cultural studies compared and contrasted values exemplified by managers, whereas, the present research examines attitudes expressed by employees. Greece, in general, is different –

culture-wise – compared to the countries that most of the empirical studies on job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been conducted. However, it is not the intention of the present research to provide either a cross-cultural examination of the job satisfaction/organizational commitment relationship or to argue that any differences disclosed on job satisfaction and organizational commitment among employees from different countries should be explained through a cultural prism.

Table 2.1: Cultural differences of Greece from selected countries

	Greece	Turkey	Great Britain	United States	Germany	Netherlands	Belgium	Australia	South Korea
Power Distance Index (104-11)	**60**	66	35	40	35	38	65	36	60
Uncertainty Avoidance Index (112-8)	**112**	85	35	46	65	53	94	51	85
Individualism / Collectivism Index (91-6)	**35**	37	89	91	67	80	75	90	18
Masculinity / Femininity Index (95-5)	**57**	45	66	62	66	14	54	61	39

Recent cross-cultural analyses show that Greece is grouped with such a cluster that its cultural parameters and values differ a lot, or in some cases substantially, from the values representing clusters which the Anglo-Saxon, the Nordic, the Latin, or the Central and West European countries exemplify. For example, this is case in the study conducted by Schwartz (1994), which compared countries across the cultural dimensions of: conservatism, affective autonomy, intellectual autonomy, hierarchy, mastery, egalitarian commitment, and harmony. Also, Brodbeck et al. (2000) examined the cultural variation of 22 European countries across various leadership traits and behaviours and validate the cluster analysis of Ronen and Shenkar (1985). Similar results were presented by Bond et al. (2004) - they clustered nations across two social axioms (dynamic externality and societal cynicism) and by Myloni et al. (2004) where countries were grouped on variables such as, performance orientation, future orientation, family/in-group collectivism and power distance.

While Greek values have been explored, the impact of this value set on organizational outcomes has not, in contrast to its neighbour Turkey which has been the subject of an extensive series of studies on organizational commitment by Wasti (1998; 2002; 2003; 2005). Those cross-cultural studies that have included Greece reinforce the contrast between Greek attitudes, decision-making style, values and beliefs and those of more widely researched contexts, primarily the UK and North America (Schwartz, 1994). Bourantas, Anagnostelis, Mantes, and Kefalas (1990) argued that Greek management is characterized by the fear of responsibility and the low belief on others' knowledge and capacity, a characterization that accords with the GLOBE data.

Green, Deschamps, and Páez (2005) clustered countries' individualistic and collectivistic dimensions on the basis of three attitudes: self-reliance (an individualistic attitude), group-oriented interdependence (a collectivistic attitude), and competitiveness (an attitude both individualistic and collectivist). Greece was clustered into the self-reliant non-

competitor quadrant, (together with Italy), whereas the USA was on the borders of the interdependent competitor quadrant and Turkey was located in the self-reliant competitor quadrant. This seems to indicate an emergent individualism within both Greece and Turkey.

Finally, it is important to mention that the organization of Greek employees is based on the type of employment, thus, there are two confederations of employees: one for the employees working in the private sector and the former public enterprises that currently have been privatized – wholly or partially – and the other is for the employees working for the central, regional, or local government – the civil servants and the public sector employees. The main characteristics of the Greek trade unions are: (1) internal divisions along political lines, implying a dual organization structure comprised of a formal and an informal one, (2) fragmentation of the labour movement and multi-unionism, partly explained by the fact that unionism is based on occupation, and (3) hostile and adversarial industrial relations with a history of government fierce intervention, external regulation and a continuous fight to gain power and manipulate the demands of the labour movement (Karassavidou & Markovits, 1996: 367-368). On the other hand, employers are organized along the association of Greek industries and the association of hyper-markets and multi-stores representing around 450 private sector companies. However, the majority of companies is small-sized and family-owned and is represented by the handicrafts associations and the ones for the commercial companies, which are loosely organized. This means that the application of HRM policies is mainly feasible to those companies that are characterized as big-sized shareholding ones. The small size of the majority of Greek firms is also a significant limiting factor, since they are often not able or motivated to invest in the development of their human resources. Moreover, their small size does not allow them to attract and hire highly professional managers. In many cases, the person who deals with personnel matters is also responsible for finance and administration (Myloni, et al., 2004). As far as the level of unemployment, this – on average – does not exceed 10%; although trade unions continuously dispute the official figures and

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argue that unemployment rates are misleading and hide the "true" picture in the labour market. In short, this issue as well as many others is area of frequent disputes between the trade unions, the employers' associations and the government. Finally, concerning labour laws in Greece compared with EC Member States which industrialized earlier, labour law developed rather belatedly, at the end of the first decade of the twentieth century. The legislation passed during this earliest period, covering individual labour law, included the laws on female employment and the employment of minors, the judicial settlement of labour disputes, accidents at work and also unions. The period between the wars saw the first legal provisions on collective agreements and collective industrial disputes. The change of direction towards the modernization of labour law began after the 1975 Constitution, and a number of major laws were passed during the 1980s. Many of these owe their existence to, and are harmonized with, those in force in other EC Member States (Koniaris, 2002).

This section stressed that Greece has cultural differences compared to the Anglo-Saxon and the Asian countries, where the majority of research has been conducted during the last thirty years. Also, the organizational configuration of the labour market in Greece is closer to the typical Mediterranean one, exemplifying overt politicization, fragmentation, and adversarial attitudes to industrial relations. Thus, apart from the factor that the researcher is Greek and lives in the country, it is convenient and logical to pursue a field study of Greek employees. It is interesting to see how these employees respond towards their work environment and also, is important for the international bibliography, since new material from an under-researched geographical area will be included.

2.4. Presentation of the theoretical concepts

2.4.1. Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the most used and researched concepts on Organizational Behaviour (OB). This section presents some of the broadly applied definitions of job satisfaction that influenced the development of relevant measurement scales and is used in the present research. A generally applicable definition of job satisfaction states that: "Job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs ... Job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable ... [and] can be considered as a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job" (Spector, 1997: 2). Job satisfaction could be considered as "an affective ... reaction to a job that results from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired ... (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992: 1), or as an "affective response by individuals resulting from an appraisal of their work roles in the job that they presently hold" (Graham & Messner, 1998).

In general, job satisfaction has been seen in the relevant literature, as an affective or emotional attitude of an individual towards his or her job (James & Jones, 1980) or as a general attitude towards a job and some particular aspects of it, e.g., nature of work, relations with co-workers, etc (Knoop, 1995). The main difference on the treatment of this concept by the academics and researchers is on whether job satisfaction is a global/general feeling measured through one general question (i.e., "are you satisfied with your job?") or whether job satisfaction is a two-facet variable. The later, treats job satisfaction as an attitude towards a particular job that has both extrinsic and intrinsic features within it. The examination of job

satisfaction through this prism provides a more holistic approach, since it considers various aspects of job that contribute towards a general feeling of satisfaction from the job itself. Moreover, the examination of job satisfaction seems to be dependent on the cultural environment that the subjects live and work in. In other words, employees from collectivist societies and organizational contexts tend to exhibit different satisfaction levels from their jobs to those employees from individualistic societies. According to Smith, Fischer, and Sale (2001) there is greater job satisfaction among employees located in individualistic nations, possibly due to the existence of greater economic and social prosperity. However, the intention in this research is not to put forward the cultural perspective on the examination of job satisfaction, but to state that job satisfaction could have different interpretations in different societies.

The position taken in the present thesis is that job satisfaction is composed of two facets relating to the extrinsic and extrinsic features of a job (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005). This argument is traced back to Herzberg's (1968) conceptualization (the *Two-factor Theory of Motivation*) and parallels the discussion about the external and internal regulation of motivation. *Extrinsic satisfaction* is the satisfaction derived from extrinsic circumstances, for example, remuneration, management policies, physical conditions, or job security. *Intrinsic satisfaction* is the individually felt satisfaction arising out of opportunities for achievement, creativity, personal advancement, etc.

This approach to job satisfaction reflects less affective content, focusing more on the cognitive aspects of job satisfaction and internal cost-benefit analyses conducted by the employee (Brief, 1998). Extrinsic job satisfaction relates to satisfaction from pay, physical conditions of the organizational environment, HRM policies and procedures, interpersonal relationships, etc. Intrinsic job satisfaction represents employee's satisfaction from the non-monetary, qualitative aspects of work, such as creativity, opportunity to develop, ability

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utilization, feelings of personal achievement and accomplishment, etc. These features are internal to a particular job and are viewed and felt individually and differently by each employee (Arvey et al., 1989). Various measurement scales have been developed throughout the history of OB research that adopted the theoretical conceptualization of the two facets of job satisfaction, and one of them, that has been broadly used and adopted by the present research, is the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), initially constructed by Weiss et al. (1967).

Brief (1998) pointed out that since job satisfaction is widely acknowledged as an attitude, then it should incorporate in itself the two components of any typical attitude, i.e., the affective component and its cognitive one. However, the affective meaning of job satisfaction has been promoted so far. According to Brief (1998) a working definition for job satisfaction should be along Motowidlo's (1996) line of argument, i.e., job satisfaction being the judgement on whether a person is favourable towards his or her own working environment, plus the recognition "that such an evaluative judgement can be reflected in thoughts and feelings" (Brief, 1998: 10). Few academics raised this issue, i.e., whether job satisfaction should be simultaneously an affective and a cognitive attitude. For example, Fisher (2000) found that the instruments measuring job satisfaction should be "assessing a combination of cognitive and affective components (Fischer, 2000: 198), however, some of the widely and extensively used ones, such as the Job Descriptive Index - JDI (Smith, Kendall, & Hullin, 1969), the Job-In-General Scale - JIG (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989), the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale – OJS (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951), or the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire – MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967), fall, by and large, closer toward the one end of the continuum of this affective–cognitive dimension. For example, MSQ uses types of statements that ask the respondent to appraise different job conditions, which in effect, develops a more cognitive aspect for a particular job (Moorman, 1993). It seems that to have more cognitive-type statements for the assessment of job satisfaction, is easier, more

convenient and better understood for the subjects, than to measure the concept via affective-type statements.

Along this line is the theoretical argument raised by Weiss (2002) that attitude and affect are not equivalent concepts, and as a result, to treat satisfaction as solely an affective or emotional response would miss essential components of the evaluation of an individual's job satisfaction. Concluding therefore, job satisfaction should have an affective component referring "to the individual's general level of positive or negative feeling concerning the target" and a cognitive component consisting "of the individual's beliefs or thoughts concerning the target" (Schleicher, Watt, & Greguras, 2004: 166). At this point, it is worth examining whether job satisfaction is an attitude, or behaviour.

2.4.2. Is job satisfaction an attitude?

As already seen, job satisfaction has been defined in various ways, although, these converge into one denominator, i.e., any definition of job satisfaction should emphasize its attitudinal nature. Thus, since job satisfaction is viewed as an attitude, it should have the three classes of evaluative components as suggested by social psychologists:

(a) The affective one, composing of the feeling of a person toward an attitude object expressed both verbally and nonverbally, e.g., his or her job, "including the moods, emotions, and sympathetic nervous system activity experienced in relation to the object" (Brief, 1998: 52).

(b) The cognitive component of job satisfaction responded verbally via a person's beliefs toward his or her job and nonverbally via the perceptual reactions toward the job, i.e., "the beliefs or ideas one has about (i.e., associates with) an attitude object" (Brief, 1998: 53).

(c) The behavioural component, "how one acts and/or intends to act toward an attitude object" (Brief, 1998: 53) That is, how the individual responds with respect to a particular job

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through behavioural inclinations, intentions of action, commitments toward the job or the organization overall, or actual actions themselves.

However, in the relevant literature, social and work/organizational psychologists tend to view attitudes and behaviour through the cause-and-effect prism, thus, a person's attitude has an effect on his or her behavioural intention and further on, the actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1988). This later effect could drive the person to a specific action or inaction. By adopting this stance, job satisfaction should be examined as an attitude, having two primary components, an affective one and a cognitive one. Thus, "job satisfaction is an internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favour or disfavour" towards it (Brief, 1998: 86). Overall, we should state that the stance taken in this research is to treat job satisfaction primarily as an attitude, irrespective if this is affect or cognition. As Saari and Judge stated (2004), "cognition and affect are thus inextricably linked, in our psychology and even our biology. Thus, when evaluating our jobs, as when we assess most anything important to us, both thinking and feeling are involved" (p. 396). Following from this, the measurement scale used throughout this research is the MSQ, which has both cognitive and affective components in its statements. Furthermore, the aim of this research is not to provide an extensive analysis and contribute to the scientific argument on whether job satisfaction is attitude or behaviour, but to show the relationship of this concept with other ones influencing employees' behaviour and performance at work. Thus, it is more essential and necessary to discuss the importance of job satisfaction to HRM.

2.4.3. The importance of job satisfaction to Human Resource Management (HRM)

It is widely accepted that job satisfaction has a direct or indirect relationship to the achievement of organizational goals and to the increased employee productivity and reduced rates of employee turnover, absenteeism, lateness and apathy during work. However, this

relationship is mainly with the short-term goals of an organization, rather than the long-term ones (Smith, 1992). The later ones tend to be influenced by factors such as the overall organizational strategy and policies, the external forces and competition, the conditions and developments on the regional, national and global markets, etc.

A study by Steijn (2004) using public sector employees in the Netherlands as participants revealed that HRM-related variables had some direct effect on employees' job satisfaction and also indirect effects on satisfaction with the organization's management and with career support. Overall, the author suggests that although HRM policies are not the panacea for the problem of employees' satisfaction from their jobs, they in effect provide a valuable help towards it.

Another major study conducted in the UK manufacturing sector (Shipton, West, Parkes, Dawson, & Patterson, 2006) provided sufficient evidence that effective people management policies, such as, jobs that are designed to maximize the opportunities for variety, practices developed to promote harmonization, and generate trust, and reward systems (especially those where pay is contingent upon performance) reported providing 'progressive' rather than 'passive' job satisfaction (Shipton et al., 2006: 30). Overall, 3,717 employees from 28 UK manufacturing organizations participated in this survey. On the other hand, a longitudinal study in the UK private sector, the Workplace Employment Relations Survey (WERS) – from 1998 to 2004 – concluded that HRM policies have only little effect to job satisfaction, unless these policies are characterized as 'high involvement' ones and a 'bundle' of policies are implemented (Brown, Charlwood, Forde, & Spencer, 2007: 46).

Contrary to the evidence provided by the aforementioned studies, a study in the US hotel industry concluded that the various HRM policies provided by hotels' management – especially those ones related to training and development – had statistically significant

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relationship with job satisfaction (Chow, Haddad, & Singh, 2007). In general, the evidence from field studies as far as the effect of HRM practices on employees' job satisfaction is varied and it seems that there is not a strong or direct relationship. However, management policies and practices play a role in determining or at least, influencing, along with other variables, such as organizational structure, interpersonal and employment relationships, the level and quality of job satisfaction.

2.4.4. The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance

Job satisfaction is related with job performance, although this relationship is rather ambiguous. More than twenty years ago, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) provided a meta-analysis of the insofar studies with respect to job satisfaction and job performance and argued that the discovered relationships were weak and not statistically significant, and scientists should regard this presumed relationship as an 'illusionary correlation' (p. 270) or as a 'management fad' (p. 269).

However, Judge et al. (2001) provided another more updated and comprehensive meta-analytic study of this relationship and found seven different models in the relevant research characterizing the job satisfaction/job performance relationship:

Model 1 assumes that job satisfaction causes job performance and this relationship is based on the classic relationship that an attitude has a dependent effect on behaviour.

Model 2 assumes the exactly opposite relationship, i.e., job performance causes job satisfaction. In other words, good performance at work leads to positive results (both for the individual and the organization) and in turn, leads the employee to experiencing satisfaction from the job – this causal relationship is rooted in the Expectancy Theory of Motivation (Vroom, 1964).

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Model 3 identifies a reciprocal relationship between job satisfaction and job performance; however, this model lacks any theoretical underpinning.

Model 4 goes even further, and proposes that the relationship between the two concepts is spurious. For example, organizational commitment and job involvement create a non-significant relationship between job performance and job satisfaction (Keller, 1997), and the same effect occurs when trust in management (Rich, 1997), or participation in decision making (Abdel-Halim, 1983) intervene. However, as Judge et al. (2001) argued, probably these non-significant or spurious relationships detected by the aforementioned studies, were due to the mediating role of these variables to the basic satisfaction-performance relationship.

Model 5 states that the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is moderated by other variables, such as, pay (the main extrinsic reward), intrinsic rewards (job complexity, job boredom, etc.), self-esteem and self-efficacy, various attributions, time pressure, affective disposition, and many other intervening variables.

Model 6 assumes no relationship between job satisfaction and job performance; however, it lacks adequate theoretical and empirical justification.

Model 7 is a mixed one, proposing alternative conceptualisations. For example, the queries raised by many researchers on the actual relationship between satisfaction and performance or on the measurement scales used for job satisfaction, lead some of them, to develop a theory based on emotions and performance, i.e., positive emotions either predict performance or are related to it or are related to employees' motivation.

Other work/organizational psychologists stated that the problems were with job satisfaction. This attitudinal variable has both affective and cognitive components within it, but the tools broadly used for its measurement, tended to be either largely affective or largely cognitive in their nature. Thus, the theoretical conceptualisation of job satisfaction deviated from its practical application. Finally, another area of criticism was with the meaning of job performance, i.e., whether job performance should be equated to focal performance or it

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should additionally include contextual aspects of performance, such as organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) – the contextual performance.

However, Judge et al. (2001) suggested – after an extensive qualitative and quantitative review and two meta-analyses – that the correlation between job satisfaction and job performance was estimated to be 0.30. They concluded that the challenging task for the researchers in this particular area is to re-examine the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, taking in to consideration that it is probably indirect and mediated by other variables (achievement, self-efficacy, goal progress, positive mood, behavioural intentions) or moderated by variables, such as: personality traits, norms, autonomy, aggregation, job characteristics, need for achievement, work centrality, etc. Furthermore, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) presented a meta-analysis on the relationship between job satisfaction and one of its consequences, the job performance and found that on most of the extensively researched instruments (e.g., JDI, MSQ, and JDS), job satisfaction and job performance were not directly and clearly related to each other. In other words, it seems that there is some kind of relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, but the strength of it is questionable, as well as, its direct form of it, i.e., the existence of the attitude causes, creates or even enables, the expression of the behaviour (focal or contextual).

Irrespective on whether a researcher intends to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance either as focal or as contextual performance or as both, the examination is bound *a priori* to consider the attitude–behaviour relationship, i.e., job satisfaction is primarily an attitude and job performance is a behaviour. This means that the existence of any kind of relationship between these two concepts, direct, indirect, moderated, or mediated, would imply that a satisfied employee could, at least, intend to positively perform on his or her job. This knowledge would be essential for HRM specialists and practitioners for the design, organization and implementation of respective HRM strategies

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and policies. Moreover, most of the studies and meta-analyses concluded that job satisfaction appears to predict job performance and this relationship is even stronger for complex or professional jobs (Saari & Judge, 2004).

2.4.5. The facets of job satisfaction and their measurement

Job satisfaction has been treated in various ways throughout the years, although, there were two major schools of theory and analysis. Scarpello and Campbell (1983) provided an assessment of these two schools, calling one as the 'overall/global job satisfaction' school and the other as the 'facets of job satisfaction' school. Their main difference is on the treatment of job satisfaction as global/general feeling measured through one general question (e.g., "are you satisfied with your job?") or as a two-facet variable. The former assumes that job satisfaction is a unidimensional attitude and as such should be researched and measured (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). The latter, treats job satisfaction as an attitude towards a particular job that has both extrinsic and intrinsic features within it, and is based on the *Two-factor Theory of Motivation* by Herzberg (1968). The examination of job satisfaction through these spectacles provides a more holistic approach, considers various aspects of the job that contribute towards a general feeling of satisfaction from the job itself and, by and large, is used by most of the studies in the field (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005).

Based on the 'facets of job satisfaction' school, appropriate measurement scales have been developed. Two of the most frequently and widely used scales are: the MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967) and the JDI (Smith et al., 1969; Smith, Kendall & Hullin, 1975). These two measurement scales have attracted considerable attention to the international bibliography and have been tested in various cultural and organizational environments. In particular, the MSQ has received substantial attention, cross-validation and confirmation in the relevant job satisfaction research - both its complete version (100 items) as well as its short and more

easily applied one (20 items). Over the past 35 years, more than 100 studies used MSQ (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005).

Concluding, therefore, there are many measurements of job satisfaction following the attitudinal approach and the existence of different facets of job satisfaction. Below is a list of some of the most widely used, and for the needs of the current research, the majority of the items were taken from MSQ and few items were taken from the Global Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Warr et al., 1979). By and large, most of the scales developed throughout these years have many similarities in the variables measured for job satisfaction; however, the phrasing of the items, as well as, the measurement scaling tends to be different:

(1) The Job Satisfaction Survey – JSS (Spector, 1985), assessing nine facets of job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work, and communication), as well as, overall satisfaction.

(2) The JDI (Smith et al., 1969), assessing five facets (work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers).

(3) The MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967), assessing twenty facets (activity, independence, variety, social status, supervision and human relations, technical supervision, moral values, security, social service, authority, ability utilization, company policies and practices, compensation, advancement, responsibility, creativity, working conditions, co-workers, recognition, and advancement). This measurement is based on the differentiation between extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction.

(4) The Job Diagnostic Survey – JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), assessing and studying the effects of job characteristics on people. One of its subscales measures job satisfaction, and particularly growth, pay, security, social, supervisor, and general satisfactions.

(5) The JIG (Ironson et al., 1989), measuring overall job satisfaction and is based on the JDI.

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(6) The Global Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Warr et al., 1979) measuring global job satisfaction through its two facets: extrinsic job satisfaction and intrinsic job satisfaction.

2.4.6. Job satisfaction in Greece

Job satisfaction has been investigated in Greece during the last ten years and the relevant studies have focused on its relationship to particular correlates or consequences, such as, stress, burnout and personality traits and characteristics. (cf. Peeters et al., 2005; Togia et al., 2004; Koustelios et al., 2004; Antoniou et al., 2003; Demerouti, Baker, Vardakou, & Kantas, 2003; Nikolaou, 2003; Koustelios, 2001; Nikolaou & Robertson, 2001; Simintiras, Lancaster, & Cadogan, 1997; Kantas & Vasilaki, 1997; Koustelios & Bagiatis, 1997) None of these studies used a job satisfaction measurement scale based on the facets of satisfaction. The only ones, who adopted the facets distinction of job satisfaction were Nikolaou (2003), and Nikolaou and Robertson (2001) by using Warr et al.'s (1979) scale. Job satisfaction has not been used in the Greek research as an independent attitudinal variable, but as a correlate variable to particular personality and behavioural characteristics. Moreover, most of the studies used stress-related scales in order to measure the level and feelings of job satisfaction.

2.4.7. Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment, i.e., the commitment to a particular organization, its goals and objectives, strategies, management policies and procedures, has been defined in the relevant literature as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization, which is characterized by the belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values, the willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, and a desire to maintain membership in the organization (Mowday et al., 1979; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Furthermore, Mueller, Wallace, and Price (1992) define

organizational commitment as the loyalty and intent to stay in the particular organization. In an attempt to include as many definitions and approaches to organizational commitment as possible, we could view it as an attitudinal concept, comprising of: "(1) a desire to maintain membership in the organization, (2) a belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organization, and (3) a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization" (Griffin & Bateman, 1986: 167). In general, Swailes (2002) in his extensive literature review on organizational commitment argues that there is not a single and universally accepted definition, and this was further illustrated in the various ways of measuring the concept.

Furthermore, organizational commitment seems to be culturally bound (as job satisfaction), i.e., it is exhibited differently in different cultural and organizational environments, especially in collectivist and individualist environments. Smith, Fischer, and Sale (2001) on a review of the use of cross-cultural comparisons and researches in industrial and organizational psychology, support the view that organizational commitment could be influenced by culture.

Organizational commitment is a multi-component construct which describes individuals' feelings of attachment to their organization. For the needs of this research we have used Allen and Meyer's (1990) three component model of affective, continuance and normative commitment; employees remain in an organization because they feel they want to, need to or ought to remain, respectively. *Affective commitment* is viewed and felt individually by the employees based on their emotional attachment to the organization; the employee '*wants to be*' to the organization. As far as this form of commitment is concerned, only one study supported the argument that it should be distinguished into two separable emotional components: *joy* (i.e., the happiness arising from the organization) and *love* (i.e., the emotional attraction or affection towards the organization) (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000: 560).

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This study is based on the examination of moods and feelings; however, all other studies examined affective commitment as a uni-dimensional concept.

Continuance commitment is more of a calculative form derived from the individual's ongoing investment in the organization and the availability of alternative employment of similar value (Dunham, Grube, & Castañeda, 1994); the employee '*needs to be*' to the organization. Recently, continuance commitment has been further divided into two distinguishable categories: one is called *high sacrifice* – HISAC – (i.e., the perceived sacrifices associated with leaving from an organization) and the other *low alternatives* – LOALT – (i.e., the lack of alternative employment opportunities) (McGee & Ford, 1987; Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990; Dunham et al., 1994; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Powell & Meyer, 2004; Bentein, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg, & Stinglhamber, 2005).

Normative commitment in contrast, is a cognitive form of commitment, where the employee views commitment as either *moral imperative* (i.e., the 'want' part of normative commitment) or *indebted obligation* i.e., the 'should' part of normative commitment) based on their evaluation of relative individual versus organizational investments (Meyer, 2005; Wasti, 2005a); normative commitment is the employee's '*ought to be*' feeling towards the organization. Further research validated the existence of these two faces of normative commitment (Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006; Luchak & Gellatly, 2007).

For the needs of this research another conceptualization of organizational commitment is used, based on the seminal work of Mowday et al. (1979; 1982) in order to get a more complete picture of organizational commitment and its the hypothesized relationships and to examine another organizational commitment scale, since almost all studies conducted during the last two decades focused on the three scales of commitment by Allen and Meyer. This

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conceptualization argues that there are three components of organizational commitment: organizational identification, job involvement, and loyalty. These three psychological variables or components of organizational commitment have been initially defined by Buchanan (1974) and further elaborated by Cook and Wall (1980) when they developed their own measurement scale called British Organizational Commitment Scale (BOCS). Thus, according to these scientists, organizational identification is "the adoption as one's owns the goals and values of the organization" and loyalty is "a feeling of affection for and attachment to the organization" (Buchanan, 1974: 533). On the other hand, job involvement is "the willingness to invest personal effort as a member of the organization, for the sake of the organization" (Cook & Wall, 1980: 41). The later conceptualization has been initially tested in Greece by Karassavidou and Markovits (1994).

The main theoretical conceptualisations developed with respect to organizational commitment throughout the last forty years are:

(1) Organizational commitment viewed as a three-type involvement behaviour: (a) *calculative*, i.e., an employee behaviour based on the result of a cost and benefit analysis and on calculations made by the individual; (b) *moral*, i.e., a behaviour determined by the employee's ethical obligation to work in an organization; and (c) *alienative*, i.e., a behaviour controlled by the individual's need to work effectively in order to keep his or her job position (Etzioni, 1961). Thus, organizational commitment regarded to be a *behavioural concept*.

(2) Organizational commitment distinguished between two types of commitment: the *behavioural* one (commitment being the result of employees' behaviour toward the organizational environment and its components) and the *attitudinal* one (commitment as the result of employees' attitude toward the organization) (Salancik, 1977). This approach attempts to define commitment simultaneously as *attitude and behaviour*.

(3) Organizational commitment viewed as a behavioural concept, comprising of three main forms: *organizational identification, job involvement*, and *organizational loyalty*. This

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approach suggests that there are work experiences and employee behaviours at work influencing the level of organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Mowday et al., 1979; Cook & Wall, 1980).

(4) Organizational commitment examined as having three distinguishable and separable forms: (a) *affective commitment* – the emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization (i.e., the individual wants to be in an organization), (b) *continuance commitment* – the costs associated with leaving the organization (i.e., the individual needs to be in an organization), and (c) *normative commitment* – the employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organization (i.e., the individual ought to be in an organization) (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer et al., 1993). A study in Belgium attempted to refine the three-dimensional typology of organizational commitment by supporting that the forms of organizational commitment are four: *affective commitment, continuance commitment, internalisation*, and *compliance* (Delobbe & Vandenberghe, 2000). However, this study has not been yet validated by other confirmatory or longitudinal works, and in the relevant literature the most prevailing conceptualisation is the one supporting the three dimensions of organizational commitment, dividing continuance commitment into *low alternatives* and *high sacrifices* (Powell & Meyer, 2004).

2.4.8. Organizational commitment: Behaviour or attitude?

The two major distinctions in organizational commitment research are between the 'attitudinal' and the 'behavioural' approach to commitment. The 'behavioural' approach views organizational commitment as the engagement with behaviours that make it costly to subsequently reverse a position or disengage from some line of activity (Salancik, 1977), whereas, the "attitudinal" approach divides organizational commitment mainly between its 'affective' and its 'continuance' (or 'calculative') parts. Further added to the 'attitudinal' typology was the 'normative' commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). At times, continuance

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commitment has also been associated with the 'behavioural' approach and organizational commitment was seen as a three-construct concept and not as three or four distinct commitments (Mowday et al., 1982).

The main difference among the alternative interpretations of commitment is on whether it is a *uni-dimensional* variable comprised of constructs or it is a *multi-dimensional* variable with clearly distinguishable forms. In other words, it seems to be an agreement that organizational commitment is, by and large, a job- or organization-related attitude; however, there is disagreement whether we have one or more than one commitment.

2.4.9. Measurement scales of organizational commitment

Based on these theoretical typologies of organizational commitment the most common, extensively and widely used measurements for commitment – which will also be used in the present research, are:

(a) British Organizational Commitment Scale (BOCS), modelled upon OCQ and taken under consideration Buchanan's (1974) typology. It has three subscales: identification with the organization, involvement to work, and loyalty or desire to stay (Cook & Wall, 1980).

(b) Organizational Commitment Scales (OCS) having three distinguishable forms: Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) and Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) (Meyer et al., 1993). The later, is further divided into two sub-scales, the LOALT and the HISAC one (Powell & Meyer, 2004).

2.4.10. Antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) produced a large body of work and literature review on organizational commitment, based on the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday et al., 1982). They developed an impressive diagram and classification of antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment, where the antecedents were: various personal characteristics, role states, job and organizational characteristics, and group/leader relations. On the other hand, the consequences of experiencing organizational commitment were: job performance, such as, others' ratings, output measures, perceived job alternatives, intention to search and leave, attendance, lateness, and turnover. However, this work is rather outdated since it could not take under consideration Meyer and his colleagues work on organizational commitment.

On the other hand, Meyer et al. (2002) filled the gap in the relevant literature, by publishing a meta-analytic study on organizational commitment based on Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component model of commitment (affective, continuance, and normative commitment). The affective committed employee wants to work, because he or she likes the job and the organization; the continuance committed needs to work as a result of few job alternatives; and, the normative committed believes that he or she ought to work as part of job duty and obligation. They concluded that the main antecedent variables to organizational commitment were: demographic variables (age, gender, education, organizational tenure, position tenure, and marital status), individual differences (locus of control, self-efficacy), work experiences (organizational support, transformational leadership, role ambiguity and conflict, interactional, distributive and procedural justice, and alternatives or investments (transferability of education or of skills).

As far as the outcomes are concerned, Meyer et al. (2002) identified the following: turnover and withdrawal cognition, absenteeism, job performance, OCB, stress and work-family conflict. All organizational commitment components had negative correlations with turnover and withdrawal cognitions: affective commitment ($\rho = -.17$ and $\rho = -.56$); normative commitment ($\rho = -.16$ and $\rho = -.33$); continuance commitment ($\rho = -.10$ and $\rho = -.18$). As far as the correlation with absenteeism was concerned, only affective commitment had significant correlation ($\rho = -.15$). Affective commitment and normative commitment correlated positively with job performance ($\rho = .16$ and $\rho = .06$), whereas negatively with continuance commitment ($\rho = -.07$). Organizational citizenship behaviour correlated positively only with affective commitment and normative commitment ($\rho = .32$ and $\rho = .24$). Finally, affective commitment correlated negatively with stress ($\rho = -.21$) and with work-family conflict ($\rho = -.20$). On the other hand, only continuance commitment had positive correlation with the aforementioned variables ($\rho = .14$ and $\rho = .24$). Meyer et al. (2002) reached an overall conclusion that the results from the various field works were varied among different countries and cultures, still not too many in order to draw more positive and firm arguments, and in some cases, the correlations between organizational commitment and its antecedents and consequences were modest.

Riketta (2002) reported in his meta-analysis that the affective organizational commitment (AOC) measured either by the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) or the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) had weak correlation with job performance (the mean corrected correlation of AOC with job performance was $r = .20$). The AOC was a better predictor of performance when the later was measured by self-reports ($r = .24$) than through supervisor ratings ($r = .19$) and when extra-role performance was predicted ($r = .25$) rather than the intra-role performance ($r = .18$). Finally, Lok and Crawford (2001) found that the organizational subculture, the employees' age and job tenure influence the level

of organizational commitment. Particularly, innovative subcultures had positive effect on commitment, whereas, bureaucratic subcultures had negative effects.

Allen and Meyer (1990) maintained that affective and continuance commitment had significant relationships with many antecedents, whereas, this was not the case with normative commitment. Clugston, Howell and Dorfman (2000) reported in their study that cultural socialization is another important antecedent to organizational commitment. For example, power distance was significantly related to affective commitment (b = .22), continuance commitment (b = .22) and normative commitment (b = .26); and uncertainty avoidance to affective commitment (b = .26) and continuance commitment (b = .26). Also, Wasti (2002) supporting, the line of cultural specificity of organizational commitment, found that apart from affective commitment; continuance commitment should be examined in a non-western, non-individualistic society. She found that the antecedents of continuance commitment were generalized norms for loyalty, approval of employees' in-group, perceived lack of alternatives and investments in the organization. As far as the outcomes of continuance commitment were concerned, continuance commitment was related with lower levels of turnover intentions and work withdrawal. These results were specific and particular to the Turkish collectivist society.

With respect to the specific commitment variables, affective commitment accounted for consequences such as, search intentions and turnover intentions in Nepalese organizations, whereas, continuance and normative commitment were both explained by job characteristics, i.e., by the perception of the job as interesting (Gautam, van Dick & Wagner, 2001). Snape and Redman (2003), argued that the occupational withdrawal cognitions of the UK HRM specialists were negatively related to affective and continuance commitment, whereas, normative commitment was negatively related to these withdrawal cognitions only when continuance commitment was low. Furthermore, Udo, Guimaraes and Igbaria (1997) found

that organizational commitment was the most immediate determinant of intention to stay and, on the other hand, job satisfaction had indirect effects on intention to stay through the effect on organizational commitment.

A study which has been concentrated on the antecedents of only two dimensions of organizational commitment, i.e., continuance commitment and value commitment argued that there were eight antecedents of organizational commitment: tenure, retirement benefits, education, age, participation, prestige, job involvement and role ambiguity (Mayer & Schoorman, 1998).

Finally, the examination of the relationship between organizational commitment and job performance revealed that: affective commitment is positively related to job performance, whereas, continuance commitment is negatively related (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989). However, in another field study, with hospital employees in the United States, Somers and Birnbaum (1998) discovered that both affective, and continuance commitment are unrelated to specific measurements of job performance, expressed as prosocial behaviours (task proficiency, performance beneficial to organization, performance detrimental to organization). Also, a study in a Jordanian organizational context (Suliman & Iles, 2000) suggested that all three forms of organizational commitment are positively related to employees' job performance, as measured by their supervisors on the basis of work duties, work skills, desire to work, quality of work, and quantity of work. As it could be seen, the relationships of the commitment forms to job performance are not clear and, in general, tend to follow the variety of relationships discovered between job satisfaction and job performance. The rather unclear relation between attitudes and behaviours could explain this tendency, since organizational commitment is principally an attitude and job performance is behaviour. Also, the obscurity of this relationship could stem from the definitions and measurements used for job performance, i.e., the difference between focal performance and

contextual performance, or the difference when job performance is assessed by the supervisor or is self-reported.

2.4.11. Organizational commitment in Greece

As far as organizational commitment is concerned, the relevant literature search traced only three papers: The first one used a general organizational setting tool called ASSET, measuring occupational stress and organizational commitment attitudes towards organizational change (Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005). The second paper is by Bourantas and Papalexandris (1992), which examined the differences on organizational commitment of managers between Greek private and public organizations, between quasi-public and public organizations, and between quasi-public and private organizations. The authors argued that both the type and size of an enterprise affects the organizational commitment of managers and the scale used for this study is the OCQ by Mowday et al. (1979). The third paper was a comparative work on organizational commitment among European Union officers from 13 European Union member states. Vandenberghe, Stinglhamber, Bentein & Delhaise (2001) examined the cross-cultural validity of commitment in Europe and found that "employees from individualistic European countries displayed higher levels of continuance commitment to their organization and occupation, and employees from countries scoring high on the masculinity dimension exhibited stronger levels of affective commitment to Europe (p. 343). However, this study has two important limitations:

(a) European Union officers are, in general, highly educated, multi-cultural and focused more towards Europe and its values, than focused towards national values of each member state.

(b) Only 570 officers representing thirteen different countries answered the specific questionnaire.

2.4.12. Regulatory focus

The *Regulatory Focus Theory* is developed by Higgins (1997), arguing that the idea of self-regulation (the process of individuals alignment with appropriate goals and objectives that fit with their own values and abilities) shall be extended to the self-regulation with a *promotion focus* (managing personal work-related accomplishments and aspirations) and the self-regulation with a *prevention focus* (securing job-related safety and working towards implementing pre-determined responsibilities). This means that the self-regulatory states will be different for individuals characterized as promotion or prevention focused ones. These are self-regulation with promotion focus, wherein the individual regulates behaviour in line with their personal work-related accomplishments and aspirations, and self-regulation with prevention focus, wherein a focus on securing job-related safety and working towards implementing pre-determined responsibilities dominates. Regulatory focus varies from promotion to prevention across situations (Neck & Houghton, 2006: 282). "With a promotion focus, the state should be eagerness to attain advancements and gains... with a prevention focus, should be vigilance to assure safety and nonlosses" (Higgins, 1998: 27). To construct a more concrete picture of the functioning of promotion focus and prevention focus, Higgins (1997) developed structural relationships between different sets of psychological variables (the inputs) and personal outcomes (the outputs). Promotion and prevention focus determine the output, according to the specific input. For example: nurturance needs, strong ideals and gain-non-gain situations shall induce promotion focus and from this, sensitivity to presence or absence of positive outcomes and approach as strategic means are yielded. On the other hand, security needs, strong oughts, non-loss-loss situations, shall induce prevention focus and from this, sensitivity to absence or presence of negative outcomes and avoidance as strategic means are yielded.

The Regulatory Focus Theory complemented the *Self-determination Theory* (SDT), which was developed twenty years ago by Deci and Ryan (1985). According to the SDT, employee's motivation at work was an intention to act. This intention is initiated either externally or internally and in effect, different behaviours arise in order to regulate employee motivation. These are:

(i) The intrinsically motivated behaviour.

(ii) The extrinsically motivated behaviour.

The latter, is divided into four forms of regulation:

(a) The externally regulated behaviour (equated to traditional operant conditioning whereby behaviour is controlled by an agent or event external to the subject).

(b) The introjected regulated behaviour (it describes behaviours performed to avoid anxiety or attain ego enhancement).

(c) The identified regulated behaviour (reflects a personal acceptance and valuing of the behavioural goal being pursued).

(d) The integrated regulated behaviour (it occurs when the external regulations are fully assimilated and in congruence with one's other needs and values, although the actions are still extrinsic as they are not performed for their own sake but in pursuit of other outcomes) (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

SDT deals with the perceived locus of causality, i.e., it attempts to provide answers to the question "why is an individual doing this?" (Ryan & Connell, 1989) In contrast, RFT deals with the perceived purpose in one's life, i.e., it attempts to answer the question "what is an individual trying to do?" (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004) This positivist stance that RFT adopts is more closely related to the attitudes and employee expresses during his or her work life. For example, if an employee is trying to minimize risks and losses while he or she is working, then this work-related behaviour influences the attitudes developed with

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respect to work – both job and organizational environment. Later on, there will be further elaboration on this argument, since it is one of the four studies of the current research.

2.4.13. Organizational citizenship behaviour

The concept of *Organizational citizenship behaviour* (OCB) is first introduced in the mid 1980s by Organ (1988) and is the "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization". Later, Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) proposed the "extra-role behaviour" as the behaviour which benefits the organization and is intended to benefit the organization; a behaviour which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations. Also, organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) defined as behaviour that goes beyond the basic requirements of the job; is to a large extent discretionary; and is of benefit to the organization (Lambert, 2006).

Thus, organizational citizenship is the functional, extra-role, pro-social organizational behaviour directed at individual, groups and/or an organization. These are helping behaviours not formally prescribed by the organization and for which there are no direct rewards or punishments. From the above argument, there should be excluded those pro-social behaviours that are prescribed by the organization as performance requirements, and dysfunctional or non-compliant behaviours (Chien, 2004). Organ (1997) suggested that Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) construct of 'contextual behaviours' provided a more tenable definition of OCB. *Contextual behaviours* "do not support the technical core itself so much as they support the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993: 73). This definition is not clouded by any notions of discretion, rewards, or intent of the actor; it only assumes that the

behaviours should support the organizational, social, and psychological environment rather than the technical core.

Furthermore, there is also an argument on whether OCBs are composed of multiple components or form a single and uni-dimensional construct. For example, Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) conceptualized OCB with two dimensions: *altruism* (behaviour targeted specifically at helping individuals) and *generalized compliance* (behaviour reflecting compliance with general rules, norms, and expectations). Organ (1988) identified five dimensions of OCBs: *altruism* (the selfless concern for the welfare of others; the individual helps others who have been absent, or helps others who have very high work loads), *courtesy* (the employee takes steps in order to prevent problems with other workers, or /she does not abuse the rights of others), *civic virtue* (the employee attends meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered as important; the employee keeps abreast of changes in the organization), *conscientiousness* (he or she does not take extra breaks and obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching) and *sportsmanship* (the individual consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters and s/he focuses on what's wrong, rather than the positive side).

Williams and Anderson (1991) proposed a two-dimensional conceptualization of OCB: OCB-I (these are behaviours directed toward individuals and comprising of altruism and courtesy) and OCB-O (these are behaviours directed toward organization and comprising of courtesy, civic virtue, and sportsmanship). A recent meta-analysis conducted by Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, and Woehr (2007) suggested that "current operationalizations of OCB are best viewed as indicators of a general OCB factor..., there is likely little to be gained through the use of separate dimensional measures as opposed to an overall composite measure" (p. 562).

For many years job performance equated to focal performance, however, during the last two decades, organizational psychologists introduced another concept, intending to capture more subtle aspects of performance, such as: helping co-workers, defending organization to external criticisms, improving others' and group's morale, exerting loyal boosterism, etc. Contextual performance is further distinguished from focal performance by defining the former as 'extra-role' performance and the later as 'in-role' performance (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006).

2.5. Brief presentation of the methodology

In order to examine and test the research hypotheses constructed it has been decided to conduct multiple quantitative studies. The traditional stage (the *hypothetico-deductive approach*) for the quantitative analysis has been adopted, i.e., a model was built according to a predefined scientific problem and then research hypotheses were formulated. In that sense, the post-positivist approach was used in order to test specific hypotheses and variables (Creswell, 2003: 18). The examination of these research hypotheses was made through the use of specially prepared and constructed written questionnaires. These questionnaires were distributed to various samples of employees from the private and public sectors in Greece and the respondents' responses were enhanced by filling up the blank boxes besides each written statement (multiple response questions). The questionnaires were structured ones and the format used was the Likert type of answering the typed statements. The questionnaires have been already tested in other mainly Anglo-American studies and have been found to be reliable and valid. However, appropriate adaptations and modifications were made, wherever needed, to the statements, or the total number of statements used per measurement scale, or to the total number of answering options offered to the respondents. For example, all scales had a 7-point Likert type of answering, whereas, other researchers adopted 5-point or 3-point Likert systems. All statements were translated into Greek and a bilingual teacher examined

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the internal validity of the scales, by warranting that each individual statement was interpreted by her in the same way, being written in English or in Greek.

In order to overcome some of the questionnaires' weaknesses, i.e., accuracy, precision and superficiality, the following solutions adopted:

▪ Existing questionnaires were used that have been tested in various cultural environments.

▪ The respondents were encouraged to answer the questionnaire wherever they wanted, without feeling stressed or threatened or even unintentionally influenced by their supervisor, their co-worker or the researcher himself.

To secure the reliability of the chosen scales, Cronbach's α coefficient (Cronbach, 1951) was calculated for all questionnaire's items, subscales and scales. All items/statements were given to a bilingual teacher of English language for cross-checking their internal validity. Finally, it needs to be pointed out that since only structured questionnaires with self-reported statements were used, this by itself raised concerns for common method variance. Moreover, also towards this approach was the development of research hypotheses that, by and large, argued for interaction effects, and as a result, the effect of common method variance was minimized for the interpretation of the results obtained from the relevant statistical analyses (Evans, 1985; McClelland & Judd, 1993).

2.5.1. Questionnaires' design

In order to test the research hypotheses, as well as the questions stemming from them, we constructed self-reported questionnaires. These questionnaires had various parts, each one aiming to examine specific areas of the research by building relevant hypotheses:

- The job satisfaction scale was based to the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967), on Warr, Cook and Wall (1979) and on Arvey, Abraham, Bouchard, and Segal (1989).

- The initial organizational commitment scale was mainly based on the British Organizational Commitment Questionnaire – BOCS (Cook & Wall, 1980). However, items were taken from the questionnaires of Lawler and Hall (1970), Buchanan (1974), and Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979).

- For the needs and the requirements of this research another organizational commitment measurement (the Affective Commitment – ACS, Continuance Commitment – CCS, Normative Commitment Scales – NCS) is used (Meyer et al., 1993) in order to measure its relevance and correlation with the previously researched commitment scales. This scale was further expanded by adding three more items to the Continuance Commitment Scale, taken from Powell and Meyer (2004) – see Study 4. Furthermore, since this scale of organizational commitment is the mostly used one on the international studies on commitment (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005) it has been used to examine most of the research hypotheses of the present research.

- The OCB scale measuring interpersonal helping, individual initiative, personal industry, and loyal boosterism (Moorman & Blakely, 1995) was used for study 4.

- The promotion focus/prevention focus scale – based on the Regulatory Focus Theory (RFT) – was constructed in order to examine specific hypotheses relating job satisfaction and organizational commitment with promotion and prevention focus as a moderator parameter (the items were taken from Lockwood, Jordan and Kunda (2002) – the initially designed scale has seven statements for scale, and we used only five per scale, since the other two measure foci with respect to academic/school performance and goals).

- As a control variable for two out of the four studies the positive affectivity/negative affectivity Scale (PANAS) was used (the items were taken from Watson, Clark and Tellegen, 1988).

The demographic data requested from the respondents were: gender, age, years of service in the organization, educational level acquired, and hierarchical position in the organization.

All statements requested 'closed-end' responses. The adoption of 'closed-end' responses guaranteed that the respondents found the survey quick and easy in order for them to provide complete answers, restricted them only to the predetermined research issues, and helped them to retrieve the necessary information from their memories (Edwards, Thomas, Rosenfeld & Booth-Kewley, 1997: 25). The drawbacks of this type of questionnaire responses were:

(a) The limited alternatives offered to the respondents to express the variety of personal feelings

(b) The inability to provide a complete answer in case they could not fully understand a question or a statement.

The research managed to overcome these by examining multiple groups on the same basic questionnaire and by placing as many statements as we could for each one measurable variable. Moreover, the adoption of the 7-point Likert type of answering scale offered an acceptable and extended choice to the respondents to express their true and unrestricted feelings. For example the satisfaction/dissatisfaction scale had the following alternatives: 1 = I am very dissatisfied, 2 = I am dissatisfied, 3 = I am slightly dissatisfied, 4 = I am not sure, 5 = I am slightly satisfied, 6 = I am satisfied, 7 = I am very satisfied. On the other hand, the agreement/disagreement scale had the following options: 1 = Strong disagreement, 2 = Disagreement, 3 = Slight disagreement, 4 = I am not sure, 5 = Slight agreement, 6 = Agreement, 7 = Strong agreement. The scale measuring the extent of expressing particular feelings over time had these options: 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Few times, 4 = Sometimes, 5 = Frequently, 6 = Most of the times, 7 = Always.

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2.6. The examination of the conceptual framework

In Chapter 1 the whole conceptual framework has been presented both schematically and analytically. This framework could be divided into partial elements which altogether create an integrated and completed schema. Chapters 3 to 6 present and analyze the four partial elements and gradually rebuild the initial conceptual framework. Thus, the first partial framework examines the moderating role of the economic sector on organizational commitment/job satisfaction relationship, i.e., it examines 'when' the economic sector and the type of employment relationship – private sector employees or civil servants – determines the strength and the content of the relationship between these two job-related attitudes. This is important since organizational commitment is a variable that is composed of distinguishable forms, i.e., the affective, the normative, and the continuance, or constructs, i.e., organizational identification, job involvement, and loyalty. On the other hand, job satisfaction is composed of two significant facets, the extrinsic and the intrinsic. This means, that the type and form of employment determine the kind of relationship developed between the forms of commitment and the facets of satisfaction. Chapter 3 develops the relevant research hypotheses and tests the theoretical model through a field study on Greek private and public sector employees.

CHAPTER 3: STUDY 1 – COMMITMENT AND SATISFACTION: HOW THE ECONOMIC SECTOR MODERATES THEIR RELATIONSHIP

3.0. Chapter summary

Employees in the public and private sectors experience different working conditions and employment relationships, and thus, their attitudes toward their job and organizations are different. This is evident for the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and especially the three forms of organizational commitment – affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment – and the two facets of job satisfaction – extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction. Study 1 examined these relationships with respect to the two sectors of the economy (private sector and public sector) in Greece. A sample of 618 employees (258 from private sector and 360 from public sector) answered a structured questionnaire and the results confirmed almost all hypothesized relationships, i.e., that extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction are more strongly related to affective commitment and normative commitment for public sector employees than for private sector ones. The results from the statistical analysis are discussed with respect to the research hypotheses, and directions for future research are proposed.

3.1. The relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been investigated in numerous studies either as concepts where the researchers wanted to find their intercorrelations and interdependencies, or as concepts that were influenced by, or determined, other management variables, such as, leadership forms, trust, motivation, etc. Some of these studies will be reviewed in this section, starting chronologically from the most recent ones. It is noteworthy to mention that the most common measurements for job satisfaction were the MSQ and the

JDI, whereas for organizational commitment they were the OCQ (or its substitute, the BOCS) and the QCS with its three distinguishable parts: the ACS, the NCS and the CCS.

Wasti (2003a) in her work on Turkish employees argued that affective and normative commitment was determined by satisfaction with work and promotion only on individualistic environments. On the other hand, satisfaction with supervisor was an important commitment antecedent on collectivist environments. Meyer et al. (2002) found that there was some correlation between organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the meta-analyses provided. The correlation was not so strong, apart from the correlation between affective commitment and the overall job satisfaction. "This might be attributable to the fact that global satisfaction measures often include items pertaining to satisfaction with the organization itself, or its management" (Meyer et al., 2002: 20).

Yousef (2002; 2001) researched organizational commitment and job satisfaction in an Arab cultural environment and concluded that job satisfaction directly and positively influenced affective and normative commitments and negatively influenced continuance commitment-low perceived alternatives. There was a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Yilmaz (2002) found that salespersons performance determined their level of extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction, which in turns determined the level of affective commitment they felt. Furthermore, the degree of job satisfaction as well as the level of affective commitment influenced the level of continuance commitment.

Kirkman and Shapiro (2001) investigated the relationship of cultural values with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. They concluded that there was a tendency for higher levels of collectivism to be associated with greater job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and a tendency for lower levels of power distance to be associated with higher

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levels of organizational commitment. They found that the variables of collectivism/individualism and power distance, used for cross-cultural comparisons and analyses, influence the levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment employees in different cultures experience. Although, they tried to relate job satisfaction and organizational commitment with some cultural parameters, they did not investigate the interrelationships between the two variables. Lok and Crawford (2001) discovered that there was a positive association between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Delobbe and Vandenberghe (2000) in an extensive study in Belgium, extended Meyer and Allen's multidimensional approach of organizational commitment and argued, among other things, that affective commitment was significantly associated with job satisfaction. Vigoda (2000) found that job satisfaction and organizational commitment were correlated with each other in the Israeli organizational environment.

Nystedt, Sjöberg and Hägglund (1999) in Sweden, used the OCQ and the MSQ to measure organizational commitment and job satisfaction respectively. These concepts were positively correlated and were distinct constructs as seen from the confirmatory factor analysis the researchers have conducted. Taormina (1999) examined Chinese employees from Hong Kong, on organizational commitment and job satisfaction by using OCS and JDI. The analysis proved that there were high correlations between the organizational socialization variables and organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Fletcher and Williams (1996) used the BOCS in order to measure organizational commitment and for job satisfaction the extrinsic and intrinsic scale developed by Warr et al. (1979). The analysis was undertaken in private and public sector organizations in the UK. Organizational commitment and job satisfaction were strongly positively correlated. However, there was a fair degree of intercorrelation between the three subscales of the

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organizational commitment measure (organizational identification, job involvement and loyalty) and even more between the extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction subscales. Cramer (1996) found that job satisfaction and organizational continuance commitment were significantly positively correlated. Job satisfaction affected organizational commitment, indicating that job satisfaction was a less stable variable than organizational commitment.

Karassavidou and Markovits (1994), in a field study of eleven Greek large industrial enterprises, used the MSQ and a Greek partial adaptation of the BOCS in order to measure job satisfaction and organizational commitment (among other concepts, such as, trust and job security). They proved that the aforementioned variables were statistically significant and highly positively correlated between each other and among their subscales (organizational identification, job involvement and loyalty) and facets (extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction). Ostroff (1992) concluded that the correlation and regression analysis supported her initial hypothesis that job satisfaction was related to organizational commitment. Mathieu and Farr (1991) adopted, once again, the MSQ and OCQ measures for job satisfaction and organizational commitment. They concluded that there was evidence for the validity of organizational commitment and job satisfaction measures and all correlations were positive and statistically significant.

Farkas and Tetrick (1989) used structural equation modelling (SEM) and confirmatory factor analysis in a longitudinal study in order to prove that there was a connection between job satisfaction and organizational commitment; commitment being an antecedent of satisfaction. According to the authors, this connection was probably due to the attitudinal nature of both concepts. Brooke, Russell and Price (1988), argued that job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment were moderately intercorrelated. Furthermore, these three concepts assessed distinct attitudinal constructs. Ferris and Aranya (1983) used the OCQ and the questionnaire developed by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972), and concluded that

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there was a strong correlation of organizational commitment with job satisfaction. Cook and Wall (1980), developed the BOCS (as a UK alternative to the OCQ) having three subscales: organizational identification, organizational involvement and organizational loyalty. Their results pointed out that job satisfaction was substantially correlated with all organizational commitment subscales. Finally, Williams and Hazer (1986) found some evidence that job satisfaction predicts organizational commitment, and this in turn, predicts turnover intentions.

As could be derived from the above presentation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, being two important work-related attitudes; exemplify significant intercorrelations, irrespective of the measurement scales used in the various field studies and the cultural and organizational environments under which these studies were conducted. This intercorrelation could be attributed to their attitudinal nature. Thus, it is the intention to treat both concepts has having a bipolar correlation, i.e., one influencing the other, and vice-versa. The aforementioned literature review has shown that job satisfaction and organizational commitment, being both attitudes, are interrelated irrespective of the measurement methods and tools adopted and the samples used for the study. This is important to state, since job satisfaction could be viewed as a global concept or as one composed from various components or facets. On the other hand, organizational commitment (in most of the cases) is examined as composed of different forms or constructs – affective, normative, and continuance being the most widely and commonly used, especially since mid-90's. Concluding therefore, organizational commitment and job satisfaction are interrelated concepts and as such, are so treated in the current research.

3.2. Employees in private and public sector

Research on the distinctions or convergences between private sector and public sector organizations is not uncommon in the theory and practice of the Organizational and

Management Theory, as well as in Work and Organizational Psychology. There are many studies conducted in this area, all of them exemplifying the differences between these two organizational contexts that in effect influence attitudes and work behaviours, managers and employees alike (cf. Boyne, 2002; Cho & Lee, 2001; Goulet & Frank, 2002) or examining and raising methodological and research questions on the similarities and differences between private and public sector organizations, as shown from previous studies in the relevant field (cf. Rainey & Bozeman, 2000). Disappointingly, there are few studies examining either job satisfaction or organizational commitment with respect to the form and type of employment.

In this unit, studies examining differences in employees' attitudes in both sectors are reviewed with respect to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Firstly, as far as job satisfaction is concerned, Solomon (1986) argued that in Israel, performance-based rewards and policies intending to promote efficiency make private sector managers to feel more satisfied with their jobs than the public sector ones, whereas, Karl and Sutton (1998) supported that private sector employees value good wages more, and public sector ones place highest value on interesting work. Naff and Crum (1999) argued that private sector employees in the USA have different values and respond to different incentives than public sector employees. The former experience more extrinsic satisfaction from jobs than the latter and become more committed to organizations. On the other hand, both private and public sector employees receiving intrinsic rewards feel intrinsically satisfied in their jobs and committed to the organizations. A recent study in Australia (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2006) – participants were employees from private and public sector organizations – concluded that the impact on job satisfaction from the ambiguity felt with respect to customers, promotion, superiors, and ethical situations was greater for public sector employees than for private sector ones.

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Moreover, all studies concluded that private and public sector employees proclaim different attitudes toward their jobs and it seems that these differences mainly stem from the form and type of employment relationship; although, these relationships differ from one country to other, thus, no conclusive and strongly supported argument could be developed. The objective differences within a particular country provide researchers with adequate information and knowledge to explain the shown divergences in attitudes between private and public sector employees.

Overall, there are few studies examining either job satisfaction or organizational commitment, or both of them, with respect to the form and type of employment. As it can be seen from the literature review on commitment and satisfaction to the private and public sector, there has been no such empirical evidence on the interplay of these two attitudes between the two different economic sectors that exemplify significant differences concerning employment and cultural issues. This research intends to cover this gap in the relevant bibliography.

3.3. Private and public sector in Greece

In Greece, private and public sectors exemplify substantial differences with respect to: the employment relationships, status, wages, fringe benefits, and human resources issues of their employees. Table 3.1 summarizes some of the most important and significant differences between the private and the public sector employees in Greece (derived from Papapetrou, 2006; Sotirakou & Zeppou, 2005). Unusually, the starting wage for Greek public sector employees is higher than for the private sector, and given its stability of employment and guarantee of pay increases, it is a highly attractive career choice for young Greeks. Private sector employment offers greater potential rewards but at greater risk. Overall, the Greek public sector offers employment and job security to the employee, a rather scheduled

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progression within the organizational hierarchy and a structured and ordered system of HRM policies and practices. Moreover, the intensive political nature of the public sector significantly influences and determines employment relationships and career progressions. On the other hand, the private sector offers opportunities for advancement and career accomplishment. However, the risk is job insecurity and the volatility of private sector enterprises due to intense competition and economic crises. Potentially a private sector employee could earn more money than the public sector one, but in practice, this is a rather rare case and it depends on personal abilities and knowledge and management willingness to praise effort, efficiency, effectiveness and performance. Although, the public sector nowadays tends to embody in its employment relationships forms that exist in the private sector, such as, contracted, part-time, and flexible employment, still the majority of public sector employees have guaranteed life- and full-time employment.

Table 3.1: Private and public sector in Greece

Variables	Private Sector	Public Sector
Loyalty	To the private sector employer	To the government and the State – the new entrant gives an oath to the Greek Constitution
Employment contract	Individual-, company- or sector-based	Government-, regional government, local government-based
Employment status	Contracted employment (mainly fixed term; rarely without time restriction)	Life-time and secured employment
Employee motivation	Varied and mainly related to task performance by providing monetary rewards	In practice non-existent
Type of employment	Full-time, part-time and flexi-time	Predominantly full-time

Variables	Private Sector	Public Sector
Job designs	Determined by management and varied according to size and type of organization – in most of the cases, job descriptions are flexible and informal	Centrally designed and maintained unchanged for a long time – in most of the cases, rather outdated
Hours of work	Mainly 40 hours per week, but varies form sector to sector	37.5 hours per week
Policies and procedures	Determined by each private sector organization	Determined by law and applied to all employees
Wages determination	Individual, enterprise or branch collective agreements – minimum wages are not guaranteed in all of the private sector	National collective agreement – minimum wages are guaranteed everywhere in the public sector
Fringe benefits	Not provided to everyone	Provided to everyone by law and collective agreements

Variables	Private Sector	Public Sector
Wage progression	Determined by each private sector organization (according to merits, achievements, company needs)	Determined by seniority and educational background
Employee evaluation	Rare and, by and large, designed and implemented in large-scale organizations by supervisors and senior management	Typical on a yearly basis and unified in all public sector organizations
Hierarchical progression	Decided by each private sector organization and depends on individual task performance	After 13 years of service, the employee could apply to be appointed departmental head

Variables	Private Sector	Public Sector
Authority relationships	Management controls procedures and employment relationships	Senior management – appointed by employee councils and, by and large, affiliated to government in power – demands loyalty to rules and procedures
Trade unionism	Flexible – rather strong in the manufacturing sector and rather weak in the service and tertiary sector	Rather strong in all public sector organizations

3.4. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment in private and public sector

Differences between the private and the public sector with respect to job satisfaction show that employee attitudes differ between these two groups in interpreting management policies and presenting satisfaction from their jobs (cf. Solomon, 1986; Karl & Sutton, 1998; Naff & Crum, 1999; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2006). With respect to organizational commitment, and its differences between the private and the public sectors, the relevant studies used as measurement scales OCQ or BOCS. In Australia, private sector employees reveal significantly higher levels of commitment than public sector ones (Rachid, 1995; 1994). The author argued that the 'bureaucratic culture' dominating the public sector and the 'culture gap' (Bourantas et al., 1990) between the perceived and the desired organizational culture as experienced by the employees, are responsible for the low levels of organizational commitment.

Fletcher and Williams (1996) examined three public sector and six private sector organizations in the UK and found that organizational commitment is, by and large, greater for the private than the public sector employees, but the results for job satisfaction are inconsistent. In general, there is a common stereotype that public sector employees have lower levels of organizational commitment (Rainey, 1997; Baldwin, 1991; Savery, 1991; Odom, Boxx & Dunn, 1990), however, as Cho and Lee (2001) admitted, this assertion cannot be verified by adequate supportive cross-sector analyses. These authors argued that the organizational culture and the inherent societal values determine the differences on commitment between public and private sector managers in South Korea, although these differences are not significant enough to support the argument that organizational commitment levels are different between the private and the public sector. Also, Goulet and Frank (2002) findings, although not initially expected and hypothesized, supported the view that the lowest levels of organizational commitment are exhibited in the public sector, when employees from three different sectors are examined (public, non-profit and for-profit sectors). The authors explained these findings from the fact that extrinsic rewards (salary, fringe benefits, etc.) are the critical factors to determine the level of commitment, especially in a robust economy.

However, contrary to what someone could expect, Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2003) found that the degree of organizational commitment civil servants experience is related to their implicit psychological contract, i.e., the intrinsic rewards and the relational supportive dimensions of their psychological contracts (a low-cost management policy) has the ability to work as the required motive for effective task performance and brings out the desired employee attitudes and behaviours. This is also evident on Castaing's (2006) empirical study in the French civil service, where Public Service Motivation (PSM) had a substantial effect on affective commitment, implying that if the State hires individuals with high PSM, then there will be a positive effect on organizational commitment in the French civil service. Normative

commitment follows affective commitment on the strength of the effect on PSM, and continuance commitment has the lesser effect from all commitment forms. PSM is defined as "the belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of the larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate" (Vandenabeele, 2007: 547). Camilleri (2006) found in the Maltese civil service that PSM is reinforced and strengthened by organizational commitment, primarily by affective commitment, and secondary by normative commitment. Finally, Cerase and Farinella (2006) produced similar results from the Italian Revenue Service, arguing for the significance of affective commitment on PSM, and to a lesser extent for that of continuance commitment.

Boyne (2002) presented in his meta-analytic study evidence from 34 empirical studies of differences between public and private sector organizations. He pointed out that only three of the totally reviewed studies managed to support the hypothesis that organizational commitment is weaker in public sector than in the private sector; explaining this difference as due to inflexible personnel procedures and the unclear or non-existent connection between task performance and rewards. Furthermore, the author put forward the argument that these antecedents for the low levels of organizational commitment in the public sector are also the same for the low levels of job satisfaction. Thus, a vicious circle is developed here: unclear procedures and connection between performance and rewards, causes poor organizational commitment and job satisfaction, which in turn influences negatively the individual job and the overall organizational performance.

These studies observe that normative commitment (the sense of obligation, duty and loyalty) is more relevant in public than in private sector, due to the nature and content of their explicit employment contract and their implicit psychological contract. Moreover, this difference could be related to the existence of PSM, since the sense of obligation felt on

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normative commitment is closer to the perceptions of PSM that involve a 'calling' or a 'sense of duty' (Steijn & Leisink, 2006). Continuance commitment is important for private sector employees at times of high unemployment and few alternative job opportunities, and rather unimportant for public sector employees due to full-time and secured employment. Furthermore, the more extrinsically satisfying nature of private employment generates greater variation in continuance commitment. As far as affective commitment (the sense of identification and involvement to an organization) is concerned, it is equally variable across private and public sectors – since it depends on the nature of the psychological contract – subjectively and personally translated factors influence its level (Meyer & Allen, 1997: 62).

Furthermore, the relevant literature shows that extrinsic rewards seem to be responsible for differences in the magnitude of organizational commitment between private and public sector. In situations where there is economic prosperity and opportunities for personal and professional development, private sector is more attractive than public sector. Private sector employees are more extrinsically satisfied than civil servants and more organizationally committed (Goulet & Frank, 2002; Young, Worchel, & Woehr, 1998; Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 1990). Economic recession, high unemployment rates and low levels of employment security, produce opposite results: civil servants are more extrinsically satisfied and more committed than private sector employees. Furthermore, intrinsic rewards, as implied from psychological contracts, have the ability to make people feel intrinsically satisfied and committed. If someone feels satisfied (extrinsically and intrinsically) with the job, then he or she becomes committed towards the organization. However, the question is whether this increased commitment is the same for all forms of organizational commitment, i.e., affective, continuance, and normative. Moreover, if someone holds a job, initially presumed to be repetitive and not expected to provide satisfaction to the employee, when it is found that the opposite is true, i.e., the job is extrinsically and intrinsically satisfying, then the employee drastically increases his or her organizational commitment. If an assumption is developed,

following the relevant literature and studies presented, that this is the case for the public sector employees – they are less motivated, more apathetic and conservative to their employment choices and challenges, then the realization of a satisfying organizational environment and job content, would positively influence their level and degree of felt commitment. This could be more evident for those employees entering an organizational environment looking for job security, acceptable wages and aiming towards the satisfaction of basic and primary human needs – probably a typical case of an individual wanting to enter the public sector (cf. Bourantas & Papalexandris, 1999). However, the particular cultural values and societal practices of a country, such as Greece (with high uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, power distance, low performance orientation, etc. coupled with the political, economic, and social conditions) 'create' a different profile for the public sector employee: an individual entering rationally a particular working place and deciding to spend his or her entire working life for one single employer – the State, the Prefectures, or the Municipalities. If an employee is faced with a satisfying job (extrinsically or intrinsically irrespective), then he or she is likely to respond accordingly and positively, i.e., become committed, mainly affectively (feel affection and 'love' for the work or the organization) and normatively (feel a sense of duty and obligation for the organization – the indebted obligation and moral imperative elements of normative commitment). Since this is not the case in the private sector (employment is more volatile and vulnerable to unpredicted changes, employees tend to work for mainly the extrinsic rewards earned, employment conditions and contacts fluctuate from one place to another, and employment status and job positions are guaranteed or secured by anyone), these employees value positively their degree of job satisfaction and felt happiness. However, these employees do not feel, as strongly as their public sector counterparts, committed toward their organizations. This is more evident for the case of normative commitment, where moral imperative and indebted obligation are feelings of 'loyalty', atypical of employees that experience insecure jobs, flexible employment contracts and mediocre wages.

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Furthermore, other studies conducted in the public sector show that HRM practices influence employees' job satisfaction – the existence of work system redesign and the more advanced use of HRM practices enhance job satisfaction (Steijn, 2004); issues of routineness, job goal specificity explain the variance on employees' job satisfaction, especially goal conflict and procedural constraints "have an important detrimental effect on public sector employee job satisfaction" (Wright & Davis, 2003: 84). Also, Cerase and Farinella (2006) in a study within the Italian Revenue Agency found a positive correlation between PSM and job satisfaction, arguing that this points to the 'distinctive prerogatives of civil service'. On the other hand, affective commitment plays a crucial role on influencing and supporting organizational changes in the public sector, particularly the adoption of New Public Reform practices (Maranto & Skelley, 2003); the individual-level variables (task motivation, public service motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, OCB) are important predictors of organizational performance in the public sector (Kim, 2005); and affective commitment is more crucial than continuance commitment in order to motivate public sector employees for better performance levels (Liou & Nyhan, 1994).

Following the literature review and the analysis of other empirical studies conducted in both sectors with respect to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the conceptual framework for Study 1 is presented on Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: The conceptual framework for Study 1

| Organizational commitment and its forms | ← → | Job satisfaction and its facets |

| Private and Public Sector |
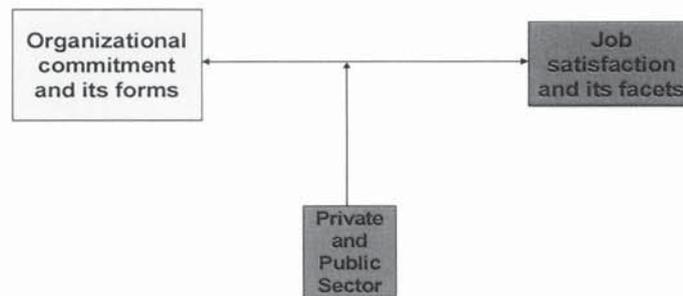
Employees, according to the theory of Perceived Organizational Support (POS), tend to personify the conditions faced during employment and reciprocate this with respect to felt commitment. In fact, POS would create a felt obligation to care about the organization and employees will fulfil this type of indebtedness by increasing their commitment and efforts (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001: 825). This reciprocity norm is also evident on job satisfaction, since employees by being satisfied with their job, they exhibit positive performance at work (Haar & Spell, 2004). Moreover, the Social Exchange Theory (SET) has the ability to predict positive HRM initiatives, including employee commitment, employee motivation and a desire to remain with the organization. Gould-Williams and Davies (2005) found in the UK public sector, specifically in seven local government departments that 58% of the variation in employee commitment is predicted, 53% variation in motivation and 41% of the variance in the desire to remain with the organization. In fact, according to the SET, the stronger the relationship of the individual with the organization, the more the identification, attachment and involvement felt (Van Knippenberg, Van Dick, & Tavares, 2007).

Based on the aforementioned analysis, the following research hypotheses is developed in order to examine the differences between job satisfaction and organizational commitment felt by employees working in the private sector and the public sector. The literature review and the theoretical analysis develop a framework in which relationships among the three forms of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative commitment) and the two sectors of the economy (private sector and public sector) develop two-way interactions, in order to predict job satisfaction and its facets (extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction). The sector itself moderates the relationship between satisfaction and commitment. Thus, the relevant research hypotheses state:

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between the facets of job satisfaction and affective commitment <u>will be stronger</u> for public sector employees than for private sector employees.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between the facets of job satisfaction and normative commitment <u>will be stronger</u> for public sector employees than for private sector employees.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between the facets of job satisfaction and continuance commitment <u>will be stronger</u> for private sector employees than for public sector employees.

3.5. Methodology

This field research is of a quantitative type via self-reported questionnaires. All scales are translated into Greek. For the measurement of job satisfaction an adaptation of the MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967) coupled with items taken from Warr et al. (1979). It answering scale was the 7-point Likert scale, with endpoints, 1 = I am very dissatisfied; and 7 = I am very satisfied. This scale is divided into two subscales (facets); one is the extrinsic satisfaction subscale (e.g., pay, physical conditions, security and safety, policies and procedures) and the other is the intrinsic satisfaction subscale (e.g., creativity, development, achievement,

accomplishment). The total number of statements used was 23; 12 items for extrinsic satisfaction, and 11 items for intrinsic satisfaction. All items are positively worded.

Organizational commitment is measured through Meyer et al.'s (1993) Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) (affective commitment: "Want to stay"), Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) (normative commitment: "Ought to stay") and Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) (continuance commitment: "Need to stay"). All items are measured in 7-point Likert scale, with endpoints, 1 = Complete disagreement; and 7 = Complete agreement. The total number of statements is: 6 for affective commitment; 6 for continuance commitment; and 6 for normative commitment. There are three negatively worded statements in the ACS ("I do not feel a strong sense of 'belonging' to my organization"; "I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization"; and "I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization") and one in the NCS ("I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer"). The responses to these statements are reversed.

PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) is used as a control variable, measuring positive affect and negative affect – also in 7-point Likert scale, with endpoints, 1 = Never; and 7 = Always. This scale is an affective personality characteristic considering positive and negative moods and feelings and relating them to organizational and job conditions and circumstances and has 10 words for positive affectivity and 10 for negative affectivity.

3.6. Descriptive statistics of the demographics

The sample is 618 employees (258 from private sector firms in Northern Central Greece and 360 from public sector organizations from Northern Greece). The sample were approached either in their place of work (the private sector employees) or in the case of public sector employees at work or when they participated at vocational training programmes

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organized by the Institute of Training, National Centre of Pubic Administration and Local Government. All respondents completed the questionnaire anonymously and voluntarily. The response rate was 63%. As far as the demographic characteristics of the sample:

50.1% are males and 49.9% females; the mean age of the whole sample – both private and public sector employees – is 36 years old; the educational level: 23.3% completed the Secondary Education, 24.6% attended a Technological Educational Institute, 44.8% are University graduates, and 7.3% have undertaken some form of Postgraduate studies; 44.5% work up to 6 years to the current organization, 24.4% from 7 to 12 years, 16.5% from 13 to 21 years, and 14.6% work for more than 22 years; 83.8% are non-supervisory employees and the remaining departmental supervisors.

3.7. Descriptive statistics of the variables

The mean values for the variables used for this study show that, by and large, the integrated sample of private and public sector employees are satisfied with their jobs and committed to their organizations. Intrinsic satisfaction and affective commitment have the higher mean values than the other facet of satisfaction and forms of commitment. The measurement of moods has shown, as expected, that positive affectivity has high mean value; whereas, negative affectivity a low mean value (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Descriptive statistics of the variables (Study 1)

Variable	N	Min	Max	m	s.d.
JS	618	1.65	6.78	4.71	.96
ES	617	1	7	4.64	1.01
IS	618	2	7	4.78	1.08
AC	618	1	7	4.69	1.28
CC	618	1	7	4.66	1.00
NC	617	1	7	4.28	1.26
PA	600	3	9	5.09	.78
NA	598	1	7	2.81	.72

3.8. Correlation and reliability analysis

Job satisfaction is strongly and positively correlated with its facets, affective commitment and normative commitment. It is also significantly positively correlated with positive affect and negatively correlated with negative affect. The same correlations apply for job satisfaction facets – extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction. Affective commitment and normative commitment are significantly positively correlated with positive affect and significantly negatively correlated with negative affect. Affective commitment and normative commitment are strongly correlated, whereas, continuance commitment is weakly correlated with the other two forms of organizational commitment. As expected, positive affect is negatively correlated with negative affect. Finally, the economic sector is negatively correlated with affective commitment, continuance commitment and positive affect, meaning that it is stronger for public sector employees than the private sector ones. As far as the reliability measurement of the questionnaire's variables used for this examination, all, apart from one variable, have high reliability coefficients. The only one is continuance

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commitment, which is this variable that seemed to be difficulty interpreted and understood in other languages than English. All correlations and reliabilities are shown on Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Correlation and reliability analysis (Study 1)

	α	JS	ES	IS	AC	CC	NC	PA	NA
JS	.91								
ES	.84	.92**							
IS	.88	.92**	.69**						
AC	.84	.57**	.50**	.56**					
CC	.59	.02	.05	-.01	.08*				
NC	.79	.48**	.44**	.45**	.70**	.25**			
PA	.82	.13**	.11**	.14**	.16**	-.04	.16**		
NA	.81	-.12**	-12**	-.11**	-.08	.08	-.01	-.30**	
i[1]		.04	.07	.03	-.08*	-.13**	.08	-.08*	.05

Notes: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

As far as the correlation of the variables with the demographics is concerned, there are some significant correlations, although rather weak, of gender with job satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and affective commitment (negative correlations), and of age with intrinsic satisfaction, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment (positive correlations). All correlations are shown in Table 3.4.

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[1] i = sector, where 0 is for public sector and 1 is for private sector

Table 3.4: Correlations between variables and demographics (Study 1)

	GENDER	AGE	EDUC
JS	-.09*	.05	.03
ES	-.12**	-.01	.01
IS	-.04	.10*	05
AC	-.13**	.20**	03
CC	.03	.24**	.02
NC	-.07	.14**	-.06

Notes: N = 618 ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level; Gender: 1=male, 2=female; Age: 1= 22-35; 2= 36-45; 3=46-59; 4=60+; Educational background: 1=High school; 2=Technical school graduate; 3=University graduate; 4=Postgraduate

3.9. Analyses of the hypotheses

In order to test the research hypotheses hierarchical regression analysis is used and regression lines are drawn. Dependent variables for this study are the forms of organizational commitment (affective, normative, and continuance). Control variables (z-standardized) affect (positive and negative), gender, age, and education are included along with the predictor variables of satisfaction facets (extrinsic and intrinsic) and sector at step 1. The interaction between sector and satisfaction was captured at step 2 by entering the product of facet satisfaction and sector. Table 3.5 shows the results of these analyses for affective commitment and extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction. The interaction term is significant; b = .27, p < .01 for extrinsic satisfaction and b = .30, p < .01 for intrinsic satisfaction.

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Table 3.5: Hierarchical regression analysis for affective commitment and extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction (Study 1)

| | Affective commitment | | | |
| | Step 1 | | Step 2 | |
	b^2	SE b^3	b	SE b
Extrinsic satisfaction	.30**	.58	.28**	.06
Intrinsic satisfaction	.44**	.54	.35**	.06
Sector	-.15	.11	-1.41**	.39
Positive affectivity	.11**	.04	.13**	.04
Negative affectivity	.02	.04	.02	.04
Gender	-.09*	.04	-.09*	.04
Age	.11	.06	.11*	.06
Educational background	-.08	.05	-.08	.05
Sector * Extrinsic satisfaction[4]			.27**	.08
Sector * Intrinsic satisfaction			.30**	.08
R^2	.38		.39	
Adjusted R^2	.37		.38	

Notes: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, N = 618, Sector = private/public Sector

By using Aiken and West (1991) and Dawson and Richter (2006) analyses and statistical – interpretation models, the simple slopes for private and public sector employees are tested to determine the nature of interactions for affective commitment (see Table 3.6). In line with Hypothesis 1 (H1), affective commitment is strongly and positively related to

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[2] b = b coefficient
[3] SE b = Standard error of b
[4] The interaction effect

extrinsic satisfaction for public sector respondents (b = .63, p <.01), while the relationship between affective commitment and extrinsic satisfaction is weaker for private sector respondents (b = .36, p <.01) (see Figure 3.2). The same applies for the relationship between affective commitment and intrinsic satisfaction: it is strongly and positively related for public sector respondents (b = .66, p <.01), whereas, this relationship is weaker for private sector employees (b = .35, p <.01) (see Figure 3.3).

Table 3.6: Simple slopes for affective commitment (Study 1)

Affective commitment	Slope	T
Extrinsic satisfaction	.76	191.14**
Intrinsic satisfaction	.82	216.11**

Note: ** p < .01

Figure 3.2: Regression lines for extrinsic satisfaction and affective commitment
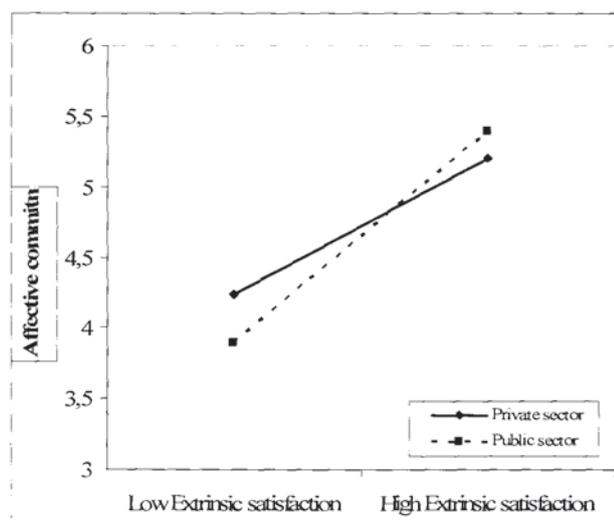
Figure 3.3: Regression lines for intrinsic satisfaction and affective commitment
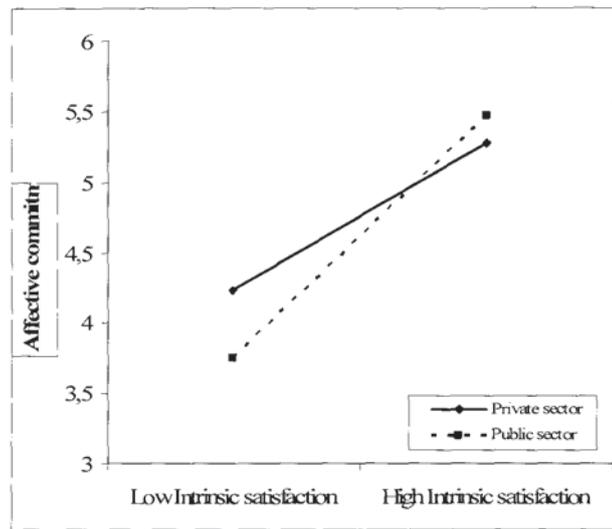
The second set of analyses related to the testing of Hypothesis 2 (H2) and the hierarchical regression analyses are for normative commitment and the two facets of job satisfaction (see Table 3.7). Again, the control variables are the same as previously and z-standardized before they entered into the regression analysis. In both analyses, the interaction term is significant; b = .37, p < .01 for extrinsic satisfaction and b = .42, p < .01 for intrinsic satisfaction.

Table 3.7: Hierarchical regression analysis for normative commitment and extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction (Study 1)

	Normative commitment			
	Step 1		Step 2	
	B	SE B	B	SE B
Extrinsic satisfaction	.33**	.06	.30**	.06
Intrinsic satisfaction	.28**	.06	.15*	.06
Sector	.08	.11	-1.68**	.41
Positive affectivity	.16**	.05	.18**	.05
Negative affectivity	.10*	.05	.09	.05
Gender	.01	.05	.01	.05
Age	.18**	.06	.17**	.06
Educational background	-.12*	.05	-.12*	.05
Sector * Extrinsic satisfaction			*.37** *	.08
Sector * Intrinsic satisfaction			*.42** *	.09
R^2	.27		.30	
Adjusted R^2	.26		.28	

Simple slopes for private and public sector employees are tested to determine the nature of interactions for normative commitment (see Table 3.8). In line with Hypothesis 2 (H2), normative commitment is strongly and positively related to extrinsic satisfaction for public sector respondents (b = .54, p <.01), while the relationship between normative commitment and extrinsic satisfaction is clearly weaker for private sector respondents (b = .19, p <.01) (see Figure 3.4). The same applies for the relationship between normative commitment and intrinsic satisfaction: it is strongly and positively related for public sector respondents (b = .53, p <.01), whereas, this relationship is clearly weaker for private sector employees (b = .11, p <.01) (see Figure 3.5).

Table 3.8: Simple slopes for normative commitment (Study 1)

Normative commitment	Slope	T
Extrinsic satisfaction	.72	181.32**
Intrinsic satisfaction	.82	216.11**

Note: ** p < .01

**Figure 3.4: Regression lines for extrinsic satisfaction and normative commitment**
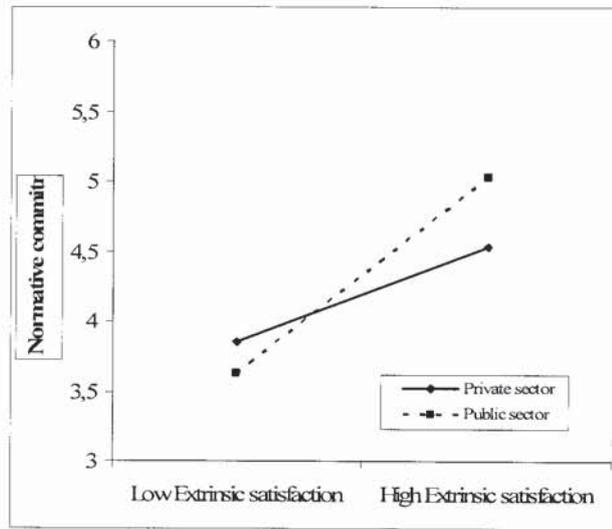
Figure 3.5: Regression lines for intrinsic satisfaction and normative commitment
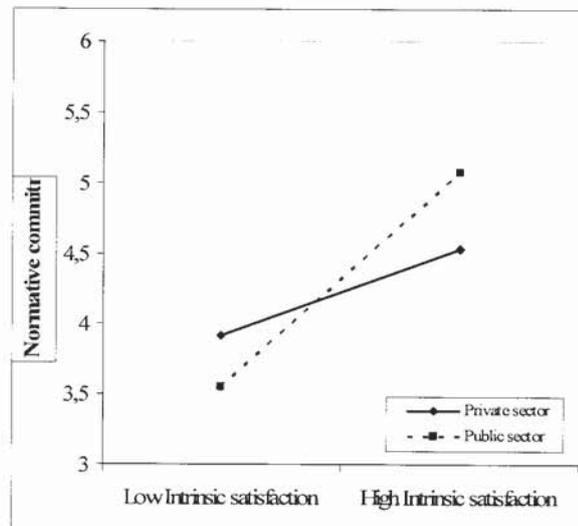
The final sets of hierarchical regression analyses are for continuance commitment and extrinsic satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction in order to test Hypothesis 3 (H3) (see Table 3. 9). The same methodology is used as in the other two cases and the interaction term is significant, $b = .16$, $p < .05$ only for intrinsic satisfaction.

Table 3.9: Hierarchical regression analysis for continuance commitment and extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction (Study 1)

| | Continuance commitment | | | |
| | Step 1 | | Step 2 | |
	B	SE B	B	SE B
Extrinsic satisfaction	.18**	.05	.17**	.05
Intrinsic satisfaction	-.15**	.05	-.20**	.06
Sector	-.07	.10	-.69	.47
Positive affectivity	-.03	.04	-.02	.04
Negative affectivity	.06	.04	.06	.04
Gender	.10*	.04	.10	.04
Age	.21**	.06	.21**	.06
Educational background	-.06	.04	-.06	.04
Marital status	-.02	.05	-.02	.05
Number of children	.15**	.05	.16*	.05
Sector * Extrinsic satisfaction			.13	.08
Sector * Intrinsic satisfaction			*.16**	.08
R^2	.11		.12	
Adjusted R^2	.10		.10	

The only simple slope for private and public sector employees is for the nature of interaction for continuance commitment with respect to intrinsic satisfaction (see Table 3.10). Continuance commitment is negatively related to intrinsic satisfaction for public sector respondents (b = -.02, p <.01), while the relationship between continuance commitment and intrinsic satisfaction is stronger negatively related to private sector respondents (b = -.18, p <.01) (see Figure 3.6). Hypothesis 3 (H3) supported that the relationship is stronger for private sector employees than for public sector employees for both job satisfaction facets. The analysis shows that significant results could be only extracted for intrinsic satisfaction, thus, H3 is not fully supported, and the relationship between continuance commitment and intrinsic satisfaction is negative – as private sector employees increase their intrinsic satisfaction levels from their job, continuance commitment towards the organization decreases. For public sector employees, this relationship remains broadly unchanged. Thus, H3 is not fully supported, and furthermore, the statistical analysis reveals a new interesting relationship – the more intrinsically satisfied the employees are, the less continuance commitment they feel.

Table 3.10: Simple slope for continuance commitment (Study 1)

Normative commitment	Slope	t
Intrinsic satisfaction	.06	17.42**

Note: ** p < .01

Figure 3.6: Regression lines for intrinsic satisfaction and continuance commitment
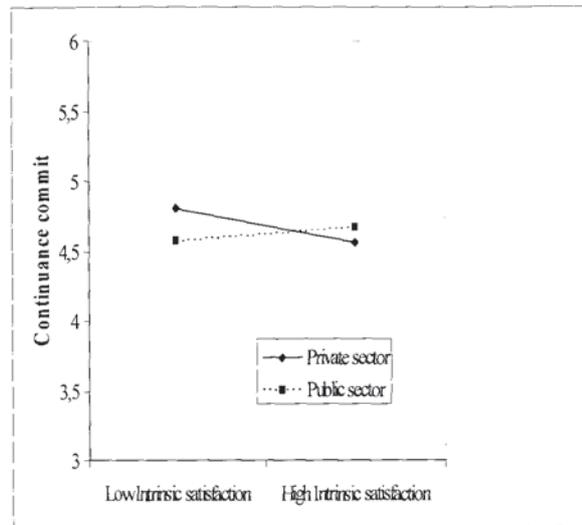
3.10. Discussion of the results

The first two sets of research hypotheses developed are supported by the data collected and the field study shows that the employment relationship and the type of employment a person has determines the job satisfaction/organizational commitment relationship. In other words, public sector employees have a stronger relationship between extrinsic or intrinsic satisfaction and affective commitment, and between extrinsic or intrinsic satisfaction and normative commitment, than private sector employees.

The results from this study show that the forms of commitment relate differently to the facets of satisfaction according to the type and form of employment an employee is engaged in. In other words, employment moderates the relationship between the two job-related attitudes. Public sector employees seem to value more the "ought to" forms of organizational commitment – the moral imperatives and indebted obligations to the organization – than private sector employees, in order to feel satisfied from their job – both extrinsically and intrinsically. On the other hand, this is not the case for the form of commitment based on

alternatives and sacrificed investments. The analysis of continuance commitment proves that this form of commitment is negatively related to intrinsic satisfaction – as it increases, intrinsic satisfaction decreases. This result could be explained from the dual nature of continuance commitment, i.e., continuance commitment expressed as high sacrifices (HISAC) or as low alternatives (LOALT). This might mean for the civil servants that the sacrifice of their current position if they decide to move elsewhere, would be highly valued for them; then, by deciding to stay in the organization, their intrinsic interest for the job is lost and satisfaction is decreased. This explanation of this result, could be related to the hypothesis developed on Study 3, i.e., that prevention focus relates more strongly to continuance commitment than promotion focus, assuming that civil servants are more prevention focused than employees working for private sector organizations. The argument that the former tend to be more "conservative" and tend to be on the safer and less risky edge of life, is supported by a relevant European project on civil servants (Demmke, 2005). Private sector employees, on the other hand, marginally increase their continuance commitment as they feel more intrinsically satisfied. Finally, affective commitment increases more for the public sector employees than to private sector ones as these employees become more extrinsically and intrinsically satisfied.

3.11. Implications and further research

The results lead to the following conclusions and implications for human resource managers, policy-makers and practitioners. Public sector and private sector employees work under different organizational and employment contexts and these differences influence their job attitudes. In particular the nature of rewards and the values placed upon them appear significant. When extrinsic and intrinsic satisfactions increase, public sector employees tend to develop greater affective and normative commitment toward their organizations than do private sector employees.

Public sector employees enter into organizational environments which are not expected to promote creativity and change, which operate as typical bureaucracies and tend to value procedure, formality and impersonal relationships. Whenever they experience satisfaction from their jobs and the internal environment, either from the extrinsic satisfactions generated by the organization, or intrinsic satisfactions experienced by them, then their stereotypical image of public sector organization collapses. They become more positively disposed to the organization and feel committed, involved and loyal towards it. As such, by creating a healthy workplace, a supportive environment, and by providing extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, the public sector employee will generously return these to the State or local government employer, through enhanced commitment and associated organizational consequences of that commitment. In other words, the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the public sector is more affective than cognitive.

On the other hand, private sector employees are more rationalists in their employment choices, beliefs and attitudes. They know what they should expect from their private sector management, they know what is offered in return for their work and they can, more or less, predict their promotion opportunities. Thus, if they experience a satisfying job and are happy in the workplace, they will increase their commitment to the organization but more conservatively than the public sector employees as it only aligns with their initial expectations. The relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment for the private sector employees is more cognitive than affective.

The results and conclusions drawn from this study provide an important validation for public sector managers and policy makers, since they show why and how employees could feel more affectively and normatively committed towards their organizations. These are issues where Public Administration and the State could easily intervene, such as the workplace

environment, supportive and collaborative relations, and greater emphasis on intrinsic reward. A more difficult issue is the provision of extrinsic rewards based on performance, since Greek law prohibits public sector organizations from operating performance related reward systems.

This study intended to examine the moderating role of sector in accounting for the relationships between job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the Greek cultural and organizational context. Apart from the interesting relationships revealed, little is known on how sectoral differences influence commitment profiles' relationship to job satisfaction. So far, organizational commitment profiles have been examined in the relevant literature with respect to work-related behaviours and intentions, but not with respect to other job-related attitudes, such as, job satisfaction. Moreover, this examination has not included the role of the economic sector and of the employment relationship. Thus, this research takes the opportunity to 'cover' this gap and examine commitment profiles and their effect on job satisfaction in two sectors in Greece.

CHAPTER 4: STUDY 2 – ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT PROFILES AND JOB SATISFACTION: EXTENDING THE THEORY AND RESEARCH ON PROFILES

4.0. Chapter summary

Recent research into organizational commitment has advocated a profiles-based approach (Gellatly et al., 2006). However, with the exception of Wasti (2005), published findings are confined to North American samples. Study 2 examined the relationships between organizational commitment profiles and job satisfaction in Greece. Both private (N = 1,119) and public sector (N = 476) employees in Greece were surveyed as this sectoral distinction is regularly associated with different patterns of job-related attitudes. Two conceptual frameworks related to commitment profiles were used: one was the ACS/CCS/NCS by Meyer and his colleagues that has been used in the relevant literature, and the other – that was used for the first time in the current research – was the BOCS (Cook & Wall, 1980). The contrasts between Greek and Anglo-American values present a new challenge to the profiles approach. The results confirm the utility of the profiles approach to the study of organizational commitment. Affective organizational commitment was found to be most influential with respect to levels of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. This concurs with other studies of the behavioral outcomes of commitment. The results from this study were discussed and implications for further research provided.

4.1. Profiles of organizational commitment

One of the most important recent developments on the organizational commitment research is the analysis of the various commitment profiles and their implications to HRM. The general idea is to develop different organizational commitment profiles, i.e., individuals having different combinations of the various commitment forms, in order to explain, relate to and if possible, to predict particular employees' behaviours. However, there are very few studies on the various commitment profiles and their work-related implications (Wasti, 2005; Irving et al., 2002; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). These studies

focus on the development of employee profiles based on the three-form approach to organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment) as predictors of job-related focal and discretionary behaviours and commitment to change.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) developed a model of the eight theoretically distinguishable commitment profiles as predictors of focal and discretionary behaviours. The existence of 'pure' affective commitment "followed by the cases in which affective commitment is accompanied by high levels of normative and/or continuance commitment" (p. 313) should create the highest focal and discretionary behaviours. Extending the aforementioned model, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) proved, by developing three-way interactions, that commitment to change "correlated positively with compliance with the requirements of a change, but only affective and normative commitment correlated positively with cooperation and championing" (p. 483). Overall, both papers supported that affective commitment by itself or in conjunction with normative commitment are very good predictors of focal and discretionary behaviours at work and behavioural support to organizational change. Irving et al. (2002) found that affective and normative commitment combined together, create the lowest turnover intentions. This result is probably due to the nature of the sample, i.e., public sector employees. Also, the profiles presenting higher means on the transactional psychological contracts are the pure continuance commitment profile and the one having high continuance and affective commitment. On the other hand, the presence of affective and normative commitment in the eight possible profiles produces the highest levels of the relational psychological contracts. Wasti (2005) found that the best job-related outcomes are exhibited by the highly committed profile (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment are all high), followed closely by the affective commitment-normative commitment dominant profile and the affective commitment dominant one. The most important outcomes that discriminate among the six profiles are turnover intentions (a focal behaviour) and loyal boosterism (defending the organization against co-worker

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criticism). Finally, Somers (2008) argued that the most positive work outcomes were associated with the affective-normative dominant profile, i.e., the case where AC/NC exist - which included lower turnover intentions and lower levels of psychological stress, and the continuance-normative dominant group – CC/NC group – had the lowest levels of absenteeism.

These three organizational commitment forms have been also examined with respect to two- or three-way interactions, assuming linearity of relationships, whereas, the profiles idea assumes that these commitment forms affect other dependent variables in a non-linear, idiosyncratic way (Bergman, 2006). For example, two-way interactions were reported in studies conducted by Chen and Fransesco, (2003), Cheng and Stockdale (2003), Snape and Redman (2003), Jaros (1997), Somers (1995), Randall, Fedor, and Longenecker (1990), Meyer et al. (1989) and three-way interactions in the study conducted by Gellatly et al. (2006).

Furthermore, in the relevant literature there are some other attempts to develop commitment profiles based on another conceptualisation of organizational commitment, i.e., the one proposed by O' Reilly and Chatman (1986): commitment distinguished as identification, internalisation and compliance. These profiles are the committed, the uncommitted, the globally committed (committed to the organization and to the top management) and the locally committed (committed to supervisors and co-workers) (Becker & Billings, 1993; Swailes, 2004). Figure 4.1 presents the conceptual framework for study 2 of this research.

Figure 4.1: The conceptual framework for Study 2
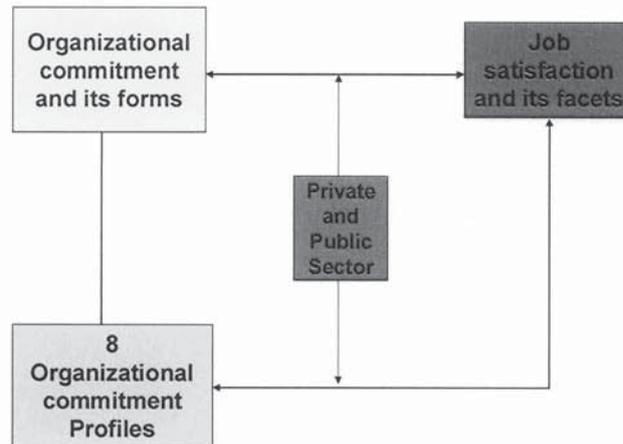
From the analysis conducted in Chapter 1 with respect to organizational commitment and its forms or constructs (ACS/CCS/NCS and BOCS), and the two facets of job satisfaction (MSQ) a number of hypotheses can be generated regarding the nature of organizational commitment in Greece. Three hypotheses can be identified with respect to the likely impact of commitment profiles on reported job satisfaction among Greek employees. Looking first at the BOCS measure, high levels of organizational identification, job involvement and loyalty are likely to result in satisfaction both with the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of a job.

Hypothesis 1: Employees will be most satisfied, both extrinsically and intrinsically, if they are *totally organizationally committed* compared to all other profiles.

Even if employees are not involved or loyal to their organization, the dominance of the affective aspect of commitment (organizational identification) in predicting work-related outcomes suggests that where identification is present, higher satisfaction will be found.

Hypothesis 2: Employees reporting high levels of identification will exhibit *higher* mean values for extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction than those reporting low identification, irrespective of loyalty and job involvement.

While the nature of organizational commitment and job satisfaction between public and private sector employees in Greece may vary in degree, it is unlikely that it will vary in type. Therefore these hypotheses hold equally for both private and public sector employees. However, the role of loyalty may differ by sector. In particular, public sector employees are expected to both value and express greater loyalty to their organization, given the stability of employment and the high cost of leaving.

Hypothesis 3: Public sector employees will report *higher* levels of extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction when loyalty is high than when loyalty is low.

Turning to the Meyer et al. (1993) measure of commitment, comparable hypotheses can be generated. The direct association identified earlier between organizational identification and affective commitment would suggest a similar pattern should occur with respect to affective commitment as for identification above.

Hypothesis 4: Employees will be most satisfied, both extrinsically and intrinsically if they are *totally organizationally committed* compared to all other profiles.

Hypotheses 5: Employees reporting high levels of affective commitment will exhibit *higher* mean values for extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction than those reporting low affective commitment, irrespective of levels of normative and continuance commitment.

In the literature drawing on Meyer et al.'s model, affective and normative commitment are highly correlated and normative commitment displays similar but distinguishable patterns of association with antecedent and consequential variables. Given the importance of job security in Greece and the way in which normative commitment recognizes the binding of the

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employee to the organization through a sense of obligation and its tendency to be more strongly represented within more collectivist cultures, the following hypothesis is developed.

Hypothesis 6: Public sector employees who report high levels of normative commitment will report *higher* mean values for extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction, irrespective of the value of continuance commitment.

4.2. Methodology

For the examination of these hypotheses related to organizational commitment profiles the measurement scales used are: The MSQ scale for the measurement of job satisfaction. For the measurement of organizational commitment two scales were used: the first is the ACS, CCS, NCS scale. These scales have the same total number of items as the previously analyzed study on private/public sector (Study 1). The organizational commitment scale is used only for the public sector sample, whereas, the job satisfaction one is used for both samples – private and public sector ones.

The second measure of organizational commitment taken across both samples is the BOCS (Cook & Wall, 1980), with additional items taken from Lawler and Hall (1970), Mowday et al. (1979), and Buchanan (1974). This scale produced three sub-scales each comprising four items: organizational identification (e.g., "I am proud to tell who it is I work for"), job involvement (e.g., "As soon as the job is finished I leave work", reversed) and loyalty (e.g., "Even if there are financial difficulties in the organization, I would be reluctant leave"). All items are scored on a 7-point scale, with endpoints 1 = Complete disagreement; and 7 = Complete agreement. Negatively worded statements are reverse coded for the purposes of analysis. These statements are:

"I would not recommend a friend to join our staff".

"I am not willing to put myself out just to help this organization".

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"I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good".

"I am not ready to spend all my efforts for the organization's sake. Work is a small part of a person's life".

"I usually leave immediately after I finish my work or my job shift ends".

One item from the job involvement scale is subsequently deleted to improve the reliability of the overall scale. ("The greater satisfaction in my life comes from my job").

4.3. Descriptive statistics of the demographics

The sample approached to complete the questionnaire is employees from private and public sector organizations. In particular, data is collected from two different sets of participants. The first one is a random sample of 1,119 non-supervisory employees from 35 private sector organizations in the Northern Central Greece, surveyed with the assistance of business students from the Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki.

Participants' organizations range from family owned small businesses to medium-sized industrial or commercial enterprises, producing a response rate of 69%. As far as the demographic characteristics of this sample are concerned: 45.7% were males, and 54.3% were females; the mean age for the sample was 33 years; the mean organizational tenure was 6 years; educational achievement was as follows: 38.2% completed the Secondary Education; 29.3% graduated from a Technological Educational Institute; and 23.8% were University graduates.

The second set of data was collected from a random sample of 476 public sector employees from Northern Greece, working in governmental authorities, customs and public health care. The response rate from the different areas of public sector employment ranges

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from 61% to 85%. Approximately 40% of this sample is non-supervisory employees, while the remainder is mainly middle level supervisors. All are employed in secure, primarily white-collar civil service employment. The demographic characteristics of the public sector sample are: 47.3% males and 52.7% females; mean age is 41 years; average job tenure is 11 years; educational level was generally higher than in the private sector sample, i.e.: 11.6% completed the Secondary Education; 21.4% graduated from a Technological Educational Institute; and 67% were University graduates.

4.4. Descriptive statistics of the variables

The private sector sample is by and large satisfied with their jobs, whereas, organizational commitment has diverse results, i.e., employees are identified with their organizations and involved in their jobs, however, loyalty has rather low mean values, influencing the total value for organizational commitment (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics of the variables – private sector (Study 2)[5]

Variable	N	Min	Max	m	s.d.
JS	1,119	2	7	4.59	.98
ES	1,119	2	7	4.60	.98
IS	1,119	1	7	4.59	1.10
OC	1,118	1	7	4.04	.93
OI	1,118	1	7	4.29	1.11
JI	1,118	1	7	410	1.25
LO	1,118	1	7	3.92	1.16

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[5] The item stated "The greater satisfaction in my life comes from my job" from the job involvement scale has been deleted from the calculations, in order to substantially improve scale's reliability coefficient.

The public sector sample has rather high mean values for job satisfaction and its facets, higher than the respective ones from the private sector sample. Especially high is the mean value for intrinsic satisfaction. Organizational commitment and its constructs and forms have also higher values than the ones extracted from the private sector sample. Organizational identification has the highest value and loyalty the lowest from the one organizational commitment scale (same trend as the other sample); continuance commitment has the highest mean value and normative commitment the lowest for the scales measuring the three distinguishable forms of commitment (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Descriptive statistics of the variables– public sector (Study 2)[6]

Variable	N	Min	Max	m	s.d.
JS	476	2	7	4.69	.95
ES	476	1,42	6,92	4.62	1.00
IS	476	1,91	6,82	4.76	1.08
OC	476	2	7	4.42	.93
OI	476	1	7	4.64	1.14
JI	476	1	7	4.51	1.20
LO	476	1	7	4.45	1.25
AC	476	1	7	4.76	1.19
CC	476	1	7	4.82	1.03
NC	476	1.50	7	4.27	1.18

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[6] The item stated "The greater satisfaction in my life comes from my job" from the job involvement scale has been deleted from the calculations, in order to substantially improve scale's reliability coefficient.

4.5. Correlation and reliability analysis

The results from the correlation analysis of the variables used for the private sector sample show that all main concepts – job satisfaction and organizational commitment – as well as their facets, extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction, and their constructs, organizational identification, job involvement, and loyalty, are strongly positively correlated with each other. The reliability analysis[7] [8] of the variables, shows high α coefficient for job satisfaction and its facets, and high for organizational commitment, but relatively low for its constructs, especially for job involvement and loyalty (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Correlation and reliability analysis - private sector (Study 2)

	α	JS	ES	IS	OC	OI	JI
JS	.93						
ES	.86	.93**					
IS	.89	.95**	.77**				
OC	.78	.63**	.58**	.60**			
OI	.61	.69**	.62**	.67**	.84**		
JI	.48	.35**	.32**	.33**	.80**	.45**	
LO	.54	.54**	.52**	.51**	.89**	.65**	.57**

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

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[7] If item 4 ("I will not recommend to a friend of mine to come and work for my organization") from the organizational identification scale is deleted then $\alpha = .67$.

[8] If item 6 ("The greater satisfaction in my life comes from my job") is deleted from the job involvement scale then $\alpha = .55$.

As with the private sector sample, the correlations of the variables used in the public sector present the same trends, i.e., strong positive correlations of all main variables, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, as well as, the satisfaction facets, the commitment constructs and the two out of the three organizational commitment forms – affective commitment and normative commitment. Continuance commitment is the only one variable that is not correlated with job satisfaction and the constructs of organizational commitment, apart from loyalty and normative commitment. Once again as in the case with the private sector sample, the reliability coefficients[9] are high for job satisfaction and its facets, high for organizational commitment, but not so high for its constructs, especially, for job involvement. As far as the three forms of commitment are concerned, affective commitment and normative commitment have high α coefficients and continuance commitment is moderate (see Table 4.4).

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[9] If item 6 ("The greater satisfaction in my life comes from my job") is deleted from the job involvement scale then $\alpha = .56$.

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Table 4.4: Correlation and reliability analysis – public sector (Study 2)

	α	JS	ES	IS	OC	OI	JI	LO	AC	CC
JS	.91									
ES	.83	.92**								
IS	.88	.92**	.68**							
OC	.79	.64**	.57**	.59**						
OI	.64	.65**	.61**	.58**	.85**					
JI	.52	.34**	.25**	.38**	.71**	.40**				
LO	.64	.54**	.51**	.48**	.85**	.64**	.38**			
AC	.82	.52**	.42**	.53**	.73**	.65**	.53**	.60**		
CC	.66	.02	.04	.01	.05	-.01	-.06	.19**	.05	
NC	.75	.40**	.36**	.39**	.56**	.49**	.38**	.48**	.66**	.23**

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

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As far as the correlations of the variables of this sample with the demographics goes, there are some significant but weak correlations of gender with extrinsic satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational identification and loyalty (negative correlations), of age with organizational commitment, organizational identification and loyalty (positive correlations), of time of service to the organization with organizational commitment and its three constructs (positive), of educational background with all variables (positive), of marital status with organizational commitment and its constructs (positive) and of number of children with all variables, except extrinsic satisfaction (positive). Table 4.5 shows all the correlations extracted from the private sector sample.

Table 4.5: Correlations between the variables and demographics - private sector (Study 2)

	GENDER	AGE	SERV	EDUC
JS	-.05	.03	.03	.23**
ES	-.07*	-.00	.01	.18**
IS	-.03	.06	.05	.24**
OC	-.07*	.09**	.15**	.10**
OI	-.06*	.06*	.12**	.11**
JI	-.03	.04	.07*	.07*
LO	-.08**	.12**	.17**	.07*

Notes: N = 1,119 ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level; Gender: 1 = male, 2 = female; Age: 1 = 22-35; 2 = 36-45; 3 = 46-59; 4 = 60+; Years of service: 1 = 0-6; 2 = 7-12; 3 = 13-21; 4 = 22+; Educational background: 1 = High school; 2 = Technical school graduate; 3 = University graduate; 4 = Postgraduate

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On the other hand, in the correlation of the variables with the demographics of the public sector, gender is negatively correlated with job satisfaction and its facets, with organizational commitment, organizational identification and loyalty and with affective commitment. Age is positively correlated with job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational identification, loyalty and the three commitment forms. Educational background is negatively correlated with organizational identification, loyalty, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

Table 4.6: Correlations between the variables and demographics - public sector (Study 2)

	GENDER	AGE	EDUC
JS	-.15**	.12**	-.05
ES	-.18**	.05	-.05
IS	-.09*	.17**	-.04
OC	-.16**	.15**	-.08
OI	-.11*	.04	-.10*
JI	-.06	.15**	.02
LO	-.19**	.17**	-.10*
AC	-.13**	.20**	-.07
CC	.02	.18**	-.16**
NC	-.06	.18**	-.17**

Notes: N = 476 ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level; Gender: 1 = male, 2=female; Age: 1 = 22-35; 2 = 36-45; 3 = 46-59; 4 = 60+;

Educational background: 1 = High school; 2 = Technical school graduate; 3 = University graduate; 4 = Postgraduate

4.6. Analyses of the hypotheses

To test the research hypotheses generated the BOCS scale is used for the measurement of organizational commitment and its subscales – organizational identification, job involvement, loyalty – for both samples, and the six-item ACS/NCS/CCS for the measurement of affective, normative, and continuance commitment in the case of the public sector sample.

By using the BOCS data, eight theoretically meaningful profiles are generated using median splits on each of the three commitment components (see Table 4.7). This procedure is carried out independently for the public and private sector samples and separate analyses are reported.

Table 4.7: Distribution of commitment profiles (Cook and Wall, 1980) (Study 2)

		Organizational identification			
		Low		*High*	
Job **involvement**		*Low*	*High*	*Low*	*High*
	Low	**P1**	**P2**	**P5**	**P6**
		N (pri)[10] = 276	N (pri) = 154	N (pri) = 115	N (pri) = 67
		N (pub)[11] = 141	N (pub) = 35	N (pub) = 33	N (pub) = 23
		"Totally **Uncommitted"**			
Loyalty	*High*	**P3**	**P4**	**P7**	**P8**
		N (pri[12]) = 67	N (pri) = 89	N (pri) = 113	N (pri) = 237
		N (pub[13]) = 36	N (pub) = 31	N (pub) = 75	N (pub) = 102
					"Totally **Organizationally** **Committed"**

Profile P8 represents what is identified in Hypotheses 1 (H1) as total organizational commitment. Respondents with this profile are expected to demonstrate highest levels of satisfaction. All profiles to the right of the table (P5 - P8) include high organizational identification. According to Hypothesis 2 (H2), these profiles should produce higher levels of satisfaction than cells P1 – P4 where organizational identification is low.

Two three-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) are performed on each data set, with extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction as the dependent variables and level of each commitment

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[10] Number of private sector employees in the cluster
[11] Number of public sector employees in the cluster
[12] pri = private sector
[13] pub = public sector

component (high or low) as the three independent variables. These produced the results shown in Tables 4.8 and 4.9. For both extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction three-way statistically significant interactions are discovered for the three forms of organizational commitment simultaneously (organizational identification, job involvement, loyalty). Figures 4.2 and 4.3 illustrate the group means.

Table 4.8: ANOVA for private sector (BOCS) (Study 2)

Variables	df	F	Variables	df	F
ES	1	27,689.04**	IS	1	24,047.06**
OI	1	206.76**	OI	1	298.59**
JI	1	.07	JI	1	.23
LO	1	43.05**	LO	1	35.94**
OI * JI	1	.00	OI * JI	1	2.70
OI * LO	1	4.79*	OI * LO	1	.00
JI * LO	1	.50	JI * LO	1	.00
OI * JI * LO	7	*9.30**	OI * JI * LO	7	20.78**
R^2		.30	R^2		.36
Adjusted R^2		.29	Adjusted R^2		.35

Notes: ** p < .01, * p < .05

Table 4.9: ANOVA for public sector (BOCS) (Study 2)

Variables	df	F	Variables	df	F
ES	1	9,862.32**	IS	1	8,713.85**
OI	1	68.55**	OI	1	77.19**
JI	1	2.89	JI	1	2.75
LO	1	28.08**	LO	1	11.59**
OI * JI	1	1.12	OI * JI	1	.25
OI * LO	1	.10	OI * LO	1	.17
JI * LO	1	2.98	JI * LO	1	1.08
OI * JI * LO	7	*4.92*	OI * JI * LO	7	.48
R^2		.30	R^2		.27
Adjusted R^2		.29	Adjusted R^2		.26

Notes: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Figure 4.2: Mean satisfaction values for commitment profiles in the private sector (BOCS)
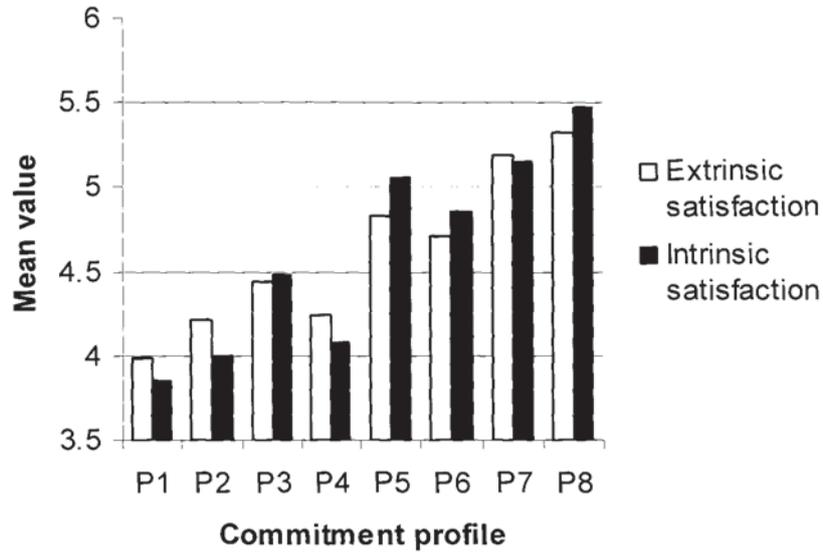
Figure 4.3: Mean satisfaction values for commitment profiles in the public sector (BOCS)
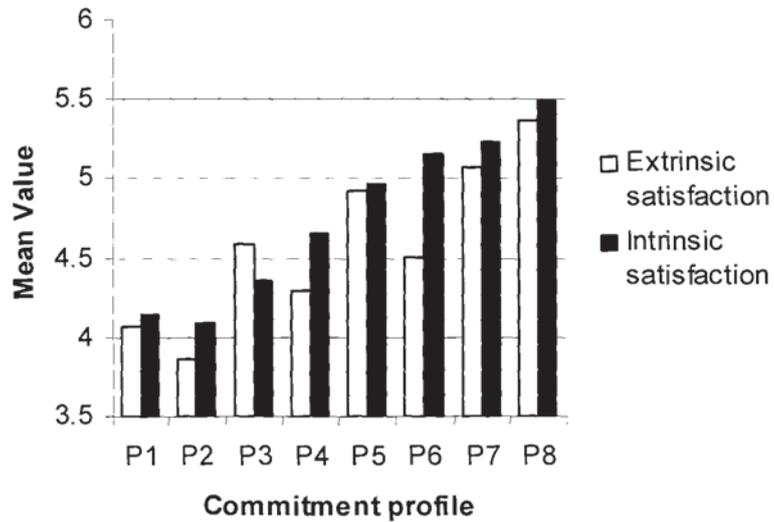
While main effects for identification and loyalty and few two-way interactions are evident, these effects are qualified by the predicted significant three-way interaction. Looking first at the private sector profiles, the significance of both 3-way interaction terms indicates

that variation in both extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction can be interpreted on the basis of the commitment profiles. The organizational commitment profile with the highest levels of both extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction is the totally organizationally committed profile (P8), supporting H1. The next highest profiles are those incorporating high organizational identification and one or other component (P5 - P7), supporting H2. Employees with the non-committed profile (P1) are the least satisfied. In other words, a commitment profile containing job involvement related to low satisfaction levels, whereas a profile also containing organizational identification relates to high satisfaction levels. Furthermore, high extrinsic satisfaction levels are exhibited with the commitment profile P7, incorporating both high levels of identification and loyalty, but in contrast high intrinsic satisfaction levels are found in the commitment profile P5 with high levels only of identification. Finally, all profiles that do not contain organizational identification, i.e., P1 to P4, have lower mean values for both extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction, compared with those profiles that include the element of identification. These low satisfaction profiles tend to be relatively higher on extrinsic satisfaction than intrinsic satisfaction.

In the public sector sample, only the three-way interaction term for extrinsic satisfaction achieves significance. Again, the organizational commitment profile representing total organizational commitment (P8) is associated with the highest levels of both extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction. As with the private sector sample, organizational identification makes the largest difference on the commitment profiles. Its existence in P7 and P5 create very high levels of extrinsic satisfaction. However, in this sample, profile P3; representing only high levels of loyalty, is also associated with high levels of satisfaction, particularly extrinsic satisfaction. Finally, the non-committed profile (P1) as well profiles containing job involvement but not organizational identification (P2 and P4) show low levels of extrinsic satisfaction. These results only partially support the hypotheses since the relationships are only valid for extrinsic satisfaction. It appears however that, in contrast to the private sector

results, loyalty is much more important in determining satisfaction than organizational identification broadly supporting Hypothesis 3 (H3). This may be associated with the higher levels of loyalty associated with public sector employment as compared with the private sector in Greece. The requirement to swear an oath to the employer, coupled with the extensive benefits and job and career security offered by the public sector may enhance the role of loyalty for this group. Finally, job involvement has a rather negative effect on satisfaction; profiles containing this variable tend to produce lower levels of satisfaction.

Overall, these findings support the usefulness of the 'profiles' approach to interpreting organizational commitment. Eight viable profiles are identified within the sample. The totally organizationally committed profile (P8) is associated with highest levels of satisfaction, while profiles containing organizational identification all generate higher levels of satisfaction than those without identification. The existence of job involvement within a commitment profile does not appear to make people satisfied with their jobs. Profiles without identification tend to be higher on extrinsic satisfaction than intrinsic satisfaction in the private sector, but higher on intrinsic than extrinsic satisfaction in the public sector.

The final set of analyses relate to Hypotheses 4 (H4), 5 (H5) and 6 (H6), using the Meyer et al. (1993) measures of organizational commitment. The same measures of job satisfaction are used. The difference in this case, is that the eight theoretically meaningful profiles are derived from the Allen and Meyer (1990) model (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10: Distribution of commitment profiles (Meyer et al., 1993) (Study 2)

	Continuance commitment	Affective commitment			
		Low		*High*	
		Low	*High*	*Low*	*High*
	Low	**C1**	**C2**	**C5**	**C6**
		(N = 96)	(N = 77)	(N = 42)	(N = 26)
		"Totally Uncommitted"			
Normative commitment	High	**C3**	**C4**	**C7**	**C8**
		(N = 19)	(N = 39)	(N = 81)	(N = 96)
					"Totally Organizationally Committed"

The results of the three-way analyses of variance are shown in Table 4.11; statistically significant interactions are revealed for both extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction for all three forms of commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment). Figure 4.4 illustrates the mean values for extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction by commitment profile.

Table 4.11: ANOVA for Public Sector (Meyer et al., 1993) (Study 2)

Variables[14]	df	F	Variables	df	F
ES	1	8,396.30**	IS	1	8,726.23**
AC	1	28.96**	AC	1	55.79**
CC	1	.06	CC	1	4.82*
NC	1	5.84*	NC	1	12.56**
AC * CC	1	.01	AC * CC	1	.50
AC * NC	1	.00**	AC * NC	1	.77
CC * NC	1	.53	CC * NC	1	.00
AC * CC * NC	7	5.19*	AC * CC * NC	7	13.10**
R^2		.14	R^2		.25
Adjusted R^2		.13	Adjusted R^2		.24

Notes: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

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[14] Note: ES = Extrinsic satisfaction, AC = Affective commitment, CC = Continuance commitment, NC = Normative commitment, IS = Intrinsic satisfaction

Figure 4.4: Mean satisfaction values for commitment profiles in the public sector (ACS/NCS/CCS)
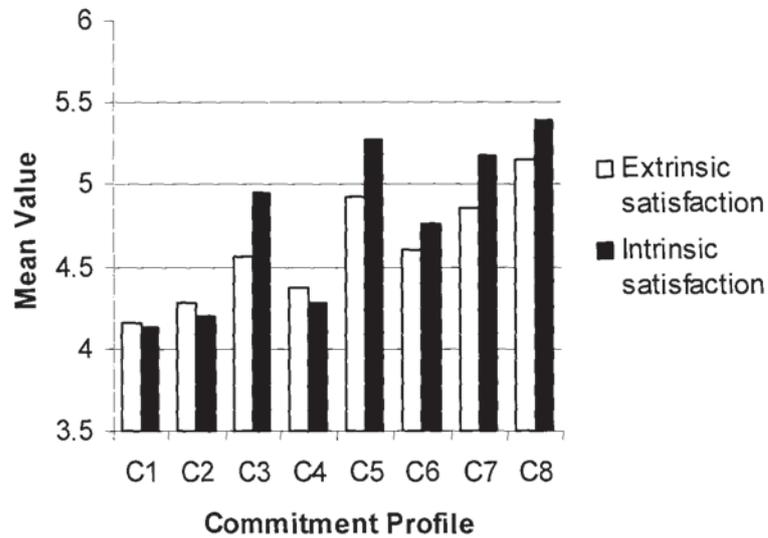
Using this formulation of organizational commitment, both three-way interactions are statistically significant. As in the previous analyses, totally organizationally committed employees (C8) are both the most extrinsically and intrinsically satisfied, supporting H4. Those profiles containing high affective commitment (C5 - C7) have high mean satisfaction values supporting H5. Finally, all commitment profiles containing normative commitment exhibit higher mean values for both facets of job satisfaction, than the profiles containing continuance commitment, providing support for H6.

4.7. Discussion of the results

Study 2 examined six hypotheses and the results from the statistical analyses proved them all to be true. In particular, organizational commitment developed into eight distinguishable profiles – either by using Meyer and Allen conceptualization or Cook and Wall's one. In both cases, the most job satisfied employees are the so-called "totally

organizationally committed" ones, i.e., employees being simultaneously affectively, normatively, and continuance committed or being identified, involved and loyal. Also, the employees having high levels of organizational identification or with affective commitment exhibit higher values of extrinsic or intrinsic satisfaction than the employees with low levels of these commitment forms, irrespective of the levels of the other two forms of commitment. In other words, the affective commitment or organizational identification profile produces more satisfied employees than any other profile, except the totally organizationally committed profile. Finally, public sector employees with a high loyalty profile or with high level of normative commitment have higher levels of extrinsic or intrinsic satisfaction than private sector employees.

The results from this study show that employees exhibiting a totally organizationally committed profile or a profile where affective commitment or organizational identification predominate (the affective parts of organizational commitment) tend to be more satisfied from their jobs – both extrinsically and intrinsically. Furthermore, this study reveals that loyalty and normative commitment are very influential forms of commitment in order to make a civil servant feel satisfied with his or her job. In other words, forms that tend to promote positive commitment to an organization seem to be responsible for employees' satisfaction.

However, it should be addressed at this point that the alternative scale used for the development of commitment profiles, i.e., the BOCS, and its constructs have been criticized as not measuring distinguishable forms of organizational commitment, but instead antecedents and consequences of commitment. Moreover, BOCS has been viewed as a formative construct ("the scale items determine the latent construct, which is theorized as the aggregate of its indicators" (p. 358), whereas, it is instead a reflective construct, i.e., the scale items reflect the latent construct (Jaros, 2009).

Meyer, Becker and Van Dick (2006) argued that organizational identification is an antecedent of organizational commitment, and Van Knippenberg and Sleebos (2006) supported that organizational identification and organizational commitment differ on their implied relationship between individual and organization: the former reflects psychological oneness and the later reflects a relationship between separate psychological entities. "Identification is a cognition of self in relationship to the organization while ... commitment is an affective response ... Identification can also shape and be shaped by an individual's affective reaction to the organization as a whole" (Rousseau, 1998: 218). According to Klein, Molloy, and Cooper (2009) "there are unique aspects of commitment not captured by identification and characteristics of identification that are not part of commitment" (p. 13).

As far as the other construct of organizational commitment based on BOCS, i.e., loyalty, Wasti (2003; 2002) and Becker (1960) supported that generated loyalty as perceived by the normative aspects of the employment relationship, would reflect to increased continuance commitment and consequently to reduced turnover intentions and increased organizational citizenship behaviours.

Finally, as far as job involvement is concerned, this concept "seems to be primarily determined first by the individual's self-image and understanding of what is important in life, and only secondarily by the influence of organizational characteristics. We expect that job involvement will be primarily shaped by individual attributes and previous life experiences rather than by workable levers". (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007: 808) Conceptually, job involvement is defined as the extent to which an employee identifies with his or her job; whereas, organizational commitment is defined as the extent to which an employee identifies with the nature and goals of a particular organization and wishes to maintain membership in that organization (Blau & Boal, 1989). According to Riketta and Van Dick (2009) job involvement seems to be more distinct concept from affective commitment and especially

continuance commitment than from normative commitment. One reason could be the targets; the organizational commitment's forms have the organization, whereas job involvement has the job.

Summarizing therefore, the main difference between the two scales of organizational commitment used for this study, is that Cook and Wall's (1980) uses multiple bases that lead to the formation of commitment and Meyer et al.'s (1993) uses multiple mindsets that characterize a commitment (Becker, Klein, & Meyer, 2009: 429). BOCS needs cross-validation and further consideration with respect to its constructs and the three component scale of organizational commitment (ACS, CCS, NCS) needs to reflect recent arguments and conceptualizations with respect to continuance commitment and normative commitment.

4.8. Implications and further research

For the purposes of this field study, in the beginning patterns of organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the Greek private and public sectors have been identified, and the study went on to explore the relationships between commitment profiles and job satisfaction, using two different approaches to the measurement of organizational commitment.

Greece – as already pointed out in previous chapters – is an under-researched cultural context in relation to both organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The data reported here indicate that organizational commitment is significantly higher in the public than in the private sector in Greece. This contrasts with the Australian findings of Rachid (1995), and with Goulet and Frank's (2002) American study, perhaps reinforcing the contrast between Anglo and Greek cultures identified earlier (see table 2), but also permitting an institutional interpretation based on the construction of Greek public life. In both the public and private

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sectors, organizational identification is the strongest component, reflecting the collectivistic orientation of Greek society reported initially by Hofstede (1980) but also more recently by House et al. (2004). Public sector employment conditions are more closely aligned to Greek societal values, providing job security and structured progression and development, meeting uncertainty avoidance needs. Predictable progression within the public sector reinforces the widely practiced but less socially valued power distance orientation. Private sector employment in contrast tends to be more short term and insecure, resulting in significantly lower levels of both intrinsic satisfaction and all components of organizational commitment than their public sector counterparts. This is even more prevalent at times when unemployment rates are high, currently around 10% for the total workforce and more than 25% for workers under 25 years old.

The relatively high levels of loyalty (or normative commitment) reported in the public sector again reflect the institutional collectivism orientation reported in the GLOBE study. The overt expression of loyalty to the Greek constitution required of the new entrant and national collective agreements covering wages and other benefits further reinforce this value, while in the broader society its practice is generally less apparent. Although private sector employment is covered by collective agreements, the small size of typical Greek businesses tends to promote local agreements and HRM practice. The low performance orientation in practice reported by GLOBE also tallies with the relatively lower job involvement ratings found in both sectors.

Moving on to the profiles analyses of the two samples, the results provide considerable support for this approach to the interpretation of the influence of organizational commitment on job satisfaction. Both sets of data support the view that the 'totally organizationally committed' employee is likely to be more satisfied with his or her job, irrespective of where he or she works, and that an employee who identifies with the organization (shows affective

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commitment) is likely to be more satisfied than one who does not, again irrespective of employment sector.

Low job satisfaction is the most likely outcome for individuals who are either uncommitted or only displayed job involvement (or continuance commitment). Perhaps, most specifically for the Greek context, public sector employees are likely to be highly satisfied with their jobs when their commitment profile is high on loyalty or on normative commitment, even if identification or affective commitment is low. This trend, while visible, is not so marked in the private sector where loyalty is neither rewarded nor offered.

This study lends support to the contention that commitment needs to be considered as a whole, irrespective of the formulation of commitment being used, and not merely broken down into constituent parts. In line with both Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) and Wasti (2005), the dominant influence of the affective component of commitment in producing organizationally positive work-related attitudes is confirmed. Both these authors have previously identified the importance of this component for the promotion of positive job-related behaviours. The present data confirm that these profiles also produce the most positive job-related attitudes.

Adopting a profiles approach to the study of organizational commitment does present a number of methodological difficulties. In particular, in order to ensure sufficient distinctions between the eight proposed profiles, and to detect three-way interactions, requires large samples and sufficient variability in all three commitment components. With the large data sets used here, within both samples it is possible to extract the eight proposed profiles in sufficient numbers. Only one group (C3) contains fewer than 20 respondents. The replication of findings across sectors further supports the generalizability of the results.

These findings have implications for human resource management specialists and practitioners. Primarily, the importance of seeking to develop affective commitment or organizational identification is highlighted. Initiatives that seek to emphasize the economic implications of leaving the organization (i.e., associated with continuance commitment) may be not only ineffective but actually detrimental to positive organizational outcomes. If the key variable is the extent to which the individual wants to stay in the organization, emphasizing the costs associated with leaving the organization; through, for example, manipulation of reward systems may undermine the sense of emotional attachment. Thus it is the manager's job to create and develop organizational environments and jobs that will enable employees to feel attached to their organization. While the primacy of the affective aspect of commitment appears to be universal, the significance of cultural values, in particular collectivism and uncertainty avoidance may be of more significance in impacting on normative commitment or loyalty. In the Greek context, given the importance of the loyalty component of commitment, stability of employment and career structure would seem to be significant for all employees. However, this may be difficult to achieve in a climate where unemployment rates remain high, consumption rates and patterns are rather low and the growth rates of the total Greek economy does not exceed three percent per annum. Accepting that total organizational commitment produces positive outcomes, emphasizing security and order may be a more effective lever for increasing organizational commitment in collectivist cultures high in uncertainty avoidance than in more individualist contexts.

This research verifies the conceptual framework developed by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001); however it raises issues that need further investigation. One of these issues is the role regulatory focus plays on the development and the strength of appearance of the job-related attitudes. An attempt has been made by Meyer et al. (2004) who examined the role of regulatory foci on work motivation and organizational commitment. However, their study was a theoretical and conceptual one, without attempting to test the framework they developed.

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They found that goal regulation – "the motivational mindset reflecting the reasons for, and purpose of, a course of action being contemplated or in progress" (Meyer et al., 2004: 998) – influences employee behaviour through goal choice and the goal mechanisms of direction, effort, persistence, and task strategy. One parameter of goal regulation is the perceived purpose in life as expressed via promotion focus and prevention focus. Also, they argued that (Meyer e al., 2004: 1001):

> *Commitment should exert a direct effect on goal regulation, and the different forms of commitment should have a significant impact on the corresponding forms of regulation. That is, employees who have a strong affective commitment to a relevant social target are likely to share the target's values and experience self-set and assigned goals as autonomously regulated (integrated or identified regulation) and as ideals to be achieved (promotion focus). Those who have a strong normative commitment are likely to perceive goal acceptance and related behaviours as an obligation and should thus evince the introjected form of goal regulation. Finally, those who are committed to a target primarily out of necessity (continuance commitment) likely see the goal as externally regulated (i.e., pursued in order to avoid the loss of desired outcomes beyond their control). Because they are trying to fulfil obligations and avoid losses, those experiencing introjected and external regulation should have a prevention focus.*

Their main intention was to stress the importance of variables such as: goal choice, self-efficacy, and goal mechanisms on influencing the effect of forms and social foci of commitment on work behaviour. However, since the main research issue of this thesis is job satisfaction and organizational commitment, a decision has been taken to examine how goal choice, and in particular, perceived purpose in life as expressed via regulatory focus, moderates the interrelationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Regulatory focus has implications for "the nature of the goals people set, the strategies they use to attain them, and the emotional reactions they have following success or failure. Of particular relevance ... is the notion that regulatory focus influences the way individuals think about their goals and the implications this has for goal-oriented behaviour" (Meyer et al., 2004: 996). This means that regulatory focus either as a dispositional and generalized tendency or as a situationally induced state has the ability to moderate the form of relationship between forms of organizational commitment and facets of job satisfaction. Moreover, this

moderating role is seen with respect to private and public sector employment, i.e., the moderation effect is differentiated according to the economic sector. In other words, combining Study 1 with the forthcoming study (Study 3), the interrelationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment is examined as being dually and simultaneously moderated by both economic sector and type of employment and of the regulatory focus mechanism, influencing employees' goal choice. Thus, the next chapter examines an unexplored area on WOP. Firstly, it examines the relationship between the regulatory focus states and the forms of commitment and secondly, the role of regulatory focus on the organizational commitment/job satisfaction relationship, and more precisely, the moderating role of promotion focus and prevention focus on the interrelationship between affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment and extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction for both private sector and public sector employees.

CHAPTER 5: STUDY 3 – SATISFACTION AND COMMITMENT: WHEN REGULATORY FOCI WORK AS MODERATORS

5.0. Chapter summary

Regulatory Focus Theory is used to derive specific predictions regarding the differential relationships between regulatory focus and commitment. The analysis estimated a structural equation model using a sample of 521 private and public sector employees and found this in line with our hypotheses that (a) promotion focus related more strongly to affective commitment than prevention focus, (b) prevention focus related more strongly to continuance commitment than promotion focus, (c) promotion and prevention focus had equally strong effects on normative commitment. Furthermore, this study develops – for the first time - a conceptual framework based on Regulatory Focus Theory and its two underlying traits of promotion focus and prevention focus. This framework proposes four regulatory focus characters: Achiever, Conservative, Rationalist and Indifferent. As well as constructing four distinguishable personality characters, it also proposes how these characters relate to two prominent work-related attitudes: job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The statistical analyses support the hypothesized relationships. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the managerial implications of this approach to regulatory focus, implications of these findings for the three-component model of commitment, especially the 'dual nature' of normative commitment. Implications for Human Resources Management and leadership are discussed, and suggestions for further research are proposed.

5.1. Regulatory focus and job satisfaction

Research on regulatory focus tends not to focus on job satisfaction; key outcomes more commonly considered being goal attainment (Higgins, Shah, & Friedman, 1997; Förster, Higgins, & Idson, 1998), job performance (Shah, Higgins, & Friedman, 1998; Shah, & Higgins, 2001) or individuals' emotions (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Only two studies examined the direct relationship between regulatory focus and job satisfaction (Weiss &

Cropanzano, 1996; Higgins, Simon, & Wells, 1988). Both concluded that when people are experiencing more positive emotions and circumstances at work than negative ones, then they are likely to be more satisfied with their jobs and tend to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours. In other words, promotion focused individuals will be more satisfied with their jobs than prevention focused individuals. However, none of these studies provided empirical evidence of any relationship between regulatory focus and job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Moreover, no study has been conducted so far on the relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic facets of job satisfaction and the two regulatory focus states. Since extrinsic satisfaction is derived from extrinsic reward and, according to Herzberg (1968), the existence of this kind of reward could make people feel non-dissatisfied with their jobs (the "hygiene factors" of a job), prevention focused employees could seek primarily for the satisfaction of extrinsic factors of a job (wages, working conditions, personnel policies, security and safety, etc.). On the other hand, because intrinsic satisfaction is related to intrinsic reward, promotion focused employees could seek primarily for the satisfaction of intrinsic factors of a job (achievement, advancement, recognition, freedom to decide work pace and methods of working, etc.). Promotion focused individuals are more intrinsically satisfied from their jobs than are prevention focused individuals, and similarly prevention focused individuals are more extrinsically satisfied from their jobs than are the promotion focused.

5.2. Regulatory focus and organizational commitment

The literature already includes theoretical justifications for expecting relationships between commitment and regulatory focus. Meyer et al. (2004) presented a theoretical conceptualization arguing that individuals who are affectively organizationally committed (i.e., individuals being emotionally attached to, identified with and involved in the organization) may be expected to have a stronger promotion focus, whereas those individuals having a strong feeling of normative commitment (i.e., employees feeling obligated to remain

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with an organization) or continuance commitment (i.e., employees assessing the costs associated with leaving an organization) may have a stronger prevention focus. Van-Dijk and Kluger (2004) in their conceptual paper similarly argued that continuance commitment corresponds to prevention focus and affective commitment should correspond to promotion focus. However, the authors did not attempt to examine this relationship empirically.

Finally, Kark and Van-Dijk (2007) recently presented a theory of how a chronic regulatory focus of leaders might affect their leadership style and the behaviour of followers. Regarding the regulatory foci of the followers, they argued that the "promotion-focused individuals are intrinsically motivated and are mostly guided by their inner ideals and not by external forces. Thus, they are likely to be committed to the organization in an autonomous form (affective commitment). In contrast, prevention-focused individuals are more influenced by external or social pressure and attempt to fulfil obligations and avoid losses. Kark and Van-Dijk (2007) argued that the "promotion-focused individuals are intrinsically motivated and are mostly guided by their inner ideals and not by external forces. Thus, they are likely to be committed to the organization in an autonomous form (affective commitment). In contrast, prevention-focused individuals are more influenced by external or social pressure and attempt to fulfil obligations and avoid losses. Thus, they are more likely to be committed to the organization out of a sense of obligation or necessity (normative or continuance commitment)" (Kark & Van-Dijk, 2007: 517).

Moss, Ritossa and Ngu (2006) examined the effect of following regulatory focus and extraversion on leadership behaviour, and found that followers' promotion focus moderated the relationship between corrective-avoidant behaviour of the leader and subordinates' affective and normative commitment. In other words, the researchers agree that when employees adopt a promotion focus, corrective-avoidant leadership is inversely related to affective commitment and normative commitment, and when they do not adopt promotion

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focus, corrective-avoidant leadership is positively related to both forms of commitment. Their work did not investigate any direct relationship between regulatory focus states and organizational commitment forms, but instead, develops moderating relationships among regulatory focus, organizational commitment, and leadership behaviours.

Johnson, Chang, and Yang (under review) proposed the following relationships: (a) promotion foci contribute to the development of affective organizational commitment, (b) prevention foci contribute to the development of normative organizational commitment, (c) promotion foci contribute to the development of continuance organizational commitment (few alternatives – LOALT), and (d) prevention foci contribute to the development of continuance organizational commitment (sacrificed investments – HISAC). However, they acknowledged the lack of any substantial empirical evidence, except some preliminary evidence by Johnson and Chang (2007) where they observed a significant correlation between employees' chronic levels of promotion focus and affective commitment ($r = .53$), and a non-significant one between prevention focus and affective commitment ($r = -.12$). They also found significant correlations between a composite continuance commitment scale, which combines its two dimensions, and each of promotion focus ($r = .18$) and prevention focus ($r = .31$). In general, there is some evidence that promotion focus contributes to organizational commitment based on desire (the affective type of commitment); whereas, the 'ought' forms of commitment, i.e., normative commitment are fostered by prevention focus (Frank & Brandstätter; 2002; Strachman & Gable, 2006). Finally, reference should be made to a new study – currently under review by Johnson and Chang – that, apart from developing a new regulatory focus scale, they found –among others – that work-based promotion focus is positively related to satisfaction with one's job ($r = .47$), to affective commitment ($r = .53$), and to continuance commitment ($r = .18$). The work-based prevention focus is negatively related to satisfaction with one's job ($r = -.17$) and positively to continuance commitment ($r = .31$).

In summary, previous theorizing suggests that promotion focus should map onto affective commitment, whereas prevention focus should map onto normative and continuance commitment. More recently, however, Gellatly et al. (2006) have speculated on the possible 'dual nature' of normative commitment. More specifically, they considered "the possibility that the nature of employees' normative commitment changes as a function of the strength of the other two components. When employees feel a strong sense of affective commitment, obligations might be experienced as a *moral imperative* (i.e., "this is the right thing to do and I want to do it"). In this case, employees may be inclined to do whatever it takes to achieve organizational objectives even if it is not required by the terms of the commitment. In contrast, when affective commitment is low and continuance commitment is high, normative commitment might be experienced as an *indebted obligation* (i.e., something one has to do to meet obligations and/or save face)." (p. 342)

Thus, it seems plausible that promotion focus might relate to the moral imperative part of normative commitment and that prevention focus might relate to the indebted obligation part of normative commitment. In contrast, the affective and continuance components appear to be more dominantly related to a promotion and a prevention focus, respectively.

Thus, the research hypotheses based on the aforementioned analyses, are:

Hypothesis 1: Promotion focus relates more strongly to affective commitment than prevention focus.

Hypothesis 2: Promotion focus and prevention focus relate equally to normative commitment.

Hypothesis 3: Prevention focus relates more strongly to continuance commitment than promotion focus.

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5.3. The interaction between regulatory focus, job satisfaction and organizational commitment

In the private sector, employees are faced with multiple or limited job opportunities and commitment to the organization has more relation to the job opportunities and/or the investments made by the individual. For example, Clugston (2000) cited various empirical works showing that affective and continuance commitment have a significant impact in the private sector for the turnover intentions and the job-related behaviours. Furthermore, Wasti (2002) showed that the in the private sector, endorsement of generalized norms for loyalty to one's organization, the ingroup approval, and the informal recruitment would lead to higher levels of continuance commitment. Also, the perceived purpose in life as expressed through the two regulatory focus states – promotion (strong ideals) and prevention (strong oughts) – relate to the forms of commitment, e.g., prevention focused individuals are more committed to an organization out of necessity, than promotion focused ones (cf. Kark & Van-Dijk, 2007).

On the other hand, public sector employees place higher value on the normative aspects of commitment, i.e., the feelings of loyalty and obligation towards the organization they are working for, since public sector employment provides life-time and full-time security and a, more or less, predetermined career development. Mintzberg (1996) argued that control in the public sector is normative and it is attitudes grounded in values and beliefs that matter. Steijn and Leisink (2006) showed that the Dutch civil servants have a distinct sense of obligation that comes out of the existence PSM (the 'call or sense of duty') influencing and strengthening the feeling of normative commitment. Also, in this case, employees being prevention focused exemplify their commitment as an obligation towards their organization or public service (cf. Kark & Van-Dijk, 2007).

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As far as affective commitment is concerned, the feeling of "want to be to an organization" could be equally significant for public sector and private sector employees. Affective commitment is an internal feeling based on affections and individualized emotions and beliefs and is expressed by the employees irrespective the organizational context and the form and type of employment. Moreover, promotion focused individuals tend to be more affectively committed towards their organization, than prevention focused ones.

Furthermore, it is already known that organizational commitment and job satisfaction are related to each other (cf. unit 3.1 of the present thesis); thus, it is interesting to see when this relationship is stronger, i.e., which variable moderates the organizational commitment/job satisfaction relationship. In this case, the perceived purpose in life, i.e., the personality dispositions, could play this role and moderate the aforementioned relationship. In other words, the promotion and prevention focus states could moderate the relationship between the forms of organizational commitment – affective, normative, and continuance – and the facets of job satisfaction – extrinsic and intrinsic. Moreover, this moderation could be further influenced by the type of employment, i.e., employees working in the private sector or in the public sector, as already shown on Study 1.

So, the hypotheses related to the moderation effect of regulatory focus to commitment and satisfaction in the private and public sector, are the following:

Hypothesis 4: In the private sector the relationship between extrinsic satisfaction and continuance commitment is *moderated* by promotion and prevention focus.

Hypothesis 4a: In the private sector the relationship between intrinsic satisfaction and continuance commitment is *moderated* by promotion and prevention focus.

Hypothesis 5: In the public sector the relationship between extrinsic satisfaction and normative commitment is *moderated* by promotion and prevention focus.

Hypothesis 5a: In the public sector the relationship between intrinsic satisfaction and normative commitment is *moderated* by promotion and prevention focus.

Hypothesis 6: The relationship between extrinsic satisfaction and affective commitment is *moderated* by promotion and prevention focus.

Hypothesis 6a: The relationship between intrinsic satisfaction and affective commitment is *moderated* by promotion and prevention focus.

Regulatory focus as a personality variable and a 'motivational' principle determines individuals' responses (through promotion and prevention focus mechanisms) to multiple stimuli and situations. Employees could develop four distinguishable personality characters based on the two regulatory foci; these could be named as "achievers", "conservatives", "rationalists", and "indifferent". The "achiever" is the employee for whom promotion focus prevails and determines his or her decisions and behaviour towards work and the organization. The "conservative": is exactly the opposite: prevention focus prevails and guides decisions and work behaviour. The third character, the "rationalist" is the employee who analyzes the costs and benefits of a work situation, measures and thoroughly examines the conditions and work assignments before he or she ultimately decides to accept or reject the risk or the job opportunity. In other words, the "rationalist" exemplifies both promotion and prevention focus behaviours, depending on the specific circumstances and situations. The fourth character is the employee who does not want to be involved in any work assignment and prefers to remain isolated and indifferent from work and the organization, overall. The "indifferent" is a person who is neither promotion focused nor prevention focused.

These characters intervene into the relationship between the two major organizational and job attitudes (organizational commitment and job satisfaction) by moderating the structure of this relationship. The recognition by management of these characters helps them to construct effective policies that could increase commitment and satisfaction of their

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employees. Furthermore, the substantial differences exhibited between private and public sector employees, provide further and demanding need to investigate how, and in what ways, regulatory focus characters moderate the structural relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction into these sectors of the economy. Figure 5.1 presents the conceptual framework for Study 3 of the research.

Figure 5.1: The conceptual framework for Study 3
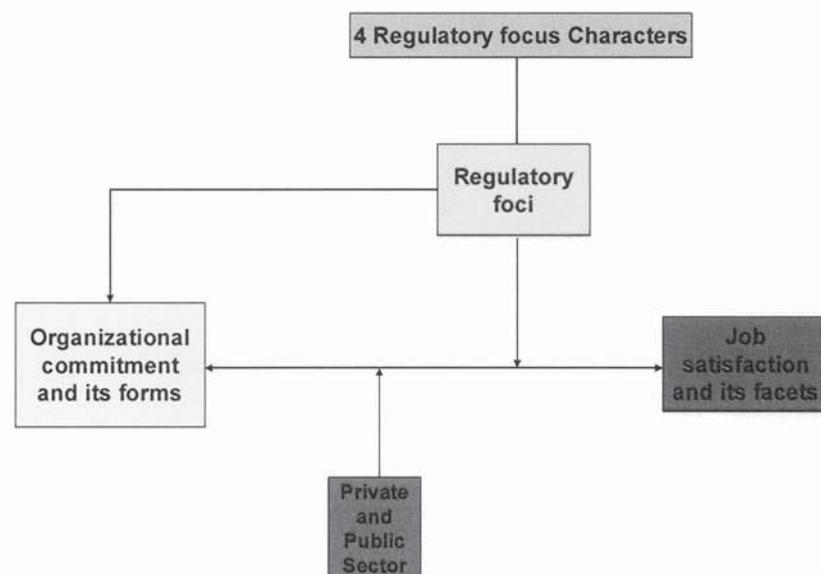
So far the research has hypothesized that in the private sector, the relationship of continuance commitment and extrinsic satisfaction is moderated by regulatory focus (H4) and in the public sector, the relationship between normative commitment and extrinsic satisfaction is moderated by regulatory focus (H5). Furthermore, it has been shown that the two regulatory focus states develop into four distinguishable characters. However, not all characters have the same effect on commitment and satisfaction, and the characters that dominate and have stronger intervention in this relationship are the "rationalist" (the employees who measure and calculate the costs and benefits of their actions and the management policies exercised on them) and the "conservative" (the employees who seek for security and safety in the working

place – the prevention focused individuals). The reason is that extrinsic satisfaction deals mainly with the external rewards and satisfactions experienced by the employee and these two regulatory focus characters assess primarily the external, monetary and measurable results and benefits accrued from a job or an assignment. Thus, the research hypotheses based on these analyses are:

Hypothesis 7: In the <u>private sector</u> the relationship between extrinsic satisfaction and continuance commitment is *stronger* for "rationalists" and "conservatives" than any other regulatory focus character.

Hypothesis 8: In the <u>public sector</u> the relationship between extrinsic satisfaction and normative commitment is *stronger* for "rationalists" and "conservatives" than any other regulatory focus character.

Furthermore, it has been hypothesized that in the private sector, continuance commitment and intrinsic satisfaction relate to each other and in the public sector normative commitment and intrinsic satisfaction do the same. This sort of relationship is also, as previously, moderated by the four regulatory focus characters. In this case, the character that dominates and has stronger intervention into the commitment – satisfaction relationship is the "achiever" (the employees who strive for their self-ideal, for progression and advancement – the promotion focused individuals). The reason is that intrinsic satisfaction deals mainly with the internal rewards and the personal feelings of satisfaction as felt by each employee and this particular regulatory focus character assesses primarily the internalized feelings and ideals as determined by each individual. Thus, the research hypotheses based on these analyses are:

Hypothesis 9: In the <u>private sector</u> the relationship between intrinsic satisfaction and continuance commitment is *stronger* for "achievers" than any other regulatory focus character.

Hypothesis 10: In the <u>public sector</u> the relationship between intrinsic satisfaction and normative commitment is *stronger* for "achievers" than any other regulatory focus character.

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5.4. Methodology

This area of the research is tested via a quantitative study by using structured and previously published questionnaires – in other international studies or in the present research. These scales are also translated into Greek. There use in previous stages of this research, provided adequate guarantees of their good psychometric properties. The job satisfaction measure is once again based on the MSQ. In order to measure organizational commitment the scales on affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment designed Meyer et al.'s (1993) have been used, since they have been tested in the current research at a previous stage. The regulatory focus scale with its two constructs – promotion focus and prevention focus is taken from one of the two self-report and 'multiple responses' scales found in the international literature: one used is by Lockwood et al. (2002) and the other is the Regulatory Focus Questionnaire (RFQ) by Higgins, Friedman, Harlow, Idson, Ayduk, and Taylor (2001). However, Johnson and Chang (under review) developed a new scale – named as work-based regulatory focus scale – having six promotion focus items and prevention focus items. Since this scale is not being tested regarding reliability and validity, the decision taken was to use the more common scale instead. Thus, promotion and prevention focus are measured using a Greek translation and adaptation of the promotion and prevention focus questionnaire (Lockwood et al., 2002). This scale has overall ten items, five for each regulatory focus state. The original scale comprises eighteen items, nine per regulatory focus, but four items from each state are omitted as they measure promotion focus and prevention focus states with respect to academic goals and performance. As with the other measures, the items are scored on a 7-point scale, having as endpoints 1 = Complete disagreement, and 7 = Complete agreement. Also, positive and negative affect was measured via PANAS (Watson et al., 1988).

5.5. Descriptive statistics of the demographics

The sample consists of 521 employees from the Northern Central part of Greece, drawn from both private and public sector employment. The sample is evenly split between private and public sector organizations and between male and female respondents. 258 employees participate from the private sector and 263 from the public sector. The private sector participants are drawn from 33 organizations, ranging from family owned small businesses to medium-sized industrial or commercial enterprises. The public sector respondents work in six governmental authorities (at a regional and local level) and tax and customs agencies in secure and primarily white-collar employment. The overall response rate is 67%. The demographic characteristics of the sample are: 48.5% males and 51.5% females; mean age is 31 years; mean organizational tenure 7 years; of the total sample, about 84% of the sample is non-supervisory employees with approximately 16% heading functional departments of their organizations; the educational level is: 33.3% completed Secondary Education; 24.1% graduated from a Technological Educational Institute; 30.2% are University graduates; and 12.4% have a Postgraduate diploma.

5.6. Descriptive statistics of the variables

Private sector employees are satisfied with their jobs, especially intrinsically satisfied. They are also, in general committed to their organizations, more affectively and less normatively. These employees have high mean values on promotion focus and moderate on prevention focus; whereas, the affectivity scales result in excepted mean values – high for PA and low for NA (see Table 5.1).

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Table 5.1: Descriptive statistics of the variables – private sector (Study 3)

Variable	N	Min	Max	m	s.d.
JS	258	2	7	4.76	1.00
ES	257	2	7	4.72	1.07
IS	258	2	7	4.82	1.06
AC	258	1	7	4.57	1.35
CC	258	2	7	4.50	.95
NC	257	1	7	4.31	1.35
PA	250	3	7	5.01	.78
NA	249	1	7	2.85	.79
PREV	258	2	7	4.31	.92
PROM	258	3	7	5.52	.76

Job satisfaction has, also, rather high mean values for the public sector sample; although in this case, extrinsic satisfaction had higher value than intrinsic satisfaction. Continuance commitment has the highest mean value from the three forms of commitment, and normative commitment the lowest. Promotion focus and prevention focus have similar results as with the private sector, as do the affectivity subscales – PA and NA (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.2: Descriptive statistics of the variables – public sector (Study 3)

Variable	N	Min	Max	m	s.d.
JS	263	2	7	4.63	.88
ES	263	2	7	4.72	.84
IS	263	2	7	4.53	1.09
AC	263	2	7	4.59	1.20
CC	263	2	7	4.65	1.17
NC	263	1	7	4.29	1.20
PA	263	2	7	4.88	.97
NA	263	1	6	2.59	.80
PREV	263	1	7	4.52	1.02
PROM	263	3	7	5.36	.84

5.7. Correlation and reliability analysis

This private sector sample presents strong positive intercorrelations among job satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, affective commitment, and normative commitment. Continuance commitment moderately correlates with job satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, affective commitment, and normative commitment. Prevention focus is weakly but positively correlated with job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, and negative affect. On the other hand, promotion focus is rather weakly correlated with job satisfaction and its facets, affective commitment and normative commitment, and more strongly to positive affect. This variable is negatively correlated with negative affect. Positive affect is positively correlated with all variables, apart from continuance commitment, and negative affect is negatively correlated with job satisfaction and its facets, as well as to positive affect. All variables have high

reliability coefficients[15] apart from continuance commitment and prevention focus (see Table 5.3). The low reliability for prevention focus could be explained due to the shortened version adopted for the purposes of this study, i.e., five items instead of nine.

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[15] If item 14 ("If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere") is deleted from the continuance commitment scale then $\alpha = .58$.

Table 5.3: Correlation and reliability analysis – private sector (Study 3)

	α	JS	ES	IS	AC	CC	NC	PA	NA	PREV
JS	.92									
ES	.87	.94**								
IS	.89	.93**	.74**							
AC	.82	.66**	.60**	.64**						
CC	.51	.13*	.16**	.08	.16**					
NC	.82	.61**	.57**	.58**	.76**	.36**	.			
PA	.80	.40**	.34**	.42**	.35**	.00	.25**			
NA	.80	-.20**	-.18**	-.21**	-.04	.00	-.04	-.34**		
PREV	.48	.13*	.08	.16**	.20**	.31**	.29**	.07	.18*	
PROM	.72	.24**	.18**	.29**	.23**	.02	.14*	.47**	-.27**	.07

Notes: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Job satisfaction and its facets and the three organizational commitment forms are strongly positively correlated with each other. Positive affect is strongly correlated with all previous variables, as well as, to promotion focus, and negatively correlated with negative affect. On the other hand, negative affect is negatively correlated with job satisfaction, its facets, organizational commitment forms, and promotion focus. Promotion focus is positively correlated with all previous variables; apart from negative affect (negative correlation). Finally, prevention focus is positively correlated with continuance commitment. The reliability coefficients are all high, except from prevention focus, which is lower than the others, but, however, still strong. Table 5.4 shows all intercorrelations.

Table 5.4: Correlation and reliability analysis - public sector (Study 3)

	α	JS	ES	IS	AC	CC	NC	PA	NA	PREV
JS	.90									
ES	.77	.90**								
IS	.90	.93**	.67**							
AC	.83	.52**	.40**	.53**						
CC	.80	.22**	.25**	.16**	.22**					
NC	.84	.42**	.37**	.40**	.67**	.24**				
PA	.90	.38**	.28**	.40**	.51**	.18**	47**			
NA	.88	-.41**	-.30**	-.44**	-.26**	-.17**	-.28**	-.37**		
PREV	.69	-.10	-.06	-.11	-.05	.22**	.03	-.09	.09	
PROM	.80	.34**	.29**	.32**	.35**	.18**	.41**	.50**	-.20**	-.08

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

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Multiple criteria are used to assess within-group agreement (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). As can be seen in Table 5.5, the $\bar{r}_{wgj}$ index (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984) and the $\bar{r}_{wgj}$* index (Lindell, Brandt, & Whitney, 1999) with a uniform distribution were below the conventional cut-off value of .70 except for promotion focus. Likewise, the ICC(1) index suggested that only 5% of the variance in regulatory focus and commitment was explained by group membership, and ICC(2) revealed low reliability of the group means. Concentrating on regulatory focus, the initial question was if the measures reflect only individual differences or shared situational influences resulting in organizational level promotion or prevention foci as well. In general, the values of the $\bar{r}_{wgj}$ indices are low to moderate, suggesting that there is some similarity within organizations regarding promotion and prevention focus. This could mean that common experiences (e.g., leadership processes) within organizations have shaped regulatory focus or that individuals with similar dispositions tend to work in the same organizations. A situation of no within-group agreement would have provided a clearer interpretation of our measures. The most plausible interpretation, then, is that the measures of promotion and prevention focus reflect a mixture of dispositions and situational influences, with the evidence for shared prevention focus being weaker than for promotion focus.

Table 5.5: Within-group homogeneity indices for both sectors (Study 3)

	$\bar{r}_{wg.j}$	$\bar{r}_{wg.j}$ *	ICC(1)	ICC(2)
AC	.61	.27	.02	.23
CC	.57	.23	.03	.31
NC	.56	.23	.05	.39
PROM	.92	.71	.03	.26
PREV	.67	.37	.02	.18

Turning now, to the correlations of the variables with the demographics, as far as the private sector sample is concerned, gender is negatively but weakly correlated with affective commitment, age is positively correlated with all three commitment forms and with prevention focus, time of service in the organization is also positively correlated with the same demographics as age. Position in the organizational hierarchy is positively correlated with job satisfaction and its facets, with affective and normative commitment, and educational background only negatively correlated with prevention focus (see Table 5.6).

Table 5.6: Correlations between the variables and demographics - private sector (Study 3)

	GENDER	AGE	SERV	HIER	EDUC
JS	-.05	.05	.07	.22**	.06
ES	-.07	.02	.03	.15*	.04
IS	-.03	.08	.11	.27**	.06
AC	-.15*	.19**	.22**	.24**	-.03
CC	.03	.23**	.13*	.08	.03
NC	-.09	.16**	.16*	.21**	.01
PROMFOC	-.10	.04	.01	.06	.06
PREVFOC	.05	.14*	.13*	-.07	-.14*

Notes: N = 258 ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level; Gender: 1 = male, 2 = female; Age: 1 = 22-35; 2 = 36-45; 3 = 46-59; 4 = 60+; Years of service: 1 = 0-6; 2 = 7-12; 3 = 13-21; 4 = 22+; Level on organizational hierarchy: 1 = subordinate; 2 = supervisor; 3 = manager; Educational background: 1 = High school; 2 = Technical school graduate; 3 = University graduate; 4 = Postgraduate

On the other hand, gender has negative correlations with job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, affective commitment, normative commitment, and prevention focus, age and service in the organization positive with affective commitment, position in the hierarchy positive with job satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, affective commitment, and normative commitment. Educational background is only positively correlated with job satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction (see Table 5.7).

Table 5.7: Correlations between the variables and demographics - public sector (Study 3)

	GENDER	AGE	SERV	HIER	EDUC
JS	-.14*	-.01	.05	.18**	.16**
ES	-.09	-.07	-.02	.12	.18**
IS	-.15*	.04	.11	.21**	.12
AC	-.17**	.16**	.20**	.27**	-.06
CC	.07	.11	.10	-.11	-.02
NC	-.15*	.06	.10	.17**	-.08
PROMFOC	-.12	.04	.10	.08	-.02
PREVFOC	.15*	.05	-.03	-.04	-.11

Notes: N = 263 ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level; Gender: 1 = male, 2 = female; Age: 1 = 22-35; 2 = 36-45; 3 = 46-59; 4 = 60+; Years of service: 1 = 0-6; 2 = 7-12; 3 = 13-21; 4 = 22+; Level on organizational hierarchy: 1 = subordinate; 2 = supervisor; 3 = manager; Educational background: 1 = High school; 2 = Technical school graduate; 3 = University graduate; 4 = Postgraduate

5.8. Analyses of the hypotheses

To ascertain the differential relationships between regulatory foci and components of commitment, it is necessary to ensure that these relationships would not differ due to differential reliability of the independent variables. Indeed, preliminary analyses indicate that the measure of prevention focus was less reliable (Cronbach's α = .48 to α = .69) than the measure of promotion focus (α = .72 to α = .80). Therefore, a decision is taken to treat promotion and prevention focus as latent variables in a structural equation model so as to

estimate their relationships at the construct level. Because the research sampled multiple employees from the same organizations, the statistical analyses have to take this non-independence into account. The analysis accomplished this by using the TYPE=COMPLEX method in the Mplus Software (Muthén & Muthén, 2007), which corrects the standard errors for the bias due to clustering. This method limits the number of parameters that can be estimated to the number of clusters in the sample (i.e., 36). Therefore, it is difficult to specify full measurement models for the regulatory foci using all available items. The compromise is to use two item parcels and one single item as indicators for each latent regulatory focus.

The complete structural equation model underlying the first three hypothesis tests is shown in Figure 5.2. As it is expected based on the poor reliability estimates for prevention focus, the fit of the model is suboptimal, but acceptable, χ^2 (20) = 63.30, p < .001, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .07. Although in future work it would be advisable to use a better measure of prevention focus, for current purposes the research contents to correct for *differential* measurement error in the regulatory foci by estimating them as latent variables. All paths extending from the regulatory foci to the components of commitment were significantly positive (p < .05). The first three hypotheses (H1, H2 and H3) are tested by using the Wald χ^2 test on equality constraints on the structural parameters relating the regulatory foci to a given component of commitment. As expected, promotion focus has a significantly stronger (p < .05) effect on affective commitment (β = .32) than does prevention focus (β = .09) (H1), and prevention focus has a significantly stronger (p < .05) effect on continuance commitment (β = .30) than does promotion focus (β = .10) (H3). As for normative commitment, the hypothesis cannot be rejected that the effects of both regulatory foci (β = .31 for promotion focus and β = .17 for prevention focus) are equally strong (p = .19) (H2).

Figure 5.2: Relationships between regulatory focus and organizational commitment
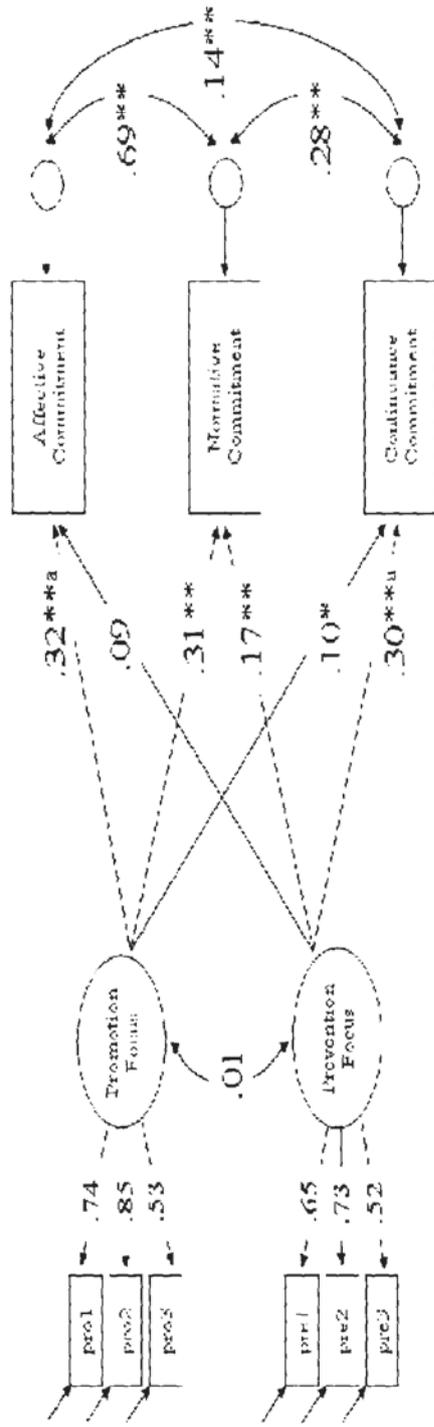
$N = 520$, $\chi^2 = 63.30$, $df = 20$, $p \leq .001$, CFI $= .95$, RMSEA $= .07$

Note: Values represent standardized parameter estimates, $^* = p < .05$, $^{**} = p < .01$, $a =$ significantly stronger effect of one regulatory focus compared with the other.

For the examination of Hypotheses 4 and 4a (H4 & H4a), 5 and 5a (H5 & H5a), and 6 and 6a (H6 & H6a) three-way hierarchical regression analyses are conducted having as dependent variables the forms of organizational commitment – affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment - independent variables the facets of job satisfaction – extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction – moderators the regulatory focus states – promotion focus and prevention focus – and control variables – affect (positive affectivity and negative affectivity), gender, age, educational background, level on the organizational hierarchy, and years of service. The variables before they are entered into the regression analysis are z-standardized.

Tables 5.8 and 5.9 present the results from the regression analyses for continuance commitment, the facets of job satisfaction, and the regulatory focus states. As it can be seen, the relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction facets is moderated by regulatory focus in the private sector. In both instances, three-way interactions are statistically significant at the 0.05 significance level. The b coefficient is -0.13 for extrinsic satisfaction and -0.10 for intrinsic satisfaction. The regression lines for this case are shown in Figures 5.3 and 5.4. Simple slopes for the relationships between extrinsic satisfaction and continuance commitment moderated by regulatory focus characters are significant for low promotion focus/high prevention focus – "conservatives" (b= .33, t = 3.10, p < .01) and for high promotion focus/high prevention focus – "rationalists" (b= .22, t = 2.61, p < .01). "Conservative" employees become more continuance committed as they move from low to high levels of extrinsic satisfaction, than "rationalists". This result is in line with H7 since "conservatives" and rationalists" are the only two regulatory focus characters that create significant relations between extrinsic satisfaction and continuance commitment. On the other hand, simple slopes for intrinsic satisfaction predicting continuance commitment are only significant for low promotion focus/low prevention focus – "indifferent" (b= -.21, t = 2.26, p < .05). "Indifferent" employees become less continuance committed as they move from low

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to high levels of extrinsic satisfaction. This result does not support or verify H9, since it has been hypothesized that "achievers" (high promotion focus/low prevention focus) exhibit the strongest and, in effect, the most statistically significant result for the extrinsic satisfaction/continuance commitment relationship.

Table 5.8: Hierarchical regression analysis for continuance commitment, extrinsic satisfaction, and regulatory focus states - private sector (Study 3)

	Continuance commitment					
	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
	b	SE b	b	SE b	b	SE b
Extrinsic satisfaction	.18**	.06	.17**	.06	.16*	.06
Promotion focus	-.03	.07	-.04	.07	-.01	.07
Prevention focus	.25**	.06	.26**	.06	.30**	.06
Positive affectivity	-.07	.07	-.07	.07	-.07	.07
Negative affectivity	.00	.06	.02	.06	.03	.06
Gender	.02	.06	.02	.06	.02	.06
Age	.17	.10	.17	.10	.19	.10
Educational background	.03	.061	.02	.06	.02	.06
Organizational hierarchy	.01	.06	-.01	.07	-.04	.07
Years of service	-.12	.10	-.11	.10	-.10	.09
ES * PROMFOC			.07	.05	.05	.05
ES * PREVFOC			.07	.06	.13*	.06
PROMFOC * PREVFOC			-.12*	.06	-.10	.06
ES * PROM *PREV					-.13**	.05
R^2	.17		.19		.21	
Adjusted R^2	.12		.13		.16	

Notes: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, N = 258

Table 5.9: Hierarchical regression analysis for continuance commitment, intrinsic satisfaction, and regulatory focus states - private sector (Study 3)

	Continuance commitment					
	Step 1		Step 1		Step 3	
	b	SE b	b	SE b	b	SE b
Intrinsic satisfaction	.04	.07	.02	.07	.02	.07
Promotion focus	-.03	.07	-.04	.07	-.00	.07
Prevention focus	.27**	.06	.28**	.06	.31**	.06
Positive affectivity	-.02	.07	-.03	.07	-.04	.07
Negative affectivity	-.01	.07	-.00	.07	-.00	.07
Gender	.02	.06	.03	.06	.02	.06
Age	.18	.10	.17	.10	.17	.10
Educational background	.03	.06	.01	.06	.02	.06
Organizational hierarchy	.03	.07	.02	.07	-.01	.07
Years of service	-.13	.10	-.11	.10	-.09	.10
IS * PROMFOC			.12	.06	.10	.06
IS * PREVFOC			.03	.06	.09	.06
PROMFOC * PREVFOC			-.11	.06	-.10	.06
IS * PROM *PREV					-.10*	.05
R^2	.14		.16		.18	
Adjusted R^2	.09		.11		.12	

Notes: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, N = 258

Figure 5.3: Regression lines for extrinsic satisfaction, continuance commitment and regulatory focus (private sector)
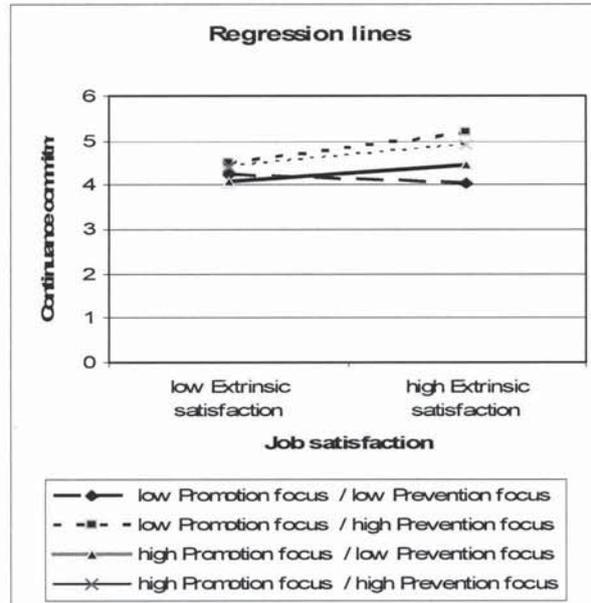
Figure 5.4: Regression lines for intrinsic satisfaction, continuance commitment and regulatory focus (private sector)
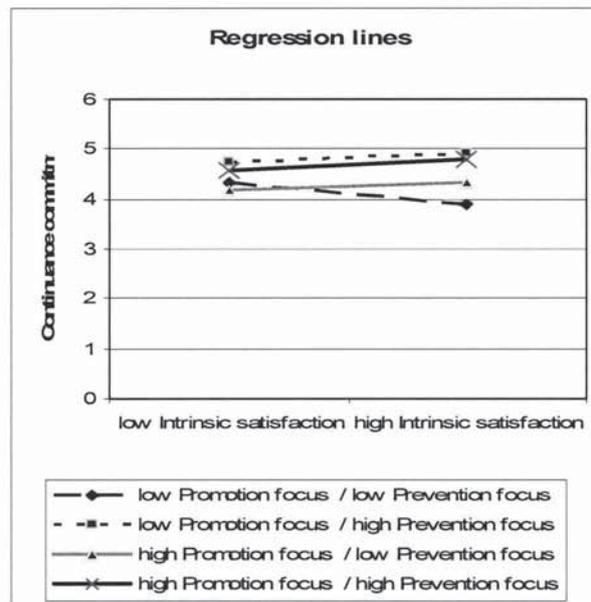
As far as H5 and H5a are concerned, Tables 5.10 and 5.11 present the results from the regression analyses for normative commitment, the facets of job satisfaction, and the

regulatory focus states in the public sector. The relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction facets is moderated by regulatory focus in this sector. In both instances – extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction, three-way interactions are statistically significant at the 0.01 significance level. The b coefficient is -0.23 for extrinsic satisfaction and -0.21 for intrinsic satisfaction. The regression lines for this case are shown in Figures 5.5 and 5.6. Simple slopes for extrinsic satisfaction predicting normative commitment are significant for high promotion focus/low prevention focus – "achievers" (b = .31, t = 2.84, p < .01) and for low promotion focus/high prevention focus – "conservatives" (b = .59, t = 4.89, p < .01). "Conservative" employees become more normatively committed as they move from low to high levels of extrinsic satisfaction, than "achievers". This result partially supports H8, since only "conservatives" manage to produce significant results and not "rationalists". On the other hand, simple slopes for the relationships between intrinsic satisfaction and normative commitment moderated by regulatory focus characters are only significant for low promotion focus/high prevention focus – "conservatives" (b= .59, t = 4.07, p < .01). "Conservative" employees become more normatively committed as they move from low to high levels of extrinsic satisfaction. "Achievers" (high promotion focus/low prevention focus) have marginal significant results (b= .20, t = 1.62, p < .10). This result does not support H10, since "achievers" do not portray statistically significant results beyond any dispute.

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Table 5.10: Hierarchical regression analysis for normative commitment, extrinsic satisfaction, and regulatory focus states - public sector (Study 3)

	Normative commitment					
	Step 1		Step 1		Step 3	
	b	SE b	b	SE b	b	SE b
Extrinsic satisfaction	.28**	.07	.28**	.07	.29**	.07
Promotion focus	.22**	.07	.20**	.08	.14	.08
Prevention focus	.12	.06	.12	.07	.22**	.07
Positive affectivity	.36**	.08	.37**	.08	.43**	.08
Negative affectivity	-.05	.07	-.05	.08	-.02	.07
Gender	-.11	.07	-.10	.07	-.08	.07
Age	.01	.10	.01	.10	-.01	.10
Educational background	-.10	.07	-.10	.07	-.09	.07
Organizational hierarchy	.08	.07	.08	.07	.11	.07
Years of service	.02	.09	.03	.10	.01	.09
ES * PROMFOC			-.06	.07	-.05	.06
ES * PREVFOC			.01	.08	.11	.09
PROMFOC * PREVFOC			-.00	.07	-.04	.07
ES * PROM *PREV					-.23**	.07
R^2	.35		.35		.38	
Adjusted R^2	.32		.31		.34	

Note: ** $p < .01$, N = 263

Table 5.11: Hierarchical regression analysis for normative commitment, intrinsic satisfaction, and regulatory focus states - public sector (Study 3)

| | Normative commitment | | | | | |
| | Step 1 | | Step 1 | | Step 3 | |
	b	SE b	b	SE b	b	SE b
Intrinsic satisfaction	.24**	.08	.26**	.08	.25**	.08
Promotion focus	.24**	.07	.20**	.08	.16*	.08
Prevention focus	.13*	.07	.14*	.07	.23**	.07
Positive affectivity	.33**	.08	.35**	.08	.38**	.08
Negative affectivity	-.03	.08	-.06	.08	-.02	.08
Gender	-.11	.07	-.08	.07	-.08	.07
Age	-.00	.10	.01	.10	-.01	.10
Educational background	-.09	.07	-.09	.07	-.08	.07
Organizational hierarchy	.07	.07	.06	.07	.08	.07
Years of service	.00	.10	.03	.10	.03	.10
IS * PROMFOC			-.16*	.07	-.10	.07
IS * PREVFOC			.04	.07	.13	.08
PROMFOC * PREVFOC			-.06	.07	-.08	.07
IS * PROM *PREV					*-.21**	.08
R^2	.33		.35		.36	
Adjusted R^2	.30		.31		.32	

Note: ** $p < .01$, N = 263

Figure 5.5: Regression lines for extrinsic satisfaction, normative commitment and regulatory focus (public sector)
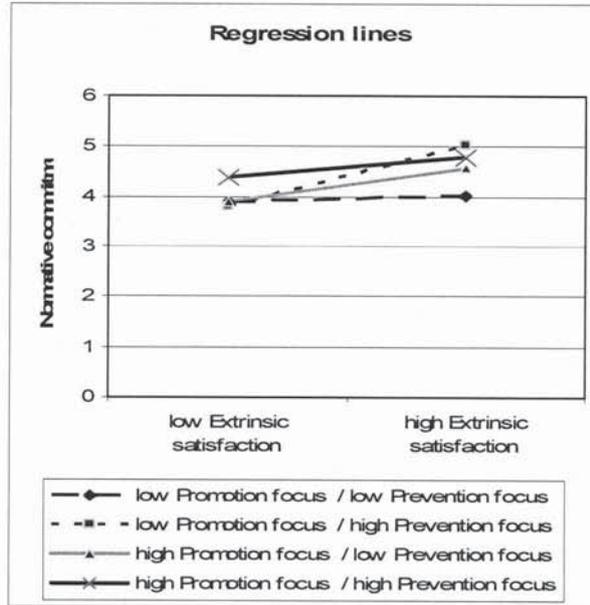
Figure 5.6: Regression lines for intrinsic satisfaction, normative commitment and regulatory focus (public sector)
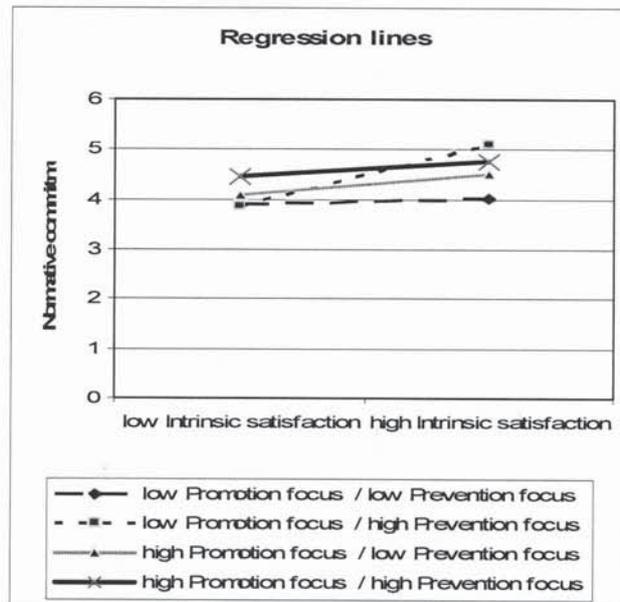
Finally, in order to test H6 and H6a, hierarchical regression analysis is conducted for both samples together and three-way interactions are discovered only for extrinsic satisfaction

and affective commitment. The results show that the regulatory foci moderate only the relationship between extrinsic satisfaction and affective commitment, and not that between intrinsic satisfaction and affective commitment. Thus, H6 is confirmed, but not H6a. Tables 5.12 and 5.13 show these extracted relationships.

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Table 5.12: Hierarchical regression analysis for affective commitment, extrinsic satisfaction, and regulatory focus states - both sectors (Study 3)

	Affective commitment					
	Step 1		Step 1		Step 3	
	b	SE b	b	SE b	b	SE b
Extrinsic satisfaction	.61**	.05	.60**	.05	.61**	.05
Promotion focus	.09*	.05	.12*	.05	.13*	.05
Prevention focus	.05	.05	.05	.05	.06	.05
Positive affectivity	.13**	.05	.13**	.05	.12**	.05
Negative affectivity	.02	.05	.03	.05	.03	.05
Gender	-.05	.05	-.05	.05	-.05	.05
Age	.17**	.06	.17**	.06	.17**	.06
Educational background	-.04	.05	-.05	.05	-.04	.05
ES * PROMFOC			-.10*	.04	.02	.05
ES * PREVFOC			.04	.03	-.08	.04
PROMFOC * PREVFOC					.09**	.04
ES * PROM *PREV					-.10**	.04
R^2	.31		.32		.33	
Adjusted R^2	.30		.30		.31	

Note: ** $p < .01$, N = 263

Table 5.13: Hierarchical regression analysis for affective commitment, intrinsic satisfaction, and regulatory focus states - both sectors (Study 3)

| | Affective commitment | | | | | |
| | Step 1 | | Step 1 | | Step 3 | |
	b	SE b	b	SE b	b	SE b
Intrinsic satisfaction	.66**	.04	.65**	.05	.65**	.05
Promotion focus	.05	.05	.09	.05	.09	.05
Prevention focus	.04	.05	.04	.05	.05	.05
Positive affectivity	.11*	.05	.11*	.05	.11*	.05
Negative affectivity	.00	.05	.01	.05	.01	.05
Gender	-.12**	.05	-.12**	.05	-.12**	.05
Age	.10	.06	.10	.06	.10	.06
Educational background	-.04	.05	-.04	.05	-.04	.05
IS * PROMFOC			.06	.04	.05	.05
IS * PREVFOC			-.11*	.04	-.10*	.05
PROMFOC * PREVFOC					.05	.03
IS * PROM *PREV					-.04	.04
R^2	.59		.59		.59	
Adjusted R^2	.34		.35		.35	

Note: ** $p < .01$, N = 263

5.9. Discussion of the results

The argument raised in the present study is for a more nuanced pattern of predictions regarding the links between regulatory focus and commitment. Specifically, it is predicted that a promotion focus would be more strongly related to affective commitment than a prevention focus, and that a prevention focus would be more strongly related to continuance commitment than a promotion focus. In contrast, it is predicted that promotion and prevention would have equally strong effects on normative commitment. The estimated parameters of the structural equation model supported all of these predictions.

These findings represent the first step in establishing empirical linkages between regulatory focus and organizational commitment. The findings are especially encouraging regarding normative and continuance commitment, considering that their antecedents are relatively under-researched (Meyer et al., 2004). The fact that both promotion and prevention focus have positive effects on normative commitment that are of comparable size is consistent with Gellatly et al.'s (2006) notion of the 'dual nature' of normative commitment. Gellatly and colleagues argued that the affective and continuance components of commitment provide a context for normative commitment. The present results help to better understand this distinction between normative commitment experienced as moral imperative versus indebted obligation. Considering employees in a promotion focus, results from this study suggest these employees are likely to develop a stronger affective commitment than continuance commitment. This makes for a context in which normative commitment is experienced as a moral imperative, which is also reminiscent of earlier work linking commitment to endorsement of the Protestant Work Ethic (Kidron, 1978). Employees in a prevention focus are likely to develop a stronger continuance commitment than affective commitment, which makes for a context in which normative commitment is experienced as an indebted obligation.

Thus, the interaction effects obtained by Gellatly and colleagues might reflect unobserved heterogeneity regarding regulatory focus.

The first three research hypotheses proved to be true and in the private sector extrinsic satisfaction/continuance commitment and intrinsic satisfaction/continuance commitment were moderated by promotion focus and prevention focus. In the public sector the regulatory focus states moderated the extrinsic satisfaction/normative commitment and intrinsic satisfaction/normative commitment relationship. As far as the moderation for the extrinsic satisfaction/affective commitment and intrinsic satisfaction/affective commitment relationship, this was found to be in both sectors of the economy only for the former case. The moderation effect addresses 'when' or 'for whom' a predictor variable – organizational commitment – is more strongly related to an outcome variable – job satisfaction (Frazier, Tix, & Barron, 2004). In other words, the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction is stronger when regulatory focus has high scores. The moderating effect of regulatory focus was evident only for the extrinsic satisfaction/affective commitment relationship. This result could be explained when it is considered that the analysis conducted was for employees working in both sectors and extrinsic satisfaction is more tangible and generally interpretable by employees than intrinsic satisfaction, which is more subjective and personally interpretable. It seems that employees feel more confident to assess their extrinsic components of satisfaction, which are more evident, than to relate their satisfaction with the job they do, with respect to opportunities provided by management, or recognition and support given by supervisors. On the other hand, an explanation for the unjustified hypothesis with respect to the moderation of regulatory focus on intrinsic satisfaction/affective commitment could be the low reliability found for the prevention focus scale. This study used a shortened version of the regulatory focus scale, since the items deleted were measuring self-regulation from academic performance or life concerns that were unclear to Greek respondents, as seen from the pilot study conducted.

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Turning to the regulatory focus characters, the results were mixed. On the hypothesis arguing that in the private sector the extrinsic satisfaction/continuance commitment relationship is stronger for "rationalists" (high promotion focus/high prevention focus) and for "conservatives" (low promotion focus/high prevention focus) it was statistically supported. It has been also hypothesized that in the public sector the extrinsic satisfaction/normative commitment relationship will be stronger for "rationalists" and "conservatives" than any other regulatory focus character; however, only "conservatives" managed to produce statistically significant results and not "rationalists". This result could be explained due to the nature of the employment relationship in the public sector and the bureaucratic and hierarchical system of its organization. "Rationalists" in the public sector may express different dispositions than "rationalists" in the private sector, or that the situational factors could influence the final relationship between the attitudes. The last two hypotheses are not supported since "achievers" (high promotion focus/low prevention focus) in the private sector exhibited the strongest relationship for the extrinsic satisfaction/continuance commitment relationship and not for the intrinsic satisfaction/continuance commitment one and "achievers" in the public sector did not prove to have the stronger relationship between intrinsic satisfaction and normative commitment. This outcome could be due to the fact that extrinsic satisfaction is easier assessed than intrinsic satisfaction, and may be the "achievers" look for the more tangible aspects from their job. However, it is important to point out that the effect of dispositions and of situational factors on this moderating relationship is still unclear. Further studies need to be conducted, both confirmatory and qualitative. Moreover, probably another scale for the measurement of regulatory focus has to be used that will be more work-focused.

5.10. Implications and further research

More generally, the results point to the important role that regulatory focus may play in affecting the different components of commitment. This could have practical implications for personnel selection, development, and leadership. Depending on the nature of work, organizations may be inclined predominantly to select promotion or prevention focused employees. However, they may not anticipate the potential consequences such a selection strategy may have for the resulting commitment profiles. Likewise, these results may be useful for personnel development and leadership in those different regulatory foci could be made salient with predictable consequences for organizational commitment.

The results also show that regulatory focus moderates differently the relation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment according to the type of employment. In other words, there can be a dual moderation: one based on self-regulation and another based on the economic sector. This finding should be examined in conjunction with the one drawn from the first study and should be important for the HRM practitioners and managers in the private and public sector alike. On the other hand, the results obtained from the examination of the regulatory focus characters should be interpreted with caution. It seems that only "conservatives" exhibit a stronger relationship between extrinsic satisfaction and continuance commitment (for the private sector) and between extrinsic satisfaction and normative commitment (for the public sector) showing that employees who tend to behave by safeguarding their interests, and their current job positions and status, are the ones that significantly positively relate satisfaction to commitment. There are also indications that "rationalists" exemplify these sorts of relationship; however, these have not been proved to exist for all types of employees.

So far, the discussion and analysis focused on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the commitment profiles and the moderating role of the economic sector and type of employment and of regulatory focus. The three independent studies managed to reveal and disclose important and new relationships for both the main parameters of the current research. Also, the examination was with respect to job-related attitudes and personality characteristics. There was no connection of these attitudes to job-related behaviours. This is important, since an attitude leads to a behavioural intention, which may lead to the development of an action, i.e., in this case the job performance. So, the fourth study introduces one of the most commonly used concepts for job-related behaviours that can be measured and assessed by self reports, i.e., organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The fourth study examines the type of relation exhibited among organizational commitment, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviour. In particular, it examines how job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and OCB. The next chapter analyzes the last part of the general conceptual framework, develops the relevant research hypotheses and proceeds to the quantitative research and the analysis and discussion of the results extracted from it.

CHAPTER 6: STUDY 4 – COMMITMENT AND THE EXTRA-MILE: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF JOB SATISFACTION

6.0. Chapter summary

The relationship between attitudes and behaviours, and particularly OCB, is discussed and a model is built asserting that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours. It has been hypothesized that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between the three forms of commitment – affective, normative, and continuance – and OCB. This mediation is further developed by arguing that loyal boosterism – one of the four OCB dimensions – has stronger mediation effect, compared to the other dimensions, personal industry, interpersonal helping and individual initiative. 646 individuals equally drawn from private and public sector in Greece responded to a structured questionnaire. The results validate the hypotheses, showing that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and OCB. Also, job satisfaction mediates the relationship between affective and normative commitment and loyal boosterism, more strongly than the other dimensions. Finally, the implications are discussed and suggestions for further research are proposed.

6.1. The relationship between attitudes and OCBs

So far, the research has been focused on the relationship between the attitudes themselves as expressed within the two economic sectors and also their relationship to self-regulation. The last part of this research examines the role of job satisfaction to organizational commitment/organizational citizenship behaviours relationship. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been studied in the relevant literature with respect to focal and contextual performance at work, with a particular attention paid on the way these attitudes relate to self-reported contextual performance, as expressed via organizational citizenship behaviours.

Williams and Anderson (1991) conducted a quantitative research with full-time American employees and found that the job cognition variables – both extrinsic and intrinsic – predict OCBs; however affective variables, such as organizational commitment, do not. Moorman (1993) reached a similar conclusion, finding that cognitive-based job satisfaction is better and more closely related to OCBs than an affective-based job satisfaction measure. Both studies did not conclude that job satisfaction is not related to OCBs, but that the cognitive measurements of job satisfaction produce better results than the affective ones. This could be explained by the content of the measurements used, since job satisfaction and OCBs were of a cognitive nature, than organizational commitment which was more of an affective nature.

Bolon (1997) conducted a field study in a large tertiary hospital in the US and 202 mainly nursing personnel participated in the study. He found that job satisfaction and organizational commitment were significantly correlated to the OCBI construct - these behaviours are directed toward individuals and comprising of altruism and courtesy as suggested by Williams and Anderson (1991). As far as the forms of commitment are concerned, continuance commitment was unrelated and normative commitment was only significantly related to this part of the construct that the citizenship behaviour is aimed towards co-worker. Another study conducted on government employees in Kuwait (Alotaibi, 2001) found that neither job satisfaction nor organizational commitment could be considered as antecedents or as predictors of OCBs. The researcher explained this finding on cultural specificity, since almost all previous studies were conducted in a Western or American cultural context, whereas, this study was in a Near Eastern, Arabic cultural environment. However, another non-Western study, this time conducted in the Sultanate of Oman (Kuehn & Al-Busaidi, 2002) on data collected from 153 employees working in the private and public sector, reached the conclusion that job satisfaction and normative commitment were significant predictors of OCB. Affective commitment could not predict organizational

citizenship behaviours, although this was initially hypothesized. It seems, that even though both previous studies conducted in an Arabic cultural environment, their contradictory conclusions reached, make them more culturally specific and less generalizable. Furthermore, LePine, Erez, and Johnson (2002) conducted a meta-analysis on OCB literature and research, and found strong support for the predictor relationship of job satisfaction and organizational commitment to various OCB measures and constructs. Similar conclusions reached by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) found that OCB is a consequence of the existence of organizational commitment. As it could be seen, results on the relationship between job-related attitudes and contextual performance are mixed; however, recent meta-analyses – as presented above – have shown that, by and large, job satisfaction and organizational commitment could be regarded as predictors of the organizational citizenship behaviours, irrespective of the measurement scales adopted.

More specifically, although various different measures and constructs are used for the measurement of OCBs, different studies found that organizational commitment predicts or correlates with organizational citizenship behaviours (cf. Williams & Anderson, 1991; McFarlane Shore & Wayne, 1993; Schappe, 1998). Moreover, Gautam, Van Dick, Wagner, Upadhyay, and Davis (2005) discovered that in Nepal there is a positive relation between affective and normative commitment on the one hand and the citizenship factors – compliance and altruism - on the other. Also, continuance commitment was negatively related to compliance and unrelated to altruism. This is expected since OCB defined as behaviour that goes beyond the basic requirements of the job; is to a large extent discretionary; and is of benefit to the organization (Lambert, 2006), is something that only a committed employee could exhibit. If someone feels uncommitted to the organization, he or she is highly unlikely to behave as a 'good soldier'. The social identity approach could serve as the theoretical background for the justification of this predictive relationship, since the identification of an individual with the group norms, values leads to the incorporation and internalization of these

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norms and values to one's self concept (cf. Haslam, 2001). This means, the stronger an employee is identified with the group, the more committed feels to the organization, and in the more positive behaviours towards work will be exemplified.

On the other hand, job satisfaction predicts or correlates with organizational citizenship behaviours (cf. Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Wegge, Van Dick, Fisher, Wecking, & Moltzen, 2006; Vigoda-Gadot & Angert, 2007; Van Dick, Van Knippenberg, Kerschreiter, Hertel, & Weiseke, 2008). Apart from the previously referred studies, Ackfeldt and Coote (2005) and Paulin, Ferguson, and Bergeron (2006) clearly state that a satisfied employee will exemplify extra-role behaviours, leading to higher performance. In short, the predictor relationship of job satisfaction to organizational citizenship behaviours is rooted on grounded theory and more specifically in the Social Exchange approach to Organizational Behaviour, where an individual 'returns' or 'pays back' the perceived fairness and the 'good HRM practices' by exemplifying extra-role performance, since he or she feels satisfied with the job and the task assignments performed (cf. Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2005: 71-76).

Finally, as far as organizational commitment is concerned, it leads to or predicts job satisfaction (cf. Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007; Vigoda-Gadot & Angert, 2007; Yousef, 2000; Farkas & Tetrick, 1989; Bateman & Strasser, 1984); in other words, an employee who feels committed towards the organization he or she works for will be satisfied with the job he or she is doing and the tasks assigned by management. A committed employee will be a satisfied one; whereas, the uncommitted will be dissatisfied, or at least, will not feel satisfaction with the job. Thus, relevant studies and theorizing have shown that organizational commitment has the ability to predict job satisfaction; although, the reversed situation could also be supported (cf. Williams & Frazer, 1986), mainly due to the attitudinal nature of the concepts.

This argument, leads to a general proposition that since organizational commitment leads to job satisfaction, and job satisfaction leads to organizational citizenship behaviours, and even more, organizational commitment predicts the appearance of these extra-role behaviours, then a type of relationship should exist among these three concepts. This relationship is the mediating one, i.e., job satisfaction works as mediator of the predictive relationship between organizational commitment and OCBs. Summarizing, the insofar theorizing, organizational commitment predicts extra-role performance since an individual who feels committed towards the organization, feels identified with the goals, norms, and values of this organization, is loyal to management directives and policies pursued and express a tendency to remain in the organization. By expressing these positive feelings to the organization, the job performance is not only the expected one, the focal performance, but even more, performance exceeds what is required by management and is showed through altruism, sportsmanship, courtesy, boosterism, etc. In other words, organizational citizenship behaviours are exposed by the individual. However, organizational commitment is a driving force that leads to positive feels towards one's job, i.e., the expression of job satisfaction. The individual perceives the job as part of his or her broad organizational membership and acts accordingly, i.e., performs well at work and even more, behaves as a 'good soldier'. The proposition made in this study is that organizational commitment explains organizational citizenship behaviours, but this relationship is mediated, at least in part, by job satisfaction. Moreover, these three concepts have significant relationships between them.

Following, the above argument, the major question is: which forms of organizational commitment manage to predict extra-role behaviours? Affective commitment is the emotional attachment to an organization, normative commitment is the cognitive sense of belongingness to an organization, based on the evaluation of relative individual versus organizational investments, and continuance commitment is the calculative form derived from the individual's ongoing investment in the organization and the availability of alternative

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employment of similar value. Thus, the later form of commitment implies that the employee makes a rational evaluation or choice of his or her stay in the organization, he or she measures the side bets of the decision. On the other hand, affective commitment is an intrinsic feeling that is subjectively expressed and could overcome objective conditions viewed within an organization. However, Meyer et al. (2002) meta-analysis shows that affective commitment has a strong predictive effect on positive job-related behaviours, such as, OCBs. Thus, it should be expected that an affectively committed employee will present in-role, as well as, extra-role behaviours at work.

As far as job satisfaction is concerned, this study adopts, as all other studies in this research, MSQ – which is more of a cognitive type of questionnaire (Moorman, 1993). Finally, organizational citizenship behaviours are extra-role, discretionary behaviours, that go beyond management expectations and job requirements, and intend to benefit the organization as a whole. Having said this, the mediating role of job satisfaction to the organizational commitment/OCBs relationship, should be more evident and will make more sense, when someone is examining this mediation with respect to affective commitment and normative commitment, and less, with respect to continuance commitment. Thus, the first research hypotheses state that:

Hypothesis 1: Job satisfaction *mediates* the relationship between affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours.

Hypothesis 2: Job satisfaction *mediates* the relationship between normative commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours.

Hypothesis 3: Job satisfaction *mediates* the relationship between continuance commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours.

There are some studies that related the job attitudes to the dimensions of OCBs, and discovered that job satisfaction is strongly related to loyal boosterism (cf. Blakely, Andrews

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& Fuller, 2003). Also, Moorman and Blakely (1995) and Moorman, Blakely, and Niehoff (1998) found that organizational citizenship behaviours' dimensions correlate with organizational commitment, loyal boosterism having the strongest correlation of all dimensions. Becker and Kernan (2003) showed that affective commitment to the organization is strongly and positively related to loyal boosterism; however, their proposition that continuance commitment to the organization was negatively related to loyal boosterism remained unsupported.

As already asserted, organizational commitment has three forms and OCBs are composed of four dimensions. Normative commitment is related to the employee's obligation to remain in the organization and affective commitment to his or her emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. These two 'positive' forms of commitment should be better and stronger predictors of organizational citizenship behaviours, than continuance commitment – the commitment associated with the personal cost of leaving the organization; the more 'negative' form of commitment. On the other hand, loyal boosterism is the type of OCB where the individual identifies with the organization and supports its image and reputation to the external environment – individuals, competitors, etc. Loyal boosterism, compared to the other dimensions of OCBs, has a more organizational and collective nature and this extra-role behaviour tends to be more related to the conscious and affective involvement of an employee in the organizational life. Thus, the following two research hypotheses are constructed:

Hypothesis 4: Job satisfaction is more *strongly* related to loyal boosterism, therefore the total effect (direct plus indirect effect) of affective commitment on loyal boosterism is *larger* that the effects of this form of commitment on the other OCB dimensions.

Hypothesis 5: Job satisfaction is more *strongly* related to loyal boosterism, therefore the total effect (direct plus indirect effect) of normative commitment on loyal boosterism is *larger* that the effects of this form of commitment on the other OCB dimensions.

Figure 6.1 presents the last part of this research, showing that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours.

Figure 6.1: The conceptual framework for Study 4
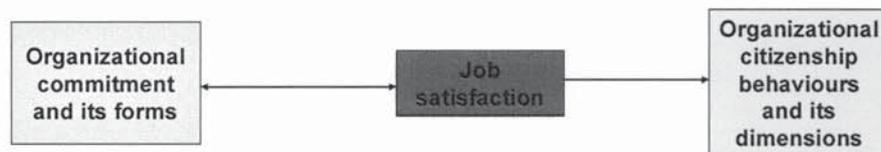
6.2. Methodology

As in the other field studies, job satisfaction is measured through a structured self-report questionnaire based on MSQ and organizational commitment was based on ACS, NCS, and CCS (Powell & Meyer, 2004). For the measurement of OCBs, the four dimensional 19-item scale of Moorman and Blakely (1995) is used. This scale has the following dimensions (Fields, 2002: 238):

Interpersonal helping (INHE) – with five items; consisting of altruistic behaviours (response to personal needs of co-workers when they deal with job-related tasks and problems).

Individual initiative (ININ) – with five items; referring to employee efforts to improve individual and group/team task performance, challenge groupthink, and encourage participation.

Personal industry (PEIN) – with four items; describing the adherence to organizational and management rules and instructions, the unusual attention to quality, and the performance of tasks above and beyond the call of duty.

Loyal boosterism (LOBO) – with five items; consisting of an uncritical faithfulness to the organization, the defence of its interests, and the contribution to the good reputation of the organization and its general welfare – the promotion of the organization's image to outsiders; it includes employees' actions with others external to the organization.

Once again, the measurement scale is the 7-point Likert, having as endpoints 1 = Complete disagreement, and 7 = Complete agreement.

6.3. Descriptive statistics of the subjects

Overall, 323 employees returned to us completed and usable questionnaires from 12 service sector companies. All companies have premises and operations in the geographical area of Thessaloniki. The overall response rate is 59%. The demographic characteristics of the sample are: 42.4% males and 57.6% females; mean age is 32 years; mean organizational tenure is 5 years; 77.4% of the sample is non-supervisory employees, and the remaining are heads of departments; educational level is: 41.8% completed Secondary Education; 19.5% graduated from a Technological Educational Institute; 26.3% are University graduates; 12.4% have a Postgraduate diploma.

The public sector sample is from ten regional and local government organizations located in the geographical area of Thessaloniki (overall six organizations are approached) and in total, 323 employees successfully responded to the research. The response rate is 61% and the

demographic characteristics of the sample are: 42.7% males and 57.3% females; mean age is 35 years; mean organizational tenure is 9 years; 82% of the sample is non-supervisory employees, and the remaining are heads of departments; educational level is: 20.1% completed Secondary Education; 18.3% graduated from a Technological Educational Institute; 41.8% are University graduates; 19.8% had a Postgraduate diploma.

6.4. Descriptive statistics of the variables

Once again, the sample is, by and large, satisfied with their jobs, and their commitment to their organizations is mixed, mainly affectively and less continuance-and normatively-based. Affective commitment predominates compared to other commitment forms. In general, continuance commitment and normative commitment are rather moderate. The four dimensions of OCBs are high, the highest being personal industry (PEIN) and the lowest interpersonal helping (INHE); however, individual initiative (ININ) and loyal boosterism (LOBO) are low compared to PEIN (see Table 6.1).

Table 6.1: Descriptive statistics of the variables (Study 4)

Variable	N	Min	Max	m	s.d.
JS	646	1.96	6.96	4.67	.95
ES	646	2	7	4.68	.94
IS	646	1	7	4.64	1.13
AC	646	1	7	4.46	1.36
NC	646	1	7	4.17	1.33
CC	646	1	7	4.29	1.17
INHE	646	1	7	5.21	1.01
ININ	646	1	7	5.25	1.14
PEIN	646	1	7	5.50	.92
LOBO	646	1	7	5.23	1.14

The correlations of the variables with the demographics show that gender is not correlated with any of the measurable variables. Age is positively correlated with intrinsic satisfaction, all three commitment forms and all four OCB dimensions. Time of service in the organization has positive correlation with affective and continuance commitment and all four OCB dimensions; whereas, position in the organizational hierarchy has positive correlations with all variables, except continuance commitment, interpersonal helping and personal industry. Educational background is also positively correlated with all, except affective commitment and personal industry, and continuance commitment with which it has weak negative correlation (see Table 6.2).

Table 6.2: Correlations between the variables and demographics (Study 4)

	GENDER	AGE	SERV	HIER	EDUC
JS	.02	.03	.02	.18**	.16**
ES	.03	-.03	-01	.15**	.16**
IS	-.01	.08*	.05	.18**	.13**
AC	.01	.21**	.14**	.26**	.08
NC	.01	.15**	.07	.11**	.02
CC	.05	.23**	.18**	.05	-.09*
INHE	.04	.15**	.17**	-.01	.11*
ININ	-.06	.17**	.18**	.10*	.22**
PEIN	.03	.18**	.15**	.06	.04
LOBO	.06	.16**	.12**	.19**	.11**

Notes: N = 646 ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level; Gender: 1 = male, 2 = female; Age: 1 = 22-35; 2 = 36-45; 3 = 46-59; 4 = 60+; Years of service: 1 = 0-6; 2 = 7-12; 3 = 13-21; 4 = 22+; Level on organizational hierarchy: 1 = subordinate; 2 = supervisor; 3 = manager; Educational background: 1 = High school; 2 = Technical school graduate; 3 = University graduate; 4 = Postgraduate

6.5. Correlation and reliability analysis

The results from the correlation analysis show that: job satisfaction and its facets, and the three forms of organizational commitment are strongly and positively intercorrelated, although, the correlation of continuance commitment with the satisfaction variables is lower than all others. All four dimensions of OCBs are positively correlated with job satisfaction, its facets and the forms of commitment, although loyal boosterism is notably more highly

correlated to satisfaction and commitment, than the other three dimensions of OCB. All dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviours are, as expected, highly intercorrelated. The reliability analyses of all variables entered into the calculations show that the Cronbach's α coefficient are satisfactory for all variables and constructs (see Table 6.3).

Table 6.3: Correlation and reliability analysis (Study 4)

	α	JS	ES	IS	AC	NC	CC	INHE	ININ	PEIN
JS	.91									
ES	.83	.91**								
IS	.90	.93**	.68**							
AC	.88	.62**	.51**	.62**						
NC	.87	.51**	.47**	.47**	.70**					
CC	.86	.19**	.23**	.13**	.24**	.41**				
INHE	.84	.18**	.15**	.18**	.29**	.34**	.12**			
ININ	.89	.22**	.16**	.24**	.36**	.32**	-.04	.56**		
PEIN	.73	.22**	.17**	.22**	.43**	.41**	.19**	.47**	.46**	
LOBO	.88	.46**	.41**	.44**	.64**	.58**	.24**	.43**	.45**	.55**

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

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6.6. Analyses of the hypotheses

In order to examine the mediation effect some conditions should apply according to Baron and Kenny (1986):

(a) The predictor – the independent variable (the forms of organizational commitment) and the outcome – the dependent variable (organizational citizenship behaviours) should be significantly related.

(b) The predictor (the forms organizational commitment) is related to the mediator (job satisfaction).

(c) There should be an association between the mediator (job satisfaction) and the outcome (organizational citizenship behaviours).

Since the research hypotheses for this part of the research refer to the whole integrated sample – both private and public sector employees – the correlations for the satisfaction of the aforementioned conditions are presented in the following tables and are based on a sample of 646 employees – equally split between the two sectors. Thus, to test H1 - H3, the following tests were conducted (see Tables 6.4 and 6.5).

Table 6.4: Correlation of the predictor (forms of organizational commitment) with the outcome (organizational citizenship behaviours) and the mediator (job satisfaction) (Study 4)

	Affective commitment	Normative commitment	Continuance commitment
Organizational citizenship behaviours	.52**	.37**	.08*
Job satisfaction	.62**	.51**	.19**

Notes: N = 644, ** p < .01, * p < .05

Table 6.5: Correlation of the mediator (job satisfaction) with the outcome (organizational citizenship behaviours) (study 4)

	Job satisfaction
Organizational citizenship behaviours	.36**

Notes: N = 644, ** p < .01

As it can be seen from these tables, there are significant correlations in all cases.

According to Baron and Kenny (1986):

To test for mediation, one should estimate the three following regression equations: first, regressing the mediator on the independent variable; second, regressing the dependent variable on the independent variable; and third, regressing the dependent variable on both the independent variable and on the mediator. Separate coefficients for each equation should be estimated and tested. There is no need for hierarchical or stepwise regression or the computation of any partial or semipartial correlations.

These three regression equations provide the tests of the linkages of the mediational model. To establish mediation, the following conditions must hold: First, the independent variable must affect the mediator in the first equation; second, the independent variable must be shown to affect the dependent variable in the second equation; and third, the mediator must affect the dependent variable in the third equation. If these conditions all hold in the predicted direction, then the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second. Perfect mediation holds if the independent variable has no effect when the mediator is controlled.
(p. 1177)

The following Tables 6.6 - 6.8 show the results from the regression analyses; firstly, regressing job satisfaction on affective commitment, secondly, regressing organizational citizenship behaviour on affective commitment, and thirdly, regressing organizational citizenship behaviour on both affective commitment and job satisfaction. This is also conducted for the other two forms of organization (see Tables 6.9 - 6.11 for normative commitment and 6.12 - 6.14 for continuance commitment). The variables are z standardized before entered into the regression analysis and the control variables used are the demographics (gender, age, years of service, hierarchical position, and educational background).

Table 6.6: Regression analysis of job satisfaction on affective commitment (Study 4)

	Job satisfaction			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	-.05	.06	-.02	-.78
Age	-.12*	.05	-.10*	-2.18*
Service	-.01	.04	-.01	-.03
Hierarchy	.05	.05	.03	.98
Education	.09**	.03	.10**	3.12**
Affective commitment	.43**	.02	.63**	19.30**
R^2	.41			
Adjusted R^2	.40			

Notes: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 6.7: Regression analysis of organizational citizenship behaviour on affective commitment (Study 4)

	Organizational citizenship behaviour			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.04	.06	.02	.62
Age	.05	.05	.05	1.01
Service	.09**	.04	.11**	2.40**
Hierarchy	-.07	.05	-.05	-1.46
Education	.10**	.03	.13**	3.99**
Affective commitment	.32**	.02	.53**	15.44**
R^2	.34			
Adjusted R^2	.33			

Note: ** $p < .01$

Table 6.8: Regression analysis of organizational citizenship behaviour on both affective commitment and job satisfaction (Study 4)

	Organizational citizenship behaviour			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.04	.06	.02	.63
Age	.05	.05	.05	1.04
Service	.09*	.04	.11*	2.40*
Hierarchy	-.07	.05	-.05	-1.48
Education	.10**	.03	.13**	3.90**
Affective commitment	.32**	.03	.52**	11.99**
Job satisfaction	.02	.04	.02	.45
R^2	.34			
Adjusted R^2	.33			

Notes: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

The results from these regression analyses, show that there is no mediation effect, i.e., job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between affective commitment and OCBs. Thus, H1 is not supported and job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours.

Tables 6.9 to 6.11 show the results from the regression analyses for normative commitment.

Table 6.9: Regression analysis of job satisfaction on normative commitment (Study 4)

	Job satisfaction			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	-.03	.07	-.01	-.41
Age	-.07	.06	-.06	-1.17
Service	.01	.04	.01	.24
Hierarchy	*.20***	.05	*.13***	*3.74***
Education	*.12***	.03	*.14***	*4.21***
Normative commitment	*.36***	.02	*.50***	*14.77***
R^2	.30			
Adjusted R^2	.29			

Note: ** p < .01

Table 6.10: Regression analysis of organizational citizenship behaviour on normative commitment (Study 4)

	Organizational citizenship behaviour			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.04	.06	.03	.77
Age	.07	.05	.07	1.41
Service	.10**	.04	.13**	2.73**
Hierarchy	.03	.05	.02	.73
Education	.13**	.03	.17**	5.05**
Normative commitment	.31**	.02	.50**	15.11**
R^2	.33			
Adjusted R^2	.32			

Note: ** p < .01

Table 6.11: Regression analysis of organizational citizenship behaviours on both normative commitment and job satisfaction (Study 4)

	Organizational citizenship behaviours			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.05	.06	.03	.82
Age	.08	.05	.07	1.52
Service	.10**	.04	.13**	2.71**
Hierarchy	.027	.05	.01	.38
Education	.12**	.03	.15**	4.61**
Normative commitment	.28**	.02	.45**	11.89**
Job satisfaction	.08*	.03	.09*	2.37*
R^2	.34			
Adjusted R^2	.33			

Note: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

These results show that all regressions have significant beta values, and the beta value for normative commitment for the second regression (Table 6.10) is greater than the beta value for normative commitment in the simultaneous regression equation (Table 6.11), thus H2 is proved to be true.

Finally, Tables 6.12 to 6.14 present the results from the regressions with continuance commitment.

Table 6.12: Regression analysis of job satisfaction on continuance commitment (Study 4)

	Job satisfaction			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	-.03	.07	-.026	-.42
Age	.00	.07	.00	-.01
Service	-.03	.05	-.03	-.55
Hierarchy	.27**	.06	.17**	4.55**
Education	.16**	.03	.18**	4.66**
Continuance commitment	.17**	.03	.21**	5.32**
R^2	.10			
Adjusted R^2	.09			

Note: ** $p < .01$

Table 6.13: Regression analysis of organizational citizenship behaviour on continuance commitment (Study 4)

	Organizational citizenship behaviour			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.06	.07	.03	.86
Age	.15**	.06	.14**	2.60**
Service	.07	.04	.09	1.65
Hierarchy	.10	.05	.07	1.88
Education	.150**	.03	.20**	5.13**
Continuance commitment	.08**	.03	.12**	3.03**
R^2	.011			
Adjusted R^2	.10			

Note: ** $p < .01$

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Table 6.14: Regression analysis of organizational citizenship behaviour on both continuance commitment and job satisfaction (Study 4)

	Organizational citizenship behaviours			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.06	.06	.04	1.04
Age	.15**	.06	.14**	2.73**
Service	.08*	.04	.10*	1.91*
Hierarchy	.03	.05	.02	.50
Education	.11**	.03	.14**	3.82**
Continuance commitment	.04*	.03	.07*	1.64*
Job satisfaction	.27**	.03	.31**	8.13**
R^2	.19			
Adjusted R^2	.18			

Notes: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

These results show that all regressions have significant beta values, and the beta value for continuance commitment for the second regression (Table 6.13) is greater than the beta value for continuance commitment in the simultaneous regression equation (Table 6.14). These results support H3.

The mediation effects for H2 and H3 are shown in the following figures (see Figures 6.2 - 6.3). Also, the Sobel-tests for the mediation effects extracted significant results for the indirect effects (Sobel, 1982) and the z value for normative commitment is $z = 9.34$, $p < .01$, and for continuance commitment is $z = 4.25$, $p < .01$.

Figure 6.2: Empirical normative commitment – organizational citizenship behaviours model without and with job satisfaction as a mediator
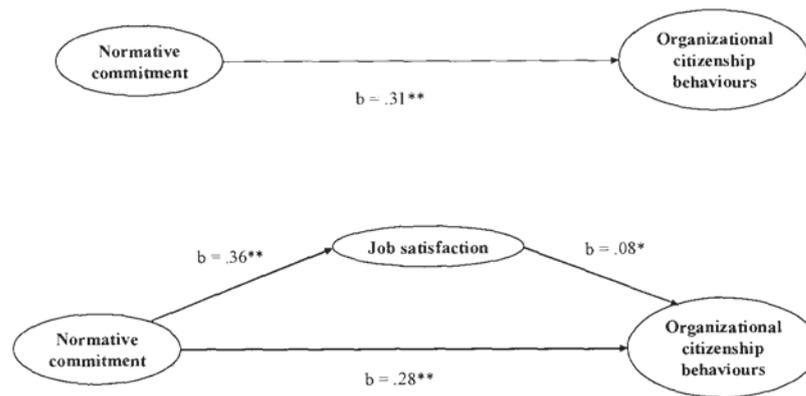
Figure 6.3: Empirical continuance commitment – organizational citizenship behaviours model without and with job satisfaction as a mediator
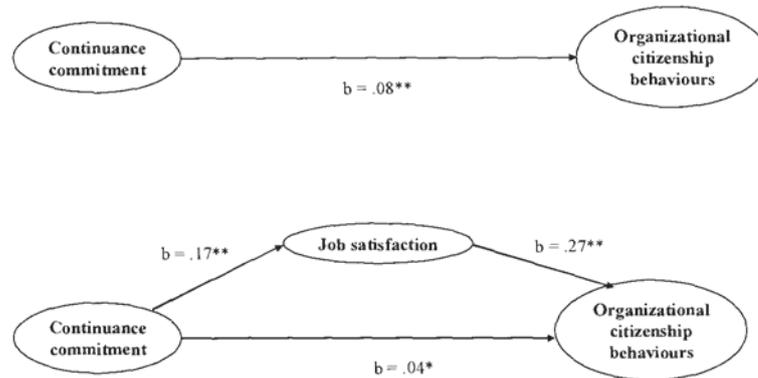
In order, to test H4 and H5 regression analyses are conducted as previously, and Sobel-tests are performed, instead of using the integral OCB scale, the subscales of the four dimensions – PEIN, ININ, INHE, and LOBO – are used. The results from the regression analyses of affective commitment and the OCB dimensions are shown on Tables 6.15 - 6.22.

Table 6.15: Regression analysis interpersonal helping on affective commitment (Study 4)

	Interpersonal helping			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.10	.08	.05	1.31
Age	.02	.07	.02	.34
Service	.15**	.05	.15**	2.85**
Hierarchy	-.17**	.06	-.11**	-2.71**
Education	.08*	.04	.09*	2.32*
Affective commitment	.21**	.03	.28**	7.17**
R^2	.12			
Adjusted R^2	.11			

Note: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 6.16: Regression analysis of interpersonal helping on both affective commitment and job satisfaction (Study 4)

	Interpersonal helping			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.10	.08	.05	1.31
Age	.02	.07	.02	.35
Service	.15**	.05	.15**	2.85**
Hierarchy	-.17**	.07	-.11**	-2.71**
Education	.08*	.04	.09*	2.29*
Affective commitment	.21**	.04	.28**	5.62**
Job satisfaction	.01	.05	.01	.13
R^2	.12			
Adjusted R^2	.11			

Note: ** p < .01, * p < .05

Table 6.17: Regression analysis individual initiative on affective commitment (Study 4)

	Individual initiative			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	-.14	.08	-.06	-1.66
Age	.06	.08	.04	.81
Service	.13*	.06	.12*	2.41*
Hierarchy	-.04	.07	-.02	-.53
Education	.22**	.04	.21**	5.85**
Affective commitment	.27**	.03	.32**	8.47**
R^2	.19			
Adjusted R^2	.18			

Note: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 6.18: Regression analysis of individual initiative on both affective commitment and job satisfaction (Study 4)

	Individual initiative			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	-.14	.08	-.06	-1.67
Age	.06	.08	.04	.77
Service	.13*	.06	.12*	2.41*
Hierarchy	-.04	.07	-.02	-.52
Education	.23**	.04	.22**	5.85**
Affective commitment	.28**	.04	.33**	6.99**
Job satisfaction	-.02	.06	-.02	-.41
R^2	.19			
Adjusted R^2	.18			

Note: ** p < .01, * p < .05

Table 6.19: Regression analysis of personal industry on affective commitment (Study 4)

	Personal industry			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.09	.07	.05	1.26
Age	.08	.06	.07	1.32
Service	.06	.04	.06	1.27
Hierarchy	-.11*	.06	-.07*	-1.94*
Education	.01	.03	.02	.47
Affective commitment	.29**	.03	.43**	11.39**
R^2	.21			
Adjusted R^2	.20			

Note: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 6.20: Regression analysis of personal industry on both affective commitment and job satisfaction (Study 4)

	Personal industry			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.08	.07	.04	1.21
Age	.07	.06	.06	1.18
Service	.06	.04	.06	1.27
Hierarchy	-.10	.06	-.07	-1.88
Education	.02	.03	.02	.67
Affective commitment	*.32**	.03	*.47**	*10.08**
Job satisfaction	-.07	.04	-.08	-1.68
R^2	.21			
Adjusted R^2	.20			

Note: ** $p < .01$

Table 6.21: Regression analysis of loyal boosterism on affective commitment (Study 4)

	Loyal boosterism			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.10	.07	.04	1.37
Age	.05	.06	.03	.73
Service	.01	.05	.01	.23
Hierarchy	.05	.06	.03	.77
Education	.07*	.03	.07*	2.17*
Affective commitment	.51**	.03	.62**	19.15**
R^2	.42			
Adjusted R^2	.41			

Note: ** $p < .01$

Table 6.22: Regression analysis of loyal boosterism on both affective commitment and job satisfaction (Study 4)

	Loyal boosterism			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.10	.07	.05	1.46
Age	.06	.06	.04	.98
Service	.01	.05	.01	.23
Hierarchy	.04	.06	.02	.67
Education	.06	.03	.06	1.82
Affective commitment	.46**	.03	.55**	13.59**
Job satisfaction	.13**	.05	.11**	2.82**
R^2	.42			
Adjusted R^2	.41			

Note: ** p < .01

The results form all these regression analyses show that only the mediation effect of job satisfaction on affective commitment/loyal boosterism relationship has significant beta coefficients, and moreover, the beta value of the mediation effect is lower than that of the direct relationship between affective commitment and loyal boosterism (see Tables 6.21 and 6.22). Based on the previous analyses, the Sobel-tests for the mediation effects for affective commitment and loyal boosterism, show that the z-value for loyal boosterism is z = 9.76 (p < .01). This result satisfies the hypothesized relationship of H4, since the direct or indirect effect of job satisfaction for the relationship between affective commitment and loyal boosterism is larger than any other dimension of OCB.

Tables 6.23 to 6.30 show the results from the regression equations for normative commitment.

Table 6.23: Regression analysis of interpersonal helping on normative commitment (Study 4)

	Interpersonal helping			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.10	.08	.05	1.29
Age	.02	.07	.02	.29
Service	.16**	.05	.16**	3.12**
Hierarchy	-.12**	.06	-.08**	-2.02**
Education	.10*	.04	.10*	2.81*
Normative commitment	.25**	.03	.33**	8.89**
R^2	.16			
Adjusted R^2	.15			

Note: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 6.24: Regression analysis of interpersonal helping on both normative commitment and job satisfaction (Study 4)

	Interpersonal helping			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.10	.08	.05	1.29
Age	.02	.07	.02	.29
Service	.16**	.05	.16**	3.12**
Hierarchy	-.12*	.06	-.08*	-2.00*
Education	.10**	.04	.10**	2.75**
Normative commitment	.25**	.03	.33**	7.63**
Job satisfaction	.01	.05	.01	.06
R^2	.15			
Adjusted R^2	.14			

Note: ** $p < .01$

Table 6.25: Regression analysis of individual initiative on normative commitment (Study 4)

	Individual initiative			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	-.13	.09	-.06	-1.50
Age	.08	.08	.06	1.09
Service	.14**	.06	.13**	2.68**
Hierarchy	.06	.07	.03	.81
Education	.25**	.04	.24**	6.47**
Normative commitment	.25**	.03	.29**	7.99**
R^2	.19			
Adjusted R^2	.18			

Note: ** $p < .01$

Table 6.26: Regression analysis of individual initiative on both normative commitment and job satisfaction (Study 4)

	Individual initiative			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	-.13	.09	-.06	-1.48
Age	.08	.08	.06	1.13
Service	.14*	.06	.13*	2.60*
Hierarchy	.05	.07	.03	.67
Education	.24**	.04	.23**	6.22**
Normative commitment	.23**	.04	.27**	6.47**
Job satisfaction	.05	.05	.04	.89
R²	.19			
Adjusted R²	.18			

Note: ** p < .01, * p < .05

Table 6.27: Regression analysis of personal industry on normative commitment (Study 4)

	Personal industry			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.09	.07	.05	1.38
Age	.10	.06	.09	1.66
Service	.07	.05	.07	1.46
Hierarchy	-.02	.06	-.01	-.34
Education	.04	.03	.05	1.25
Normative commitment	.27**	.03	.38**	10.61**
R^2	.19			
Adjusted R^2	.18			

Note: ** $p < .01$

Table 6.28: Regression analysis of personal industry on both normative commitment and job satisfaction (Study 4)

	Personal industry			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.09	.07	.05	1.36
Age	.10	.06	.09	1.67
Service	.07	.05	.07	1.48
Hierarchy	-.02	.06	-.01	-.36
Education	.04	.03	.04	1.20
Normative commitment	.26**	.03	.38**	9.06**
Job satisfaction	.01	.04	.01	.18
R^2	.19			
Adjusted R^2	.18			

Note: ** $p < .01$

Table 6.29: Regression analysis of loyal boosterism on normative commitment (Study 4)

	Loyal boosterism			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.12	.07	.05	1.55
Age	.09	.07	.06	1.33
Service	.03	.05	.03	.58
Hierarchy	.21**	.06	.11**	3.51**
Education	.12**	.03	.110**	3.41**
Normative commitment	.47**	.03	.55**	17.10**
R^2	.37			
Adjusted R^2	.36			

Note: ** $p < .01$

Table 6.30: Regression analysis of loyal boosterism on both normative commitment and job satisfaction (Study 4)

	Loyal boosterism			
	b	SE b	β	t
Gender	.12	.07	.05	1.68
Age	.10	.06	.07	1.62
Service	.03	.05	.02	.54
Hierarchy	.16**	.06	.09**	2.74**
Education	.08**	.03	.08**	2.52**
Normative commitment	.38**	.03	.45**	12.29**
Job satisfaction	.25**	.04	.21**	5.56**
R^2	.40			
Adjusted R^2	.39			

Note: ** p < .01

The results form all these regression analyses show that only the mediation effect of job satisfaction on normative commitment/loyal boosterism relationship has significant beta coefficients, and moreover, the beta value of the mediation effect is lower than that of the direct relationship between normative commitment and loyal boosterism (see Tables 6.30 and 6.31). Based on the previous analyses, the Sobel-tests for the mediation effects for normative commitment and loyal boosterism, show that the z-value for loyal boosterism is z = 9.28 (p < .01). This result satisfies the hypothesized relationship of H5, since the direct or indirect effect of job satisfaction for the relationship between normative commitment and loyal boosterism is larger than any other dimension of OCB.

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6.7. Discussion on the results

The final research study proved that job satisfaction works as mediator for the organizational commitment/organizational citizenship behaviours. More particularly, the results have shown that the mediating role of job satisfaction is evident for the relationship of normative commitment and continuance commitment with organizational citizenship behaviours, rather than for affective commitment/organizational citizenship behaviours. In short, organizational commitment feeds into job satisfaction, which in turn explains organizational citizenship behaviours. Also, the results explain a rather high amount of variability in OCBs, i.e., the explained variance in the latent factor models are 34% for normative commitment and 19% for continuance commitment. However, the rejection of H1, i.e., that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between affective commitment and OCBs, although the relationship itself is significant, could be either due to the characteristics of the sample, or the cultural parameters concerning the employees investigated. This needs to be pointed out, since most of the relevant research on commitment and extra-role behaviours showed that there is a strong correlation between affective commitment and OCBs; although, there is no evidence on the indirect relationship of these two variables.

Moreover, the mediation effect of job satisfaction is stronger for one of the OCB dimensions – loyal boosterism – compared to the other three. The results explain a rather high amount of variability in loyal boosterism, i.e., the explained variance in the latent factor models are 42% for affective commitment and 40% for normative commitment. The later is an expected finding since loyal boosterism is uncritical faithfulness to the organization, the defence of its interests, and the contribution to the good reputation of the organization and its general welfare. This is an emotional behavioural response towards work and organization, and its stronger correlation to the more emotional forms of commitment – primarily affective

commitment – is logical. The direct effect between the two forms of commitment and loyal boosterism is, by and large, similar to Wasti's (2005) conclusion on commitment profiles, i.e., loyal boosterism is significantly more highly correlated with the 'highly committed' profile and the 'AC-NC dominant' one, than any other commitment profile. More importantly, this study proved that the indirect effect also manages to produce significant results and that job satisfaction has the ability to mediate the relationship between affective or normative commitment and loyal boosterism.

An important limitation of this study, as well as, of all previous ones, is the problem with the common-variance method that arises from self-report and mono-source methodological tools adopted. This method biases are attributable to the measurement method, rather than to the construct of interest (Bagozzi & Yi, 1991). These biases may cause inflated relationships between the variables under investigation; however, the statistical methodology adopted for the examination of the mediation effects worked as a remedy of this problem (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In other words, the measurement and comparison of the direct relationships, i.e., affective commitment and OCBs, and of the indirect relationships, i.e., affective commitment, job satisfaction, OCBs, manages to account for the problems raised from common method variance.

6.8. Implications and further research

The results of this final study have significant implications to theory, since "mediators establish 'how' or 'why' one variable predicts or causes an outcome variable. More specifically, a *mediator* is defined as a variable that explains the relation between a predictor and an outcome ... In other words; a mediator is the mechanism through which a predictor influences an outcome variable" (Frazier, et al., 200: 116). Having said this, job satisfaction explains the relation between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship

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behaviours. Job satisfaction 'works' as a crucial mechanism through which organizational commitment influences OCBs. In particular, the results of this study have shown that when job satisfaction levels are high, then affective commitment and normative commitment have a stronger influence to all OCB dimensions, but foremost, to loyal boosterism. These results proved that the relationship between the predictor and the outcome variables was substantial due to job satisfaction, in other words, commitment is indeed closely related to the citizenship behaviours and this effect is caused by a strong influence of commitment on satisfaction. Fostering organizational commitment should lead to higher levels of OCBs, but also to greater job satisfaction. This in turn will have an additional effect on these extra-role behaviours. Thus, it appears that organizational commitment works through job satisfaction to impact OCBs. Summarizing therefore, this study has shown that organizational commitment is closely related to organizational citizenship behaviours, and in particular loyal boosterism, and that this effect is caused by a strong influence of organizational commitment on job satisfaction. These findings show the intervening effect of job satisfaction on the organizational commitment/organizational citizenship behaviours relationship, and this by itself, is a significant implication to WOP theory.

These findings are significant for practitioners since it proves the important role job satisfaction plays on the power of the relationship between commitment and OCBs. The interrelationships among organizational commitment, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviours, suggest that both attitudes – organization-based and job-based ones – are important for the existence of extra-role behaviours at work. This is more evident, when affective and normative commitment help in the fostering of loyal boosterism, i.e., the situation where the employee defends the interests of the organization, its welfare and reputation to the external parties. These findings provide immense help to HR managers, since they can apply strategies such as, stressing organizational identity via common goals, a clearly stated mission, and a commitment to a unique and shared organizational culture (Van

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Knippenberg, 2003). Organizations should aim to select and train employees that have, on the one hand, a positive stand towards the organization and on the other, a readiness and willingness to defend and 'fight' for this organization. However, necessary condition for this is to have organizations that provide valued opportunities for growth and advancement to their employees and treat them fairly and objectively. If this is the case, the employee could become a positive communicator of the organization and use the 'word-of-mouth' communication technique to promote his or her workplace to the external labour market. An organization builds its image and profile not only though the provision of quality goods and services, but also through the development of quality, effective and efficient human resources that are willing to invest into the organization and follow an internal career path. Towards this end, there are the adoption of 'high involvement' HR practices by management and the planning and implementation of strategic HRM initiatives.

This study could be further extended by incorporating job performance measures or by examining the components of the forms of organizational commitment, i.e., high sacrifices and low alternatives for continuance commitment and moral imperative and indebted obligation for normative commitment. Furthermore, a cross-cultural research or a longitudinal one could test the stability of the findings and their transferability to other environments, especially for the examination of the indirect effect of affective commitment to OCBs.

CHAPTER 7: GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND

IMPLICATIONS

7.0. Chapter summary

The final chapter presents the whole integrated conceptual framework, on which all four independent studies were based, discusses the general results extracted from all studies with respect to the descriptive analyses (mean values, correlations among the variables and with the demographics, and reliabilities of the measurement scales used for the quantitative research), argues for the implications for theory and practice and contribution to relevant knowledge, and presents the limitations of the whole research and the field studies and the recommendations for future research initiatives .

7.1. The general conceptual framework

It has been argued that organizational commitment and job satisfaction relate to each other and this relationship is moderated by a number of variables/factors. In the beginning, the form and type of employment relationship, i.e., whether an employee is working in a private sector organization or a public sector one, influence not only the level and quality of the aforementioned job attitudes – job satisfaction and organizational commitment – but also influence their structural relationship. Furthermore, the employees experiencing commitment at work develop distinguishable profiles according to the type or combination of commitment. These organizational commitment profiles relate differently to job satisfaction and they are also influenced by the form and type of employment relationship, i.e., private and public sector employment.

Employees align the goals and objectives in the way they fit with their own values and abilities and this process of self-regulation is divided into a promotion focus – the management of personal work-related accomplishments and aspirations – and into a prevention focus – the way of securing job-related safety and working towards implementing

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pre-determined responsibilities. The regulatory foci relate differently to the forms of organizational commitment and they develop into distinguishable personality job-related characters and they in effect, moderate the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Moreover, this moderating role is further influenced by the type and form of employment relationship.

Finally, an employee who is satisfied with his or her job is expressing contextual behaviours towards the work and the organization, called organizational citizenship behaviours, and the relationship between them and organizational commitment is mediated by job satisfaction.

Thus, Figure 7.1, initially presented in the introduction (Chapter 1) of this doctoral thesis shows these relationships.

Figure 7.1: The general conceptual framework
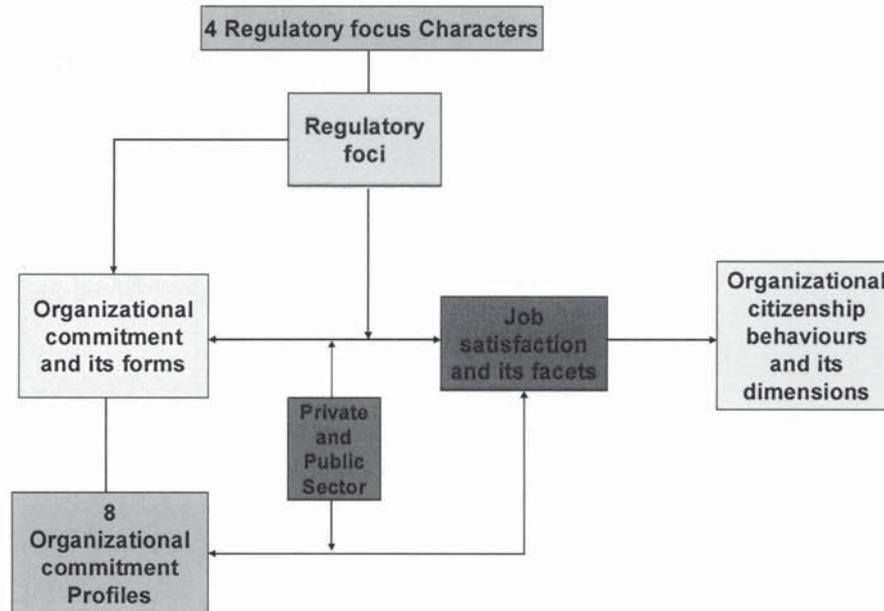
Thus, the general hypothesis related to this research is that organizational commitment and its profiles explain the level and content of employees' job satisfaction (how much and of what type) and the regulatory foci together with the respective regulatory characters moderate commitment/satisfaction relationship. Furthermore, job satisfaction works as a mediator for the relationship between organizational commitment and work-related behaviours.

7.2. Discussion of the mean values

The mean values for the job satisfaction and its two subscales – extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction – are clearly higher than the scale's midpoint ($\mu = 4.00$), and by and large, extrinsic satisfaction has a higher mean value for the public sector samples, whereas, intrinsic satisfaction has a higher mean value for the private sector ones.

The organizational commitment scale (BOCS) has moderately high mean values; being organizational identification subscale the higher and loyalty subscale the lower mean value. As far as the three scales of organizational commitment – affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment – are concerned, normative commitment has, in general, lower mean values, affective commitment has high mean values for the private sector samples, and continuance commitment has high for the public sector ones.

The promotion focus subscale has high mean values for both sectors' samples and the prevention focus subscale has rather low values. As far as the control variable is concerned, positive affectivity has high mean values for all samples and negative affectivity has low values.

Finally, the four dimensions of OCBs have high mean values, interpersonal helping being the lowest along with personal industry.

7.3. Discussion of the correlations

The correlation analyses of all variables involved in the multisampling research resulted in the following:

Job satisfaction and its facets – extrinsic satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction are all positively correlated to organizational commitment and its constructs, apart from job involvement. The correlations between job satisfaction and the three distinguishable forms of organizational commitment for the samples involved in all analyses, show that job satisfaction and its facets are strongly and positively significantly correlated with affective commitment and normative commitment, but weakly correlated with continuance commitment. The meta-analysis by Meyer et al. (2002) has shown that the ACS has strong correlations with job satisfaction ($\rho = .65$); with extrinsic satisfaction ($\rho = .71$); and, with intrinsic satisfaction ($\rho = $

.68). NCS has positive correlation with the job satisfaction scales ($\rho = .31$) and CCS negative and very weak correlation ($\rho = -.07$).

Job satisfaction is correlated with promotion focus but not with prevention focus. As far as the forms of commitment and the regulatory foci are concerned, promotion focus is significantly correlated with all three forms of organizational commitment, whereas, prevention focus is correlated only with normative commitment and continuance commitment. It is worth noting that the positive correlations for prevention focus came basically from the private sector sample; whereas, the value of positive correlations extracted for promotion focus come from the public sector sample. The study by Johnson and Chang (under review) – by using their own work-based regulatory focus scale – found that promotion focus is significantly positively correlated to job satisfaction ($r = .47$) and prevention focus is negatively correlated to job satisfaction ($r = -.17$). Also, promotion focus is positively correlated to affective commitment ($r = .53$) and to continuance commitment ($r = .18$); and prevention focus is negatively correlated to affective commitment ($r = -.12$) and positively to continuance commitment ($r = .31$). By and large, the correlations from this research are similar to the ones extracted by Jonson and Chang' however, further cross-studies are needed in order to reach on affirmative conclusions.

The correlations between job satisfaction and the four dimensions of OCBs show that the strongest positive correlation is of loyal boosterism with job satisfaction and its facets; whereas, the other dimensions have clearly weaker correlations and, all three of them are almost the same. Also, intrinsic satisfaction has stronger correlations with all for dimensions of OCBs compared to extrinsic satisfaction. Similar positive correlations are also found by Moorman and Blakely (1995) and Moorman et al. (1998). Finally, the correlations between the three forms of organizational commitment and the four dimensions of OCBs show that loyal boosterism has the strongest and very high positive correlation with affective

commitment and normative commitment and is rather weak with continuance commitment. Personal industry has also high positive correlations with affective commitment and normative commitment. The aforementioned results are also extracted, particularly with respect to affective and normative commitment, by Moorman and Blakely (1995) and Moorman et al. (1998). Also, Meyer et al. (2002) reported that the ACS and the OCBs scales had $\rho = .32$; with NCS $\rho = .24$, and with CCS $\rho = -.01$.

7.4. Discussion of the reliabilities

The reliability analyses of the variables used in all four research studies have shown that the job satisfaction scale has α coefficient ranging from .89 to .93, and its facets have: extrinsic satisfaction from $\alpha = .75$ to $\alpha = .88$; intrinsic satisfaction from $\alpha = .88$ to $\alpha = .91$. As far as other studies are concerned, the reliability coefficients of the MSQ ranged for the whole job satisfaction scale from .85 to .91 (cf. Hart, 1999; Huber, Seybolt, & Venemon, 1992; Klenke-Hamel & Mathieu, 1990; Mathieu 1991; Mathieu & Farr, 1991; Scarpello & Vandenberg, 1992; Smith & Brannick, 1990; Wong, Hui, & Law, 1998). Moreover, the extrinsic satisfaction subscale has values ranging from .70 to .82 and the intrinsic satisfaction subscale values from .82 to .86 (cf. Breeden, 1993; Davy, Kinicki, & Scheck, 1997; Wong et al., 1998). According to the meta-analytic study of Meyer et al. (2002) the extrinsic satisfaction scale has an average α value of .70 and an intrinsic satisfaction scale of .84. As it could be seen from the information collected from other studies, the reliability coefficients calculated in all our field studies – either for the whole job satisfaction scale or its two subscales - are very strong compared to other studies referred in the bibliography and the psychometric properties of the variables are more than satisfactory, showing the cross-cultural validity and application of this scale for the measurement of job satisfaction.

The reliability coefficients for the organizational commitment scales ranged:

Organizational commitment (BOCS): $\alpha = .78 - \alpha = .79$.

Organizational identification: $\alpha = .64 - \alpha = .67$[16].

Job involvement: $\alpha = .55 - \alpha = .56$[17].

Loyalty: $\alpha = .54 - \alpha = .64$.

Affective commitment: $\alpha = .82 - \alpha = .88$.

Normative commitment: $\alpha = .75 - \alpha = .87$.

Continuance commitment: $\alpha = .58 - \alpha = .86$[18].

The review of other studies on organizational commitment using BOCS has shown that the whole scale has α values ranging from .71 to .87 (cf. Sanchez & Brock, 1996; Furnham, Brewin, & O' Kelly, 1994; Oliver, 1990). The reliability values extracted in our studies are within this range; however, no available information from other studies exist with respect to the reliability coefficients of the three subscales, apart from the argument raised by Cook and Wall (1980) on the distinguishable subscales of organizational commitment. It seems that the composite scale manages to produce higher reliability coefficient than its constructs and this finding is part of an on-going argument (cf. Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005; Gould-Williams, 2003; Pendleton, Wilson, & Wright, 1998; Fenton-O'Creevy, Winfrow, Lydka, H. & Morris, 1997; Guest & Peccei, 1993; Guest, Peccei, & Thomas, 1993). The rather low reliability values found for job involvement and loyalty in the present studies seems to be part of a more general theoretical argument on whether BOCS is a unidimensional or a multi-dimensional scale for the measurement of organizational commitment. This argument is raised by, among many others, Biggs and Swailes (2006), Madsen, Miller. and John (2005), Albrecht and Travaglione (2003), Swailes (2002) when is referring to the three-subscales of

[16] If statement "I will not recommend to a friend of mine to come and work for my organization" is deleted.
[17] If statement "The greater satisfaction in my life comes from my job" is deleted.
[18] If statement "If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere" is deleted.

BOCS, and Mathews and Shepherd (2002), by arguing that the three-factor solution best fits to their analysis. However, this research did aim to discuss and resolve the argument on the dimensionality of BOCS and its appropriateness as an organizational commitment scale.

On the other hand, the three scales of commitment – initially originated by Allen and Meyer (1990) – have been extensively used in international field studies and their values ranged (see Meyer et al., 2002 for a meta-analysis on the use of the three-dimensional model of organizational commitment):

For affective commitment from $\alpha = .77$ to $\alpha = .88$, with an average reliability of .82.

For normative commitment from $\alpha = .65$ to $\alpha = .86$, with an average reliability of .73.

For continuance commitment from $\alpha = .69$ to $\alpha = .84$, with an average reliability of .76.

High reliability coefficients for all three scales of organizational commitment were also reported on the meta-analytic study of Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran (2005).

The data collected from other international studies compared with our studies when using ACS, NCS, and CCS lead us to conclude that all three scales of organizational commitment are reliable for the Greek cultural environment; although, the continuance commitment has some minor deficiencies which have been already acknowledged by Meyer and his colleagues (2001) on their meta-analytic work.

The reliability coefficients for PANAS – the control variable ranged:

For positive affect: $\alpha = .80 - \alpha = .91$.

For negative affect: $\alpha = .80 - \alpha = .88$.

Watson et al. (1988) found that the positive affectivity subscale of PANAS has a value ranging from .86 to .90 and the negative affectivity subscale a value ranging from .84 to .87. Also, Crawford and Henry (2004) estimated α coefficient for PA to be .89 and for NA to be

.85. As it can be seen, the reliability coefficients from the field surveys of this research are similar to those obtained in the referred studies.

The regulatory focus scale with its two subscales has the following reliabilities:

Promotion focus: $\alpha = .72 - \alpha = .80$.

Prevention focus: $\alpha = .48 - \alpha = .69$.

The original scale by Lockwood et al. (2002) has α coefficient for the promotion focus subscale of .81 and for the prevention focus one .75. On the other hand, Zhao and Pechmann (2007) found reliability values for promotion focus .87 and for prevention focus .82. It is worth noting that this scale of regulatory focus has been used in different totals of items per scale – ranging from 10 to 18. In any case, the promotion focus subscale has a very good value of reliability; whereas, the value for the prevention focus is marginally acceptable, mainly due to the adoption of a scale with reduced items than the original one.

Finally, the OCBs' scale has the following reliability coefficients for each of its four constructs:

Interpersonal helping: $\alpha = .84$.

Individual initiative: $\alpha = .89$.

Personal industry: $\alpha = .73$.

Loyal Boosterism: $\alpha = .88$.

Other studies on this scale found that Cronbach's α coefficient for the whole scale and its four dimensions ranged from .67 to .78 for interpersonal helping; from .76 to .80 for individual initiative; from .61 to .83 for personal industry; and, from .76 to .86 for loyal boosterism (cf. Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Moorman et al., 1998; Thompson & Werner,

1997). As it can be seen, the scale used for Study 4 has very good psychometric properties and the reliabilities observed are analogous to other international field studies.

Concluding, therefore, the scales used for the examination of the research hypotheses of this doctoral thesis have acceptable reliabilities and comparable to the ones extracted from other international field studies. Thus, the cultural transferability of these scales and their usage to other cultural and organizational contexts, apart from the Anglo-Saxon ones, for which thy have been developed, could be adequately supported; although, it should be mentioned that high reliabilities by themselves might not fully capture the construct into the present context, i.e., the Greek organizational environment. The only two subscales that have low reliabilities are the job involvement one and the prevention focus one; however, it has been already discussed their deficiency and the reasoning behind this statistical result.

7.5. Implications for and contribution to the theory

This research raised many issues in the field of WOP and examined the relationship between attitudes and behaviours. The theory on the organizational commitment and job satisfaction with respect to private sector employees and civil servants showed that, in general, the degree of the expression of these feelings towards work is different between employees working in different sectors of the economy and employment contracts and relationships. However, no examination had been conducted on the moderating effect of the economic sector as far as the two-way relationship is concerned between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This research investigated this relation, and moreover, showed that the general belief that civil servants are less committed and satisfied than private sector employees is not true. Civil servants express high levels of commitment, although, these are different from the other types of employees. Thus, the theory on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, should not simply differentiate the expression of job-related

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attitudes according to the type of employment, but instead should seek for more qualitative and "internal" differences, acknowledging the fact that all employees could be potentially committed and satisfied, irrespective where they work. Their difference is on the form of organizational commitment and how this form is related to job satisfaction.

The second area of contribution made through this research is on broadening the commitment profiles theory. To date, the theory developed connections between the profiles and the work-related behaviours. This research focused on the connection with job satisfaction and what sort of profiles make people feel satisfied with their job. Furthermore, the study managed to expand the conceptual paradigm for organizational commitment profiles, proving that it is not only one model of organizational commitment – Meyer and Allen's one – that develops distinguishable profiles. It has shown that other models can also create profiles and these ones, are similar in nature, i.e., the "totally committed" employees (employees having all forms of commitment simultaneously) are more satisfied with their job irrespective of the model in use. Moreover, the existence of the affective forms of commitment in a profile, e.g., affective commitment and organizational identification, make people feel more satisfied than any other form of organizational commitment. This research managed to extend the conceptual framework on organizational commitment profiles by using other typologies and by relating them to job attitudes.

The third area of contribution is three-fold: firstly, the relationship between organizational commitment forms and regulatory foci, secondly, the development of a moderating relationship of self-regulation to job satisfaction/organizational commitment and thirdly, the construction of distinguishable regulatory focus characters. The first case develops relationships between promotion focus and prevention focus and the three distinguishable forms of commitment, by showing the special importance of these relationships to the 'dual nature' of normative commitment. The second case is important, since the type of regulation

is directly related to job satisfaction/organizational commitment, so that employees' personality characteristics influence their attitudinal relationships. The knowledge of regulatory processes and the distinction of employees between promotion focused and prevention focused moderates the relation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Moreover, this relation is further influenced by the type of employment. The third case has to do with the construction – for the first time – of particular and distinguishable regulatory focus characters and extends the broad division between promotion and prevention focus. The construction of the four separable characters widens the differentiation of personality characteristics based on self-regulation and provides a more detailed and thorough model on the relationship between self-regulation and employee attitudes. However, this model needs further investigation and cross-validation.

Finally, this research managed to develop further the knowledge on work-related behaviours, by developing and testing a model where job satisfaction mediates the relationship between the forms organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours. Moreover, the research has discovered that not all organizational citizenship behaviours have the same effect on this mediating relationship, but instead, loyal boosterism has a stronger effect than any other dimension. Loyal boosterism is the uncritical faithfulness to the organization, the defence of its interests, and the contribution to the good reputation of the organization and its general welfare, i.e., very strong and stable positive extra-role behaviour that if present, defines an employee as most likely to be self-motivated and an excellent work performer.

Overall, the whole conceptual framework developed during these years for the purposes of implementing this research and examining it via various field studies and samples of employees involved in it, raised many issues within the area of WOP and opened up new insights which require further examination and research. Moreover, the model developed with

respect to regulatory focus could be further extended by integrating the motivation theory, and the organizational commitment profiles framework could be strengthened by relating the profiles with job satisfaction and task performance together. The theoretical model on the moderating role of self-regulation to the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, as well as the construction of the four regulatory focus characters, are regarded as original contributions to the theory of WOP. The later, could be further extended, by incorporating into the model the mediation effect of job satisfaction to the relationship between affective commitment or normative commitment and loyal boosterism.

7.6. Implications for policy and practice

Apart from the analyzed implications for the theory of WOP, the present research has also significant implications for HRM policy and practice. These implications are evident since the employees examined were from two different sectors and HRM is differently applied to them. In the private sector, HRM is influenced from the developments in the multinational corporations and the models and recipes provided by Business Schools and management gurus; whereas, HRM in the public administration is more bureaucratic, traditional and inflexible and follows, at least in principle, the model of New Public Management (NPM).

The conceptual framework and the results obtained from the relevant statistical analyses show that management policies towards human resources should take into account the place where employees work, i.e., whether we have employees in the private sector or in the public sector. It seems that apart from the affective forms of commitment that are more intrinsically and subjectively decided and rationalized, meaning that the ability of management to intervene and influence employees' level of commitment is restricted; the other forms have

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more rational components and employees value them according to what they face or on what situations they are engaged in. Thus, continuance commitment and the existence of side bets have an important effect on the feelings of private sector employees towards their workplace and employer. They are directly related to job satisfaction and since we have shown that job satisfaction is related to task performance via the existence of organizational citizenship behaviours, then management in the private sector should provide employment opportunities and competitive workplaces in order for the employees to feel committed and associate themselves with their current employment. On the other hand, public sector employees value a lot normative commitment and loyalty to their organization, thus, the more formalized and typical are the employment relationships and the more objective and definite are regulations, procedures, rights, duties and obligations, the more committed a civil servant will feel towards the organization. Civil servants are obligated to comply and work with the formal rules, regulations and procedures that they learn to adhere from the first day of their employment in the public sector. This functioning of these organizations, together with the type, form and content of employment relationship and hierarchical structure, make easier for civil servants to feel an indebted obligation towards their organization and its top management. It is an obligation to conduct and perform their work duties with the proper manner and comply with the rules and directives. This indebted obligation is part of an individual's normative commitment towards the organization, as Meyer (2005) suggested. The results and conclusions drawn from this study provide an important validation for public sector managers and policy makers, since they show why and how employees could feel more affectively and normatively committed towards their organizations. These are issues where Public Administration and the State could easily intervene, such as the workplace environment, supportive and collaborative relations, and greater emphasis on intrinsic reward. The more difficult area is the provision of extrinsic rewards based on performance, since Greek law prohibits public sector organizations from operating performance related reward systems.

The examination of organizational commitment profiles revealed another interesting finding: apart from the profiles containing all forms of commitment, profiles having the affective forms – affective commitment and organizational identification – make people feel more satisfied with their job than other combinations of profiles. This finding acknowledges the fact that affection makes employees feel more committed towards the organization than any other profile. This rather subjective and individualized form of commitment leaves little room for the application of broad-ranged and organization-wide human resource policies. Instead, it shows a new path for HRM, where work and organizational psychologists have a significant role to play in order to devise more humane motivation policies and move towards the extensive application of "high involvement" HR systems. This is not an easy task to pursue, since the adverse economic conditions – economic recession, inflationary pressures, rising unemployment rates, low levels of economic growth, insecure labour markets, pressures from immigrant workers, etc., make employers value more the financial aspect of the employees, than their human side. New management initiatives attempting to humanize the workplace cost money, whereas, the application of the classical personnel management principles, although potentially create adversarial industrial relations, are cost-effective and standardized for all employees.

The research on commitment profiles highlighted the importance of seeking to develop affective commitment or organizational identification. Initiatives that seek to emphasize the economic implications of leaving the organization (i.e., associated with continuance commitment) may be not only ineffective but actually detrimental to positive organizational outcomes. If the key variable is the extent to which the individual wants to stay in the organization, emphasizing the costs associated with leaving the organization; through for example manipulation of reward systems may undermine the sense of emotional attachment. Thus it is the manager's job to create and develop organizational environments and jobs that

will enable employees to feel attached to their organization. In the Greek context, given the importance of the loyalty component of commitment, stability of employment and career structure would seem to be significant for all employees. However, this may be difficult to achieve in a climate where unemployment rates remain high, consumption rates and patterns are rather low and the growth rates of the total Greek economy does not exceed three percent per annum. Accepting that total organizational commitment produces positive outcomes, emphasizing security and order may be a more effective lever for increasing organizational commitment in collectivist cultures high in uncertainty avoidance than in more individualist contexts.

Furthermore, the inclusion of regulatory focus in the model showed that promotion focus and prevention focus moderate the job satisfaction/continuance commitment relationship in the private sector and the job satisfaction/normative commitment relationship in the public sector. This finding is important for management practitioners, since it strengthens the argument that HRM policies should be more personalized and psychology-driven, because human beings are complicated and have different personality characteristics and behavioural patterns. Moreover, the results from the statistical analyses showed that in the private sector, individuals primarily characterized as prevention focused ("conservatives") and individuals exemplifying both regulatory focus states ("rationalists") tend to be more continuance committed as they move from low to high values of extrinsic satisfaction with their job. "Rationalists" in particular are also likely to appreciate this recognition of commitment and would be willing to "go the extra mile" for a valued employer, again generating greater possibility for extrinsic reward. The attention and concern for a work environment which meets their idealistic aspirations in pursuit of their personal values may also incorporate expectations of high levels of extrinsic reward. "Rationalists" have both a greater concern for personal security and a strong sense of obligation, and this is recognized and reflected in their higher levels of continuance and normative commitment. On the other

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hand "Conservatives", who share these concerns, do not internalize the contribution of the organization. These outcomes are valuable for HR managers, since it acknowledges the fact that employees rationalize management policies and assess the costs and benefits of their decisions, having always in their mind the safeguarding of their current status and employment position. More or less, this is the lesson learnt from the public sector, but in this case, the safeguarding affects the increase on normative commitment as employees move from low to high values of extrinsic satisfaction.

The implications for HRM specialists and practitioners are significant, given the associations between regulatory focus and these two core job-related attitudes. For "achievers", with their focus on pursuit of their own ideals, flexibility and the availability of intrinsic reward could be most effective in enhancing performance. Micro-management and target setting are likely to be met with voluntary resignations, although linking the availability of rewards to the successful completion of tasks which "achievers" find stimulating and worthwhile could be effective in generating higher levels of performance, although probably not any greater sense of loyalty. "Conservatives" are likely to be good 'company men'. They tend to be reliable and to an extent predictable, although they may not respond positively to organizational change due to a prevention focused stance to life and work. Highly contingent reward packages where individual responsibilities are ill-defined or difficult to measure could also be unpopular among "conservatives". On the positive side, it could be argued that they would perform well as long as they feel their rewards are fair, and may well be good organizational citizens. "Indifferents" may at first sight appear to be the type of employee best avoided. This is not entirely accurate. It seems that an organization consisting of only the three other characters would become unstable as the personal and calculative interpretations of the employees could pull the company apart. For "indifferents", work seems to be simply not that central and therefore they tend to bring a balance to what might otherwise become a highly strung environment. They may be the cool head through which change is considered

without the personal or organizational vested interests of the "achievers" or the "conservatives". While they may not be the most dynamic or challenging group of employees, they probably do what is required; however, further investigation needs in order to confirm this assertion. Finally, "rationalists" seem to live and breathe their organization. Their attachment to the organization coupled with the striving characteristic of a promotion focus would make them good long-term investments. However, this attachment needs to be reciprocated by providing a secure and safe workplace and an employment contract which demonstrates commitment on the part of the employer. While "achievers" may drive change, "rationalists" will make it happen, both through their own actions and through convincing "conservatives" and motivating "indifferents". "Rationalists" could be characterized as the 'cool mind' of the employees of an organization, since they tend to rationalize their actions and motives through the evaluation of costs and benefits of management policies and initiatives. Overall, the knowledge of the existence of these four regulatory focus characters could provide an immense help to managers in order to develop appropriate HRM and Organizational Development (OD) policies and practices which accommodate these characters. However, it should be pointed that the aim of the current study was not to interpret the four regulatory focus characters with respect to employees' behaviour at work and management actions, but to develop these characters per se and see how they are related to the job-related attitudes. Further research needs to be conducted, primarily of qualitative nature, where employees could be asked to evaluate their feelings and show their responses towards management policies and actions, based on these four regulatory focus characters.

Moreover, the results from the relationship between regulatory foci and the forms of organizational commitment point out the important role that regulatory focus may play in affecting the different components of commitment. This could have practical implications for personnel selection, development, and leadership. Depending on the nature of work, organizations may be inclined predominantly to select promotion or prevention focused

employees. However, they may not anticipate the potential consequences such a selection strategy may have for the resulting commitment profiles. Likewise, these results may be useful for personnel development and leadership in that, different regulatory foci could be made salient with predictable consequences for organizational commitment.

Finally, the acknowledgement of the role OCBs play is an important feature of managers' job, since it helps them to develop and devise appropriate policies and motivation practices in order to enable employees to engage into extra-role performance while they are working, and in particular, the importance of loyal boosterism. Although, some of the OCBs are intrinsically-driven and based on self-motivation, the effective use of management practices and the existence of supportive and collaborative work environments, supplemented with interesting and challenging work assignments, lead people to exhibit citizenship behaviours. Towards this end, is the application of 'high involvement' practices – the decentralization of knowledge, information and rewards, through the development of self-managed work teams, the creation of enriched jobs and the introduction of gainsharing programmes for increased job performance. The direct and strong relationship between the more affective and intrinsically driven forms of commitment, i.e., affective and normative commitment, with loyal boosterism, as being mediated by feeling one's satisfaction towards the job, strengthen the proposition that the 'high involvement' practices and the enriched jobs through autonomy, feedback and the development of skills and knowledge, provide the essential tools to management to devise appropriate and individualized HR policies and procedures. Moreover, it signifies the necessity for Greek companies and organizations – both in the private and public sector – to develop the human resources and invest in its education and training, if they want to remain competitive in the globalized environment.

Overall, this research provides numerous challenges and new insights to management, all aiming towards the development of more humane and personalized workplaces and

making managers to think that an efficient and effective human resource is the one being committed to the organization (the macro level) and satisfied with the job (the micro level).

7.7. Limitations of the research

The present research examined work-related attitudes, self-regulatory states, and contextual behaviours in two sectors of the economy in Greece. The major limitation of this research is the cross-sectional data generated in self-reported, mono-source questionnaires that raise the potential for common-method variance. This might account for some inflation of the relationships between the variables used for the research, but apparently cannot be responsible for finding links. However, there are relatively few alternatives to these types of field studies. This deficiency is exhibited in all field studies using self-reported quantitative-type questionnaires. It is difficult to envisage a way in which individual attitudes such as job satisfaction can be assessed other than through self report. This is less of a problem, however, for the hypothesized interaction effects – both two-way and three-way used for all studies. It needs to be acknowledged that common method variance cannot account for interactions but rather leads to an underestimation of statistical interactions (McClelland & Judd, 1993). Despite the mono-source design, there should be confidence in the interactions obtained for all studies. Moreover, the instruments developed for this research have well proven psychometric properties, suggesting that they are likely to be resistant to common method variance (Spector, 1987).

One alternative to overcome this limitation might be to focus on a more qualitative approach, although personal interviews with a small number of respondents would limit generalizability. Longitudinal studies incorporating behavioural data from third party informants are strongly advocated in the literature. However such an approach was not possible here and third party informants would be unable to comment on individual attitudes.

Third party reports of job satisfaction or behavioural assessment of commitment or citizenship behaviour are clearly avenues to be pursued in future and discussed later on. However, given that the main contribution of this research was the development and examination of a conceptual framework incorporating attitudes, behaviours, self-regulations, and economic sectors, these further lines of research remain to be developed.

The data were generated from convenience sampling of public and private sector employees. This also may limit the generalizability of the findings, although the relatively large sample sizes mediated this shortcoming. In all studies, the sample sizes were large enough, providing acceptable statistical power to the results. One further issue arising from this sampling approach is that the public sector sample includes supervisory and middle management employees while the private sector sample comprises primarily non-supervisory participants. Therefore it could be suggested that the differences observed between public and private sector participants in fact stem from status and hierarchical variation. It is not possible to test this proposition with the data available, but effective controls measures should be incorporated into future studies. The existence of convenience sampling resulted in the inability to match the organizational environments and contexts to where employees are working. However the inclusion of a selection of relevant control variables, both demographic and attitudinal (positive and negative affectivity), seeks to limit the extent to which individual experience might confound the outcomes. Some additional control measures would have been helpful however, notably data on pay level and organizational size; however, the limitations and restrictions provided by the Data Protection Act made impossible to collect these data.

A feature that has perhaps not been sufficiently explored is the extent to which the direct translation of scales might introduce error. While the translation processes were checked to be accurate (as stated previously, a bilingual teacher checked the statements used for the research), the interpretation of the constructs studied may not be so direct. Items generated in

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an English-speaking frame might be interpreted differently from a Greek perspective: they might be difficult to understand or interpret for such a different audience. This may also go some way to explain the relatively modest internal reliabilities reported for the job involvement and loyalty sub-scales, as well as, the prevention focus one. Clearly there is a judgment to be made between identifying culturally appropriate 'emic' measures and enabling direct comparisons of data through direct translation of measures assumed to be 'etic' (Vandenberghe, 2003). This research has opted to pursue the latter line. However, underlying interpretation of the issues associated with organizational commitment in a Greek context requires further investigation.

Finally, future work should aim at testing the stability and generalizability of the differential relationships between the moderating role of sector on the satisfaction/commitment relationship, or the moderating role of regulatory focus on the aforementioned relationship, or the differential relationships between regulatory foci and components of commitment, or the three-way interactions for the commitment profiles, or the mediation effects on the commitment/OCBs relationships, that were all observed during this research.

7.8. Recommendations for further research

Study 1 examined the moderating role of sector in accounting for the relationships between job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the Greek cultural and organizational context. It identified significant impacts of sector on the relationships between affective and normative commitment and the extrinsic and intrinsic facets of job satisfaction. Further study is needed in order to verify these results and relate them to specific HRM outcomes, such as job performance, employee assessment results, and employment practices. Also, further study is needed for the sub-constructs of normative commitment – moral

imperative and indebted obligation. Furthermore, another study is needed for the investigation of the relationship between continuance commitment and job satisfaction – especially since the former concept is conceptualized in the relevant international bibliography as low alternatives (LOALT) and high sacrifices (HISAC). Although, it has been used in study 4, the aim of this research was not to investigate or examine any sorts of relationships between the sub-constructs of the forms of organizational commitment and the other variables, but to see the forms themselves as integrated concepts. Finally, cross-cultural comparisons are welcomed, since it is interesting to see cross-national differences, especially within the European Union, where very different cultural contexts come together under the umbrella of free markets at an ever increasing pace.

Study 2, apart from developing two sets of commitment profiles, also verified the conceptual framework developed by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001); however it raised issues that need further investigation. These are: (a) an examination of commitment profiles with respect to focal and discretionary behaviours in Greece, (b) a study of the forms of commitment as predictors of more specific job attitudes, such as, satisfaction from payment or satisfaction from job security, or as predictors of employee performance, and (c) a culturally specific analysis and interpretation of the meaning of organizational commitment in Greece, as highlighted above. The first of these proposals requires an extension of the current work in line with other published work focusing on behavioural rather than attitudinal outcomes of commitment. This would also, in due course, overcome the difficulties of common method variance previously highlighted. The second suggestion represents an elaboration of the constructs already under study. The third proposition, however, poses more significant difficulties. The local meaning of organizational commitment might not be captured by the Cook and Wall (1980) or Meyer et al. (1993) measures. However the similarities observed in the data with that reported elsewhere provided some reassurance of the transportability of the constructs. A more comprehensive investigation of the meaning of organizational

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commitment in Greece will be a welcome addition to research in this field – especially, if this research is more a qualitative one than quantitative. This research provides a baseline data for such elaboration.

Study 3 on the relationship between the forms of commitment and regulatory foci and on the moderating role of regulatory focus to the job satisfaction/organizational commitment relationship, needs to be further tested on the stability and generalizability of its conceptual framework. Clearly some of the hypotheses generated regarding behavioural outcomes of these regulatory focus characters are directly testable and will be the subject of future research. In particular, the present empirical study needs further replication in other cultural contexts, either as part of a longitudinal study in the same cultural context, or as a cross-cultural and a cross-national study. A future study needs also to research/examine the four regulatory focus characters and re-confirm their typological nature, and not simply their dimensional one. Moreover, this framework could be extended and related more closely to Self-Determination Theory, thus generating a more general model for the motivational and attitudinal processes within organizations. Qualitative study of the more personalized and specific areas of regulatory focus and organizational and job attitudes may also prove illuminating. This can be further connected to qualitative material selected by managerial assessments of employees' self-regulation and attitudes towards their job and organization.

Finally, Study 4 on the mediating role of job satisfaction to the relationship between the forms of organizational commitment and the dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviours could be further extended by a longitudinal or/and a cross-cultural examination. This could further strengthen the results obtained from this study and provide a more generalizable picture to the academic community. Furthermore, future studies could test the relationships of the sub-constructs of normative commitment (moral imperative and indebted obligation) and of continuance commitment (high sacrifices and low alternatives) with the

distinguishable dimensions of OCBs. Moreover, if future research manages to collect job performance supervisory ratings, then it could grasp a more thorough view of the mediation effects and could escape from the uni-dimensionality of the self-reported data.

Overall, future attempts to research this area could be focused on the cross-validation of the results obtained from the present studies by either using longitudinal findings or by conducting cross-cultural and cross-organizational surveys. Furthermore, qualitative studies or collection of third-party assessments would be most welcomed.

7.9. A final note

The last chapter of this doctoral thesis presented an analytical discussion of the results obtained from the statistics and the examination of research hypotheses. It related and connected the results to the theory of Work and Organizational Psychology and the practice of Human Resource Management and showed the contribution of the current research to both of them. Finally, it analytically discussed the limitations of this research and provided extensive suggestions for future research attempts.

Although this work developed a rather wide and extensive conceptual framework and used multiple quantitative studies and samples to test the relevant research hypotheses, it is still unable – as any study that has a deadline – to progress the investigation even further, to see other interesting interactions and relations, or to use alternative methodologies. For four years, the researcher engaged in the development and examination of theoretical models and there is a belief that the researcher managed to provide new ideas on the field of WOP and to conduct an extensive field research on a rather scarcely explored cultural and organizational context: that of Greece. The researcher anticipates that in the future, there will other attempts

to explore this model and even to extend it further, and this research managed to provide the incentive for such attempts and future collaborations.

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APPENDICES

1: The questionnaire for study 1

JOB SATISFACTION

The following statements have to do with various sides of the work life, when a person is called to provide an answer to the question **"are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your job?"** We would like you to answer them by placing a **X** in the box reflecting the degree of your **satisfaction or dissatisfaction** on each one of these statements **on your present job**

Use the following scale:

1: I am very dissatisfied

2: I am dissatisfied

3: I am slightly dissatisfied

4: I am not sure

5: I am slightly satisfied

6: I am satisfied

7: I am very satisfied

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.1. The opportunity to use the abilities I possess	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.2. The feeling of accomplishment for the work I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.3. The money I receive in comparison with those my co-workers receive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.4. The chances for promotion and advancement I receive from the organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.5. The personnel policies used by the management (fair and equal treatment of all employees)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.6. The money I receive with respect the amount of work I offer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.7. The chance to be creative at work and use my ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.8. The chance to choose my own work method and pace, without immediate and close supervision	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.9. The safety and security that the job offers to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.10. The personal relationships with my co-workers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.11. The ability to use my own judgment, i.e. to decide by myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.12. The recognition I receive from the management for doing a good job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.13. The ability to do a work that is not against my personal principles and conscience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.14. The organization's safe and secure future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.15. The training I receive from the company or from my immediate supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.16. The feeling that the work I do is useful for the others and for the community	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.17. The support I receive from the organization or from my immediate supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.18. The management's ability to reach on competent decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.19. The social prestige I receive from the job I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.20. The amount of variety I receive on the work I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.21. The physical work conditions and the health and safety issues at work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.22. The state of industrial relations between the management of the organization and the trade union	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

1.23. The state of your relationships with	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
the trade union							

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

The following statements reflect your personal feelings with respect to the organization you are working for. Please place a **X** in the box reflecting your degree **of agreement or disagreement** with each one of the following statements.

The scale you should use is:

1: Strong disagreement

2: Disagreement

3: Slight disagreement

4: I am not sure

5: Slight agreement

6: Agreement

7: Strong agreement

2.1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
my career with this organization							
2.2. Right now, staying with my organization is a	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
matter of necessity as much as desire							
2.3. I do not feel obligation to remain with the	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
current organization							

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.4. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.5. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.6. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.7. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.8. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.9. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.10. I don to feel "emotionally attached" to this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.11. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.12. This organization deserves my loyalty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.13. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.14. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.15. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
2.16. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
2.17. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
2.18. I owe a great deal to my organization	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

PERSONAL FEELINGS

This scale provides a number of words that describe **different feelings and emotions**. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you **generally feel this way**, that is, how you feel on the average. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Rarely	Few times	Sometimes	Frequently	Most of the times	Always

_____ 1. Interested

_____ 2. Excited

_____ 3. Strong

_____ 4. Active

_____ 11. Distressed

_____ 12. Upset

_____ 13. Ashamed

_____ 14. Guilty

_____	5. Enthusiastic	_____	15. Irritable
_____	6. Proud	_____	16. Nervous
_____	7. Alert	_____	17. Hostile
_____	8. Inspired	_____	18. Scared
_____	9. Determined	_____	19. Jittery
_____	10. Attentive	_____	20. Afraid

PERSONAL DATA

I would like you to fill in the following part for purely statistical reasons:

4.1. Gender: ☐ **1** Male ☐ **2** Female

4.2. Age:

☐ **1** 22 – 35 ☐ **2** 36 – 45

☐ **3** 46 – 59 ☐ **4** 60 +

4.3. Time of service (years):

☐ **1** 0 – 6 ☐ **2** 7 – 12

☐ **3** 13 – 21 ☐ **4** 22 +

4.4. Position in the hierarchy:

☐ **1** Subordinate ☐ **2** Supervisor

☐ **3** Manager

4.5. Educational level:

☐ **1** High school ☐ **2** Technical school graduate

☐ **3** University graduate ☐ **4** Postgraduate

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for your cooperation

2: The questionnaire for study 2

JOB SATISFACTION

The following statements have to do with various sides of the work life, when a person is called to provide an answer to the question **"are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your job?"** We would like you to answer them by placing a **X** in the box reflecting the degree of your **satisfaction or dissatisfaction** on each one of these statements **on your present job**

Use the following scale:

1: I am very dissatisfied

2: I am dissatisfied

3: I am slightly dissatisfied

4: I am not sure

5: I am slightly satisfied

6: I am satisfied

7: I am very satisfied

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.1. The opportunity to use the abilities I possess	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.2. The feeling of accomplishment for the work I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.3. The money I receive in comparison with those my co-workers receive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.4. The chances for promotion and advancement I receive from the organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.5. The personnel policies used by the management (fair and equal treatment of all employees)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.6. The money I receive with respect the amount of work I offer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.7. The chance to be creative at work and use my ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.8. The chance to choose my own work method and pace, without immediate and close supervision	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.9. The safety and security that the job offers to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.10. The personal relationships with my co-workers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.11. The ability to use my own judgment, i.e. to decide by myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.12. The recognition I receive from the management for doing a good job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.13. The ability to do a work that is not against my personal principles and conscience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.14. The organization's safe and secure future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.15. The training I receive from the company or from my immediate supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.16. The feeling that the work I do is useful for the others and for the community	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.17. The support I receive from the organization or from my immediate supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.18. The management's ability to reach on competent decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.19. The social prestige I receive from the job I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.20. The amount of variety I receive on the work I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.21. The physical work conditions and the health and safety issues at work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.22. The state of industrial relations between the management of the organization and the trade union	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

1.23. The state of your relationships	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐

with the trade union

INVOLVEMENT, IDENTIFICATION AND LOYALTY

The following statements try to assess **what it means for you to be a member of your organization.** Please place a **X** in the box reflecting your degree **of agreement or disagreement** with each one of the following statements.

The scale you should use is:

1: I completely disagree

2: I disagree

3: I slightly disagree

4: I am not sure

5: I slightly agree

6: I agree

7: I completely agree

2.1. I feel very proud to tell my friends where I	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐

work for

2.2. There are moments that I want to quit from	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐

the job and leave from the organization

2.3. Even if the organization faces financial	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐

difficulties, I will not leave

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.4. I will not recommend to a friend of mine to come and work for my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.5. If they offer me more money than the ones I receive in this organization, I would accept them and leave from the job immediately	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.6. The greater satisfaction in my life comes from my job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.7. I believe that the organization I work for is the best I could find	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.8. I am not ready to spend all my efforts for the organization's sake. Work is a small part of a person's life	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.9. I usually leave immediately after I finish my work or my job shift ends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.10. I feel my organization as my home	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.11. I would have no problem to work for this organization until I will retire	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.12. I am not willing to spend extra effort for the organization's sake, if this company does not provide me with adequate incentives	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

The following statements reflect your personal feelings with respect to the organization you are working for. Please place a **X** in the box reflecting your degree **of agreement or disagreement** with each one of the following statements.

The scale you should use is:

1: Strong disagreement

2: Disagreement

3: Slight disagreement

4: I am not sure

5: Slight agreement

6: Agreement

7: Strong agreement

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.2. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.3. I do not feel obligation to remain with the current organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.4. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.5. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.6. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.7. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.8. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.9. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.10. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.11. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.12. This organization deserves my loyalty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.13. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.14. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.15. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.16. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3.17. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
3.18. I owe a great deal to my organization	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐

PERSONAL DATA

I would like you to fill in the following part for purely statistical reasons:

4.1. Gender: ☐   **1** Male   ☐   **2** Female

4.2. Age:

☐   **1** 22 – 35   ☐ **2** 36 – 45

☐   **3** 46 – 59   ☐   **4** 60 +

4.3. Time of service (years):

☐   **1** 0 – 6   ☐   **2** 7 – 12

☐   **3** 13 – 21   ☐   **4** 22 +

4.4. Position in the hierarchy:

☐ **1** Subordinate ☐ **2** Supervisor

☐ **3** Manager

4.5. Educational level:

☐ **1** High school ☐ **2** Technical school graduate

☐ **3** University graduate ☐ **4** Postgraduate

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for your cooperation

3: The questionnaire for study 3

JOB SATISFACTION

The following statements have to do with various sides of the work life, when a person is called to provide an answer to the question **"are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your job?"** We would like you to answer them by placing a **X** in the box reflecting the degree of your **satisfaction or dissatisfaction** on each one of these statements **on your present job**

Use the following scale:

1: I am very dissatisfied

2: I am dissatisfied

3: I am slightly dissatisfied

4: I am not sure

5: I am slightly satisfied

6: I am satisfied

7: I am very satisfied

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.1. The opportunity to use the abilities I possess	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.2. The feeling of accomplishment for the work I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

1.3. The money I receive in comparison with those my co-workers receive	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
1.4. The chances for promotion and advancement I receive from the organization	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
1.5. The personnel policies used by the management (fair and equal treatment of all employees)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
1.6. The money I receive with respect the amount of work I offer	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
1.7. The chance to be creative at work and use my ideas	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
1.8. The chance to choose my own work method and pace, without immediate and close supervision	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
1.9. The safety and security that the job offers to me	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
1.10. The personal relationships with my co-workers	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
1.11. The ability to use my own judgment, i.e. to decide by myself	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
1.12. The recognition I receive from the management for doing a good job	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.13. The ability to do a work that is not against my personal principles and conscience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.14. The organization's safe and secure future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.15. The training I receive from the company or from my immediate supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.16. The feeling that the work I do is useful for the others and for the community	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.17. The support I receive from the organization or from my immediate supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.18. The management's ability to reach on competent decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.19. The social prestige I receive from the job I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.20. The amount of variety I receive on the work I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.21. The physical work conditions and the health and safety issues at work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.22. The state of industrial relations between the management of the organization and the trade union	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

1.23. The state of your relationships with	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐

the trade union

LIFE-RELATED FOCI

The following ten statements describe some of your personal life-related foci. Please place a **X** in the box reflecting your degree **of agreement or disagreement** with each one of the following statements.

The scale you should use is:

1: Strong disagreement

2: Disagreement

3: Slight disagreement

4: I am not sure

5: Slight agreement

6: Agreement

7: Strong agreement

2.1. I am more oriented toward preventing losses than I am toward achieving gains	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
2.2. I often imagine myself experiencing good things that I hope will happen to me	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐

2.3. I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
2.4. In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
2.5. I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
2.6. I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my life	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
2.7. I often imagine myself experiencing bad things that I fear might happen to me	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
2.8. Overall, I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
2.9. I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐
2.10. In general, I am focused on achieving positive outcomes in my life	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐	6 ☐	7 ☐

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

The following statements reflect your personal feelings with respect to the organization you are working for. Please place a **X** in the box reflecting your degree **of agreement or disagreement** with each one of the following statements.

The scale you should use is:

1: Strong disagreement

2: Disagreement

3: Slight disagreement

4: I am not sure

5: Slight agreement

6: Agreement

7: Strong agreement

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.2. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.3. I do not feel obligation to remain with the current organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.4. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.5. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.6. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.7. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.8. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.9. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.10. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.11. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.12. This organization deserves my loyalty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.13. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.14. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.15. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.16. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.17. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.18. I owe a great deal to my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PART 4: Personal affect

This scale provides a number of words that describe **different feelings and emotions**. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate extent to which you **generally feel this way**, i.e., how you feel in general. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Rarely	Few times	Sometimes	Frequently	Most of the times	Always

_____	1. Interested	_____	11.Distressed
_____	2. Excited	_____	12. Upset
_____	3. Strong	_____	13. Ashamed
_____	4. Active	_____	14. Guilty
_____	5. Enthusiastic	_____	15. Irritable
_____	6. Proud	_____	16. Nervous
_____	7. Alert	_____	17. Hostile
_____	8. Inspired	_____	18. Scared
_____	9. Determined	_____	19. Jittery
_____	10. Attentive	_____	20. Afraid

PERSONAL DATA

I would like you to fill in the following part for purely statistical reasons:

5.1. Gender: ☐   **1** Male   ☐   **2** Female

5.2. Age:

☐   **1** 22 – 35   ☐   **2** 36 – 45

☐   **3** 46 – 59   ☐   **4** 60 +

5.3. Time of service (years):

☐   **1** 0 – 6   ☐   **2** 7 – 12

☐   **3** 13 – 21   ☐   **4** 22 +

5.4. Position in the hierarchy:

☐   **1** Subordinate   ☐   **2** Supervisor

☐   **3** Manager

5.5. Educational level:

☐ **1** High school　　　☐ **2** Technical school graduate

☐ **3** University graduat☐　　**4** Postgraduate

<center>END OF QUESTIONNAIRE</center>

<center>**Thank you for your cooperation**</center>

4: The questionnaire for study 4

PART 1: Job satisfaction

The following statements have to do with various sides of the work life, when a person is called to provide an answer to the question **"are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your job?"** We would like you to answer them by placing a **X** in the box reflecting the degree of your **satisfaction or dissatisfaction** on each one of these statements **on your present job**	**Use the following scale**: **1:** I am very dissatisfied **2:** I am dissatisfied **3:** I am slightly dissatisfied **4:** I am not sure **5:** I am slightly satisfied **6:** I am satisfied **7:** I am very satisfied

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The money I receive in comparison with those my co-workers receive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.2. The personnel policies used by the management (fair and equal treatment of all employees)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.3. The money I receive with respect the amount of work I offer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.4. The safety and security that the job offers to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.5. The personal relationships with my co-workers within the workplace	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.6. The organization's safe and secure future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.7. The training I receive from the company or from my immediate supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.8. The support I receive from my immediate supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.9. The immediate supervisor's ability to reach on competent decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.10. The physical work conditions at work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.11. The state of industrial relations between the management of the organization and the trade union	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.12. The state of my relationships with the trade union	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.13. The opportunity to use the abilities I possess	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.14. The feeling of accomplishment for the work I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.15. The chances for promotion and advancement I receive from the organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.16. The chance to be creative at work and use my own ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.17. The chance to choose my own work method and pace, without immediate and close supervision	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.18. The ability to use my own judgment, i.e., to decide by myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.19. The recognition I receive from the management for doing a good job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.20. The ability to do a work that is not against my personal principles and conscience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.21. The feeling that the work I do is useful for the others and for the community	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.22. The social prestige I receive from the job I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1.23. The amount of variety I receive on the work I do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PART 2: Organizational citizenship behaviour

The following sentences **present your individual behaviours in the organization you are working for**. Be precise and sincere in your answers since they reflect your own behaviours. Please place a **X** in the box reflecting your degree **of agreement or disagreement** with each one of the following statements.	The scale you should use is: 1: Strong disagreement 2: Disagreement 3: Slight disagreement 4: I am not sure 5: Slight agreement 6: Agreement 7: Strong agreement

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.1. I go out to my way to help co-workers with work-related problems	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.2. I voluntarily help new employees settle into the job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.3. I frequently adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.4. I always go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.5. I show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.6. For issues that may have serious consequences, I express opinions honestly even when other disagree	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.7. I often motivate others to express their ideas and opinions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.8. I encourage others to try new and more effective ways of doing their job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.9. I encourage hesitant or quiet co-workers to voice their opinions when they otherwise might not speak up	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.10. I frequently communicate to co-workers suggestions on how the group can improve	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.11. I rarely miss work even when I have a legitimate reason for doing so	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.12. I perform my duties with unusually fewer errors	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.13. I perform my duties with extra-special care	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.14. I always meet or beat deadlines for completing work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.15. I defend the organization when other employees criticize it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.16. I encourage friends and family to utilize the organization's products or services	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.17. I defend the organization when others criticize it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.18. I show pride when representing the organization in public	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.19. I actively promote the organization's products or services to potential users	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PART 3: Organizational commitment

The following statements reflect your personal feelings with respect to the organization you are working for. Please place a **X** in the box reflecting your degree **of agreement or disagreement** with each one of the following statements	**The scale you should use is:** **1:** Strong disagreement **2:** Disagreement **3:** Slight disagreement **4:** I am not sure **5:** Slight agreement **6:** Agreement **7:** Strong agreement

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.7. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.8. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.9. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.10. This organization deserves my loyalty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.11. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.12. I owe a great deal to my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.13. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.14. One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.15. What keeps me working at this organization is the lack of opportunities elsewhere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.16. I have invested too much time in this organization to consider working elsewhere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.17. Leaving this organization now would require considerable personal sacrifice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.18. For my personally, the costs of leaving this organization would be far greater than the benefits	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.19. I would not leave this organization because of what I would stand to lose	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.20. If I decided to leave this organization, too much of my life would be disrupted	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.21. I continue to work for this organization because I do not believe another organization could offer the benefits I have here	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PART 4: Personal data

I would like you to fill in the following part for purely statistical reasons:

4.1. Gender: ☐ **1** Male ☐ **2** Female

4.2. Age:

☐ **1** 22 – 35 ☐ **2** 36 – 45

☐ **3** 46 – 59 ☐ **4** 60 +

4.3. Time of service (years):

☐ **1** 0 – 6 ☐ **2** 7 – 12

☐ **3** 13 – 21 ☐ **4** 22 +

4.4. Position in the hierarchy:

☐ **1** Subordinate ☐ **2** Supervisor

☐ **3** Manager

4.5. Educational level:

☐ **1** High school   ☐ **2** Technical school graduate

☐ **3** University graduat☐   **4** Postgraduate

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for your cooperation