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# **Professionalism versus managerialism?**

**A study on HRM practices, antecedents, organisational  
commitment, and quality of job performances  
among university employees in Europe**

**Sanne G.A. Smeenk**

2007

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# Professionalism versus managerialism?

A study on HRM practices, antecedents, organisational  
commitment, and quality of job performances  
among university employees in Europe

Een wetenschappelijke proeve op het gebied van de Managementwetenschappen

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volgens besluit van het College van Decanen  
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door

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geboren op 3 februari 1980  
te Uden

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Sanne Smeenk

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## **CHAPTER 1**

*General introduction*

“Increasingly, universities are run by people who are trying to embrace what they see as modern management techniques. This can be catastrophic.” “...academics, especially good ones, make employees from hell. There is little about their abilities, dispositions or the structure of their work that equips them to be components in a modern, flexible organisation. I can think of seven things that make them entirely unsuited for such a part.

- They are very clever. This is not an advantage in most institutions as it means that they can think for themselves. (They may not actually be that clever, but they think they are – which may be worse.)
- Some have spectacularly low levels of emotional intelligence, which is often more important than IQ in getting things done.
- They are not team players, to put it mildly. Many are introverted. Moreover, the structure of university life means their colleagues (in most subjects save science) are their rivals.
- Criticism is a way of life. The mind of the academic is trained to pull holes in things. So when presented with a new initiative, they question it and deem it a waste of time as a matter of course.
- There is no line of authority. In a big company everyone sucks up to their bosses and agrees with them. In a university, there is less to be gained by brown-nosing, so disagreement prevails.
- They are complacent and have an interest in the status quo that has given them secure jobs and pensions.
- Because their status largely depends on their research, which may only be understood by a tiny number of people, insecurity, pettiness and bitchiness often result.”

(Kellaway, 2006, p. 9)

The above quotes, borrowed from an article by Lucy Kellaway in the Financial Times of February 27, 2006, strikingly hit the core of this study: the conflict between university employees and new forms of university management that have been inspired by the trend of adopting organisational characteristics that are common in private sector organisations all over Europe. This trend is also known as *managerialism*. Although managerialism aims at efficient and effective quality improvement, it may lead to a decrease of organisational commitment and lower quality of job performances. As a result, a *managerialism contradiction* emerges. To solve, or at least to reduce, such a managerialism contradiction, which affects organisational commitment and quality of job performances of European university employees appears a suitable option. This study focuses on the factors affecting organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees in faculties that are characterised by different levels of managerialism.

This introductory chapter will firstly clarify the context of the study (Section 1.1). Subsequently, the purpose (Section 1.2) and relevance (Section 1.3) of the research will be discussed. Finally, the outline of the dissertation will be presented (Section 1.4).

## 1.1 CONTEXT

Since the early 1980s, a number of societal developments have taken place in the context of European universities. One of these developments is the democratisation of access to higher education. The transformation from an 'elite' to a 'mass' system of university (Trow, 1994b) has not only led to a dramatic increase of the number of formerly less represented and international students, but also to an expansion of the number and size of academic institutions (Bleiklie, 2001; Boffo, Chave, Kaukonen, & Opdal, 1999; Chan, 2001; Chandler, Barry, & Clark, 2001; Potocki-Malicet, Holmesland, Estrela, & Veiga-Simao, 1999; Trinczek & West, 1999). Another development is that the European public authorities have delegated to the universities the responsibility for the establishment of teaching and research programmes and for the organisation and contents of curricula and diplomas (Goedegebuure, Maassen, & Westerheijden, 1990; Gueissaz & Häyrynen-Alestalo, 1999; Thune, 1998). Finally, budget constraints have forced universities "to perform as well or better with the same or, in some cases proportionally fewer, financial resources" (Potocki-Malicet et al., 1999, p. 300; see also Chan, 2001; Chandler et al., 2001; Trinczek & West, 1999). The issues of expansion, decentralisation and financial pressure have been accompanied by societal demands that were until then mainly reserved for commercial organisations in the private sector. For instance, universities in Europe are increasingly expected to be accountable for the quality and improvement of their performances, as well as being transparent with regard to these aspects. In addition, they are required to 'produce' both efficiently and effectively; the society demands 'value for money' (Chan, 2001; Deem, 1998; Gueissaz & Häyrynen-Alestalo, 1999; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000; Pounder, 1997; Roberts, 2001).

To be able to cope with the societal developments and the accompanying private sector-oriented demands, most academic institutions have adopted organisational forms, technologies, management instruments, and values that are commonly found in the private business sector (Deem, 1998). Although the timing, pace, and extent of managerialism differ among countries (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004), universities (Ball, 1990; Shattock, 1999), and faculties (Podgórecki, 1997; Trowler, 1998), most academic institutions have adopted "greater managerial power, structural reorganization, more emphasis on mar-

keting and business generation, moves towards performance-related pay and a rationalization and computerization of administrative structures” (Parker & Jary, 1995, p. 320). This wave of reforms, which has swept through universities and other public organisations all over Europe, is known as *new public management* (NPM) or *managerialism* (Clarke & Newman, 1997; Hood, 1991, 1995; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000).

University employees, however, generally stick to values that are in line with the view of universities as meritocratic institutions (Acker, 1994), which have a special position in society as ‘ivory towers’, and which are characterised by financial autonomy, professionalism, collegiality, and intellectual freedom (Barry, Chandler, & Clark, 2001; Bryson, 2004; Chan, 2001; Shattock, 1999). As a consequence, in universities that have undergone managerialism reforms, a conflict emerges between ‘professional’ employee values, acquired during education and professional socialisation, and ‘managerial’ organisation values, embodied in and required by the new conditions of their work (Hackett, 1990; Townley, 1997). In other words, the rather special role of university employees within the tradition of universities does not easily mix with the new tasks and demands that result from university reforms that society wants to see (Fruytier & Timmerhuis, 1996; Salter & Tapper, 2002).

Since organisational commitment reflects “the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization” (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 493), the conflict between professional and managerial values is expected to result in a loss of organisational commitment. Previous studies support this expectation by suggesting that university employees generally have a poorer work ethos and negative feelings, are reluctant to work, and resist the changes strongly (e.g., Chan, 2001; Fruytier & Timmerhuis, 1996; Henkel & Kogan, 1996; Potocki-Malicet et al., 1999; Trow, 1994b; Välimaa, Aittola, & Konttinen, 1998; Ylijoki, 2003a). In addition, committed employees are able to fulfil the pursuit of continuous quality improvement and want to do what is best for the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Lee, 1971; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Pilbeam & Corbridge, 2002; Thornhill, Lewis, & Saunders, 1996). As a consequence, a decrease of organisational commitment among university employees is expected to result in a drop in quality of performances. Other studies support this expectation by arguing that employees demonstrate unproductive behaviour (e.g., Chan,

2001) or adapt their activities to “the simplifying tendencies of the quantification of outputs” (Trow, 1994a, p. 41), which may lead to lower-quality performances.

Hence, an obvious managerial overtone in universities may constitute both a major stimulus, through reforms, and a major obstacle, through lower organisational commitment among employees, for facing societal demands for efficient and effective quality improvement. In other words, managerialism seems to work against its own intentions (Bryson, 2004; Chan, 2001; Thornhill et al., 1996; Trow, 1994a). In this study, this discrepancy is called a *managerialism contradiction*.

## 1.2 PURPOSE

Two options are at hand for solving or reducing a managerialism contradiction in contemporary universities. The first option is to reverse the developments that encouraged universities to adopt organisational characteristics that are common in private sector organisations. However, such a reversal of societal developments and, consequently, a reversion of the trend of managerialism are practically impossible (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1996). The second option is to influence university employees’ organisational commitment and the quality of their performances. To apply this option, it is essential to know which factors affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees.

The Resource-based View of the Firm (Barney, 1991; Penrose, 1959; Wernerfelt, 1984) is one of the dominant theories in the field of human resource management (HRM) and performance (Delery & Shaw, 2001; Pauwe & Boselie, 2003). This Resource-based theory argues that the internal resources of an organisation offer opportunities for successful strategic diversification (Barney, 1991; Penrose, 1959; Wernerfelt, 1984). If these resources are valuable, rare, difficult to imitable, and difficult to substitute (Barney, 1991), they raise ‘barriers to imitation’ or create ‘isolating mechanisms’ (Nelson & Winter, 1982; Rumelt, 1984). This uniqueness in internal resources leads to superior organisational performance and sustainable competitive advantage (Lippman & Rumelt, 1982; Mahoney & Pandian, 1992).

Since human resources particularly meet the four basic assumptions of value, rareness, inimitability, and non-substitutability (Boxall, 1996; Huselid, 1995; Paauwe, 1994; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994), HRM researchers and practitioners have taken an interest in the Resource-based View of the Firm (Paauwe, 1994; Wright et al., 1994). In this Resource-based View on HRM, human resources are a major determinant of the organisation's unique organisational performance and sustainable competitive advantage. To profit optimally from the human resources as a source for unique performance and competitive advantage, organisations deploy HRM practices. These practices bring about HRM outcomes, such as organisational commitment and quality of job performances (Guest, 1997), which in turn may contribute to unique organisational performance and sustainable competitive advantage.

Other researchers (e.g., Doorewaard & Benschop, 2003; Watson, 2002), however, criticise the assumptions and assertions of this Resource-based View on human resources and HRM. They argue that this view is “limited in its unambiguous, instrumental, and rationalistic conceptualization of the relationships between the HRM practices, the HR outcomes in terms of knowledge, skills and commitment, and the success of the organization” (Doorewaard & Benschop, 2003, p. 272). In other words, it is argued to reduce human beings to ‘human resources’. This critique reveals that also other factors or antecedents, such as personal variables, job and role characteristics, and structural factors (Lee, 1971; Mowday et al., 1982; Steers, 1977) play a role in influencing employees' organisational commitment. In brief, both HRM practices and antecedents are factors that potentially affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees.

To solve or reduce a managerialism contradiction in contemporary universities it is not only necessary to identify which HRM practices and antecedents affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances, but also to understand the differences and similarities regarding the effects of these factors among countries, universities, and faculties. After all, the levels of managerialism differ among countries (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004), universities (Ball, 1990; Shattock, 1999), faculties (Chan, 2001; Trowler, 1998), and even in the perceptions of individual employees (Davies, in press; Ylijoki, 2003b). This study focuses on faculties with low, middle, and high levels of managerialism. A ‘low-managerialism’ faculty is considered cohesive and col-

legal. Strategic goals are centred on promoting common values such as “the acquisition of knowledge for its own sake, [...] freedom of expression; and working with colleagues” (Stiles, 2004, p. 161). A ‘middle-managerialism’ faculty is seen as “more fragmented and conflictual since traditional collegial values are not so widely shared” (Stiles, 2004, p. 161). Finally, a ‘high-managerialism’ faculty is characterised as a “dependent and subservient” identity, in which “rational-economic managerial values dominate, including those emphasizing administrative effectiveness, career advancement, financial reward and customer-orientation” (Stiles, 2004, p. 162).

Combining the two knowledge problems stated above, the purpose of this study is to examine which HRM practices and which antecedents affect university employees’ organisational commitment and the quality of their job performances in faculties that are characterised by low, middle, and high levels of managerialism.

## **1.3 RELEVANCE**

### **1.3.1 Scientific relevance**

A considerable number of studies have focused on the effects of various HRM practices and/or antecedents on organisational commitment and/or quality of performances (e.g., Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Buck & Watson, 2002; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Galunic & Anderson, 2000; Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Lee, 1971; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mayer & Schoorman, 1998; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch 2001; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Randall, 1990; Slocombe & Bluedorn, 1999; Somers & Birnbaum, 1998; Steers, 1977; Timmerhuis, 1997; Wiener, 1982). However, a review of these and other studies (see Smeenk, Doorewaard, Eisinga, & Teelken, 2006) reveals that none of them focused particularly on university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism. Therefore, this study concentrates on a broad range of HRM practices and antecedents, irrespective of their previously found effects. After all, a factor that appears consistently significant for employees across various branches and organisations may appear less important in university faculties with certain levels of managerialism, and vice versa.

In addition, the books, journal articles, or reports on the functioning of university employees are mostly based on personal observations (e.g., Chan, 2001), focused on one country (e.g., Martin, 2001; Van den Bosch & Teelken, 2000), or on a single university (e.g., Välimaa et al., 1998). Furthermore, Iles, Mabey, and Robertson (1990) argue that, as is often the case with much of the empirical HRM literature, the data are seldom gathered through systematic measurement. Rather, they have often been collected by means of interviews with a small number of managers, who may simply be reflecting managerial rhetoric or managerial beliefs about what has happened or what should happen (Martin & Nicholls, 1987). The lack of systematic and large-scale studies on university employees' organisational commitment and quality of performances in countries, universities, and faculties that have undergone managerialism reforms may be explained by the "closed academic system" in which the conduct of scholarly activities "are to a substantial degree internal to the community of scholars without necessary reference to the external worlds of affairs" (Birch, 1988, p. 7). To sum up, more systematic and large-scale research into HRM and organisational commitment appears necessary, particularly in academic contexts where different levels of managerialism exist. This study focuses on the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment and quality of job performances among 2,325 employees in thirty-six faculties, eighteen universities, and six European countries (Belgium, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United Kingdom).

Finally, this study adds to the debate on HRM and performance, it contributes to the further understanding of HRM practices, antecedents, organisational commitment, and quality of job performances in universities, and it plays a role in the debate on managerialism in academic institutions. This will be achieved by documenting and explaining in a quantitative way and from a comparative perspective the effects that various HRM practices and antecedents have on organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism.

### **1.3.2 Societal relevance**

Governments around the world recognise the importance of high-quality education and research for economic and social development, and invest large shares of their budgets into this area. They see the investments in people as

critical for a country's economic and social development, because they increase a person's productivity and make other investments more productive (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1960; Patrinos, 2000; Potocki-Malicet et al., 1999). An investigation of the factors that affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees may help universities to manage their staff in a way that they are able to fulfil the demands for efficiency, effectiveness, accountability, and quality improvement. In addition, since managerialism and the accompanying conflict between professional and managerial values, the decline in organisational commitment, and the lower quality of job performances are experienced all over Europe (Fruytier & Timmerhuis, 1996; Thune, 1998; Trow, 1994b; Ylijoki, 2003a), the international character of this study addresses this cross-border dimension.

Finally, this study may contribute to the debate concerning the use and design of HRM in universities. Mackay (1995) identified the need for convergence in HRM practices in universities, underpinned by pressures across the whole European university sector: the increase of student numbers and access, the need for greater consistency in teaching and quality standards, and new financial arrangements for a more diverse teaching and research. However, Shelley (1999) recognised diversity in the sector as a result of the need for institutions to be competitive: they are encouraged to focus upon particular academic 'products' and 'markets'.

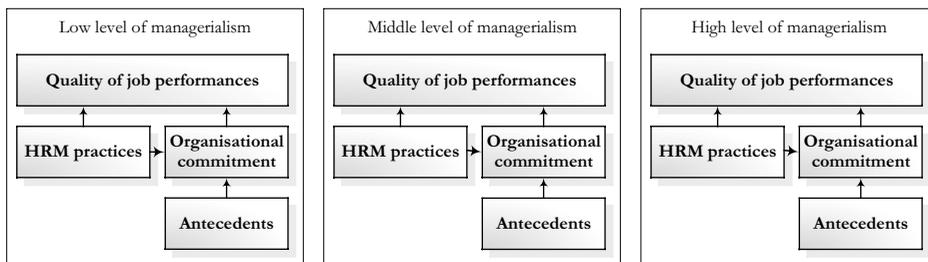
#### **1.4 OUTLINE**

This study examines which HRM practices and which antecedents affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism. The dissertation has been written as a collection of five papers, represented in Chapters 2 to 6.

In Chapter 2, which draws on Smeenk, Teelken, and Doorewaard (2004) and Smeenk, Teelken, Doorewaard, and Eisinga (2004), a conceptual model for the study is built on the theory of the Contextually Based Human Resource Theory (Paauwe, 2004; see also Beer et al., 1995; Doorewaard & Meihuizen, 2000; Flood et al., 1995; Guest, 1997; Paauwe, 1994) and by the

critique of this theory (e.g., Carr, 2001; Downing, 1997; Watson, 2002). Chapters 3, 4, and 5 focus on specific parts of this conceptual model. Taken together, these separate examinations constitute a complete picture indicating which HRM practices and which antecedents affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism. Figure 1.1 presents the conceptual model.

**Figure 1.1** *Conceptual model of the study as presented in Chapter 2*

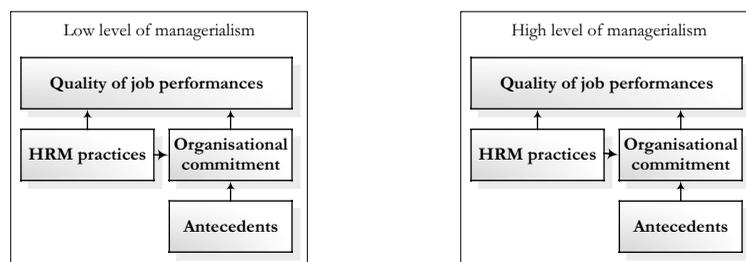


To address the research purpose, empirical research was conducted using a cross-sectional Web survey (see Smeenk, Eisinga, Doorewaard, & Teelken, 2006; Smeenk, Van Selm, & Eisinga, 2005). In order to test the questionnaire, the method of study, and the technical possibilities and impossibilities of the Web survey application, a pilot study was conducted in the summer of 2004 (see Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2006d). This led to some minor adaptations being made to the formulation and sequence of the questions in the questionnaire for the main study (see Appendix A). The adapted questionnaire was administered to university employees in six European countries (Belgium, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United Kingdom).

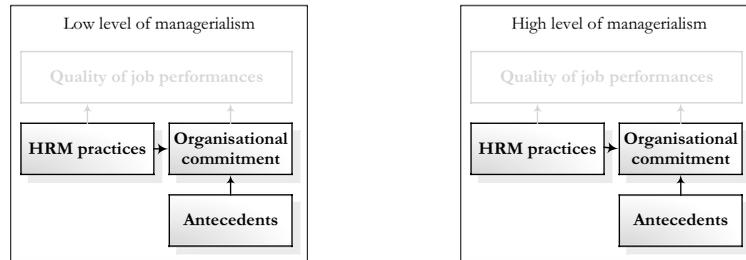
The pilot study's results concerning the content were used to obtain a first insight into the factors affecting organisational commitment and quality of job performances. Chapter 3 reports on these results, based on Smeenk et al. (2006d) and Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, and Doorewaard (2005). It examines which HRM practices and which antecedents affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances among Dutch university employees

in two faculties of the same university. The faculties' levels of managerialism are based on the employees' perceptions of the levels of managerialism in the faculties in which they are employed. The employees in one of the faculties generally perceive it as having a low level of managerialism, whereas the employees in the other faculty generally perceive it as having a high level of managerialism. The conceptual model of Chapter 3 is presented in Figure 1.2.

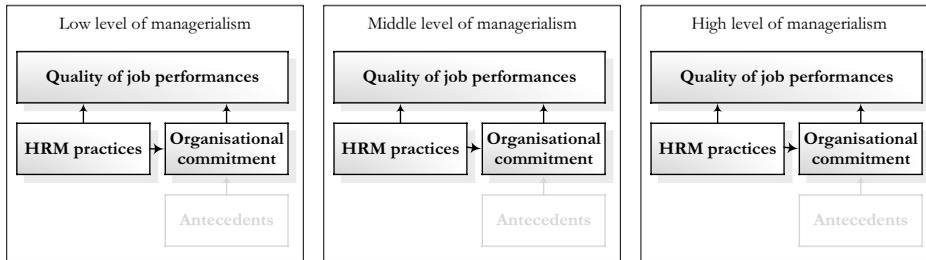
**Figure 1.2** *Conceptual model of Chapter 3*



In Chapters 4 and 5, the analyses are based on data retrieved from the main survey. Each of the two chapters addresses a part of the research purpose. Chapter 4, which draws on Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, and Doorewaard (2006a), focuses on the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment. The effects are examined in two employee groups: one group of employees who perceive their faculties as having low levels of managerialism, and one group of employees who perceive their faculties as having high levels of managerialism. A group with employees who perceive their faculties as having middle levels of managerialism was not created because such a group contains not only the employees who gave moderate responses to all managerialism questions ('pure middle perceivers') but also those who gave both extremely low and extremely high responses to the managerialism questions ('hybrid perceivers'). Since this ambiguity may lead to blurred results, the study focuses on the two extreme groups with employees perceiving low- and high levels of managerialism. Figure 1.3 presents the conceptual model of Chapter 4.

**Figure 1.3** *Conceptual model of Chapter 4*

Based on Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, and Doorewaard (2006b), Chapter 5 concentrates on the direct effects of HRM practices on quality of job performances and on the indirect effects of these practices on quality of job performances via organisational commitment. To address the international character of the study, the effects are studied among university employees in three groups of faculties whose levels of managerialism are based on country levels of managerialism as they are known in literature. Since Belgium and Germany represent countries with low levels of managerialism (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000, 2004), all Belgian and German faculties are considered as ‘low-managerialism’ faculties. Likewise, since Finland and Sweden represent countries with middle levels of managerialism (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000, 2004), all Finnish and Swedish faculties are considered as ‘middle-managerialism’ faculties. Finally, since the Netherlands and the United Kingdom represent countries with high levels of managerialism (De Boer, Enders, & Leisyte, 2006; Jongbloed, Salerno, Huisman, & Vossensteyn, 2005; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000, 2004; Ter Bogt, 2006; Van Gestel & Teelken, 2006), all Dutch and British faculties are considered as ‘high-managerialism’ faculties. Figure 1.4 depicts the conceptual model of Chapter 5.

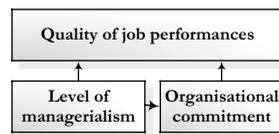
**Figure 1.4** *Conceptual model of Chapter 5*

Although the current literature provides sufficient evidence, both theoretically and empirically, for the existence of a managerialism contradiction in contemporary universities (e.g., Bryson, 2004; Chandler et al., 2001; Davies & Thomas, 2002; Thornhill et al., 1996; Trow, 1994a), there are also some studies which suggest that “‘some dose’ of ‘managerialism’ in the right proportion and in the right context” may be useful in universities and that it positively affects quality of job performances (Chan, 2001, p. 109; see also Research Assessment Exercise, 2001). The data of this study, which is focused on factors affecting organisational commitment and quality of job performances, also offer the possibility to explore the relationships between the level of managerialism, organisational commitment, and quality of job performances. Since these three concepts are the basic concepts of a managerialism contradiction, it is accordingly possible to explore the existence of a managerialism contradiction.

Chapter 6, which draws on Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, and Doorewaard (2006c), elaborates on this exploration by examining two lines of reasoning underlying a managerialism contradiction. In the first one, managerialism is suggested to have a direct effect on the quality of performances. The second line of reasoning assumes that managerialism indirectly affects the quality of job performances via organisational commitment. Since this exploration of the existence of a managerialism contradiction uses data that have been collected particularly for research into the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism, interpretations and conclusions are drawn very cautiously. After all, it is likely that factors that should have been measured in order to obtain reliable and valid re-

sults and to draw constructive conclusions on the existence of a managerialism contradiction have not been measured because they were not relevant for the study on factors affecting university employees' organisational commitment and the quality of their job performances in faculties with different levels of managerialism. Examples of such factors are organisational size, financial situation of the institution, and satisfaction with university or faculty management. Figure 1.5 presents the conceptual model as applied in Chapter 6.

**Figure 1.5** *Conceptual model of Chapter 6*



Chapter 7 concludes the dissertation. In this final chapter, the conclusions from Chapters 3, 4, and 5 are combined, based on the conceptual model in Chapter 2, in order to form a complete picture of HRM practices and antecedents that affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism. Furthermore, the results of the exploration of the relationships between the level of managerialism, organisational commitment, and quality of job performances, as reported in Chapter 6, will be discussed in relation to the research into the factors affecting organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism. In addition, the scientific and practical implications of this study will be discussed. Finally, the major conceptual/theoretical and methodological limitations of the study will be considered, accompanied by perspectives for future research.

## CHAPTER 2

### *Conceptual model*

**This chapter is based on:**

Smeenk, S.G.A., Teelken, J.C., & Doorewaard, J.A.C.M. (2004). Academici en managerialisme. Een onmogelijke combinatie? Organisatiebetrokkenheid van academici bij de 'nieuwe' universiteit. *Tijdschrift voor Hoger Onderwijs*, 22: 86-95.

**An earlier version of this chapter was presented as:**

Smeenk, S.G.A., Teelken, J.C., Doorewaard, J.A.C.M., & Eisinga, R.N. (2004). *Academics and managerialism. An impossible combination? Organisational commitment of academics to the 'new' university*. Paper presented at the 1<sup>st</sup> ELASM Workshop on the Process of Reform of University Systems across Europe, Siena, Italy, May 24–26.

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the past twenty-five years, universities in Europe have undergone considerable transformations in response to societal developments of democratisation, decentralisation, and budget constraints (Chan, 2001; Potocki-Malicet, Holmesland, Estrela, & Veiga-Simao, 1999; Trinczek & West, 1999). To different extents, these pressures reinforced the trend towards adopting organisational forms, technologies, management instruments, and values that are commonly found in private sector organisations (Deem, 1998). This wave of reforms, which has swept across many public organisations all over Europe, is known as *new public management* (NPM) or *managerialism* (Hood, 1991; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004). It involves “greater managerial power, structural reorganization, more emphasis on marketing and business generation, moves toward performance-related pay and a rationalization and computerization of administrative structures” (Parker & Jary, 1995, p. 320). Other themes that appear in accounts of what managerialism entails are budget transparency, output measurement, increased competition, and use of private sector management techniques (Aucoin, 1990; Hood, 1991, 1995; Pollitt, 1993).

University employees generally stick to ‘professional’ values, which focus on individual autonomy, collegiality, and professionalism (Barry, Chandler, & Clark, 2001; Bryson, 2004). This implies that in universities that have adopted ‘managerial’ values, a conflict emerges between professional employee values and managerial organisation values. Hence, there is a conflict between “the received values of academic scientists – those values acquired during their education and professional socialisation – and the values embodied in and required by their new conditions of work” (Hackett, 1990, p. 249). Such a conflict easily evokes problems with regard to the employees’ organisational commitment and their job performances. Since organisational commitment is only expected when employee values match organisation values (Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Kanter, 1968), the value conflict may result in a loss of organisational commitment (Bryson, 2004; Chan, 2001; Henkel & Kogan, 1996; Trow, 1994b). Various authors argue that many academic employees have negative feelings about their work place, are reluctant to work, resist the changes strongly, and sometimes even demonstrate counterproductive behaviour (e.g., Fruytier & Timmerhuis, 1996; Trow, 1994b; Ylijoki, 2003a). For in-

stance, Bryson (2004) argues in his study that university employees “no longer enjoy any part of the job, apart from the vacations” (p. 45) since the business-oriented administrative tasks and assessments have increased. It seems that they are not committed to the new, more managerial style of working, which in turn may lead to a decline in quality. This quality decline, which is however a contested result of lower organisational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Goss, 1994; Steers, 1977), is contradictory to the managerialism intentions of efficient and effective quality improvement. This situation can be seen as a *managerialism contradiction*.

To solve, or at least to reduce, such a managerialism contradiction, increasing university employees’ organisational commitment and the quality of their job performances appears a suitable option. Therefore, it is necessary to establish which factors affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances. Since levels of managerialism differ among countries (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004), universities (Ball, 1990; Shattock, 1999), faculties (Chan, 2001; Trowler, 1998), and even in the perceptions of employees (Davies, in press; Ylijoki, 2003b), it is also necessary to know whether the processes of increasing organisational commitment and quality of job performances differ among and within countries, universities, or faculties. However, literature on factors affecting university employees’ organisational commitment and the quality of their performances is limited, especially those conducted among countries, universities, or faculties that are characterised by different levels of managerialism. The purpose of this chapter is to develop a conceptual model that can be used to conduct research into the factors that affect university employees’ organisational commitment and the quality of their job performances in countries, universities, or faculties with different levels of managerialism.

This conceptual model will be charted from a Resource-based View, with a specific focus on human resources (e.g., Boxall, 1996; Huselid, 1995; Paauwe, 1994; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994), and from critique of this line of reasoning (e.g., Doorewaard & Benschop, 2003; Watson, 2002), which adds the antecedents of organisational commitment (Lee, 1971; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Steers, 1977) to the model (Section 2.2). The scientific and practical contribution of the model will be discussed in Section 2.3.

## 2.2 CONCEPTUAL MODEL

According to Delery and Shaw (2001) and Paauwe and Boselie (2003), the Resource-based View of the Firm (Barney, 1991; Penrose, 1959; Wernerfelt, 1984) is one of the dominant theories in the field of human resource management (HRM) and performance. In this Resource-based View on HRM, human resources contribute to sustainable competitive advantage since they meet the four basic assumptions of the Resource-based view (Barney, 1991): value, rareness, inimitability, and non-substitutability (Boxall, 1996; Huselid, 1995; Paauwe, 1994; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994). Delery and Shaw (2001) further state that there is general agreement that HRM practices directly affect human resources. Therefore, to profit optimally from the human resources as a source of competitive advantage, HRM practices are used to bring about HRM outcomes, such as organisational commitment and quality of job performances (Guest, 1997). These HRM outcomes may in turn contribute to competitive advantage. Hence, in order to realise competitive advantage in terms of effective and efficient quality improvement and, consequently, to solve or reduce a managerialism contradiction in universities, it seems necessary to deploy HRM practices.

Several authors (e.g., Carr, 2001; Downing, 1997; Watson, 2002), however, strongly criticise this Resource-based View on HRM for its reductionalistic and narrow-minded point of view. Doorewaard and Benschop (2003) direct their critique towards “the utilitarian and formal/technical assumptions of this view, because it reduces human beings to ‘human resources’” (p. 272). The management of organisational commitment of academic employees, who are often wilful and difficult to manage, from this “standard system-control frame of reference” implies that “the pluralistic, messy, ambiguous and inevitably conflict-ridden nature of work organizations” are neglected (Watson, 2002, p. 375). Following this critique, it will be obvious that, apart from the HRM practices focused upon in the Resource-based View on HRM, different sets of factors, often referred to as antecedents (e.g., Lee, 1971; Mowday et al., 1982; Steers, 1977), will probably influence the organisational commitment of the employees.

In brief, the conceptual model is developed on the reasoning that HRM practices and antecedents potentially affect organisational commitment and

quality of job performances. Since the levels of managerialism differ among countries (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004), universities (Ball, 1990; Shattock, 1999), faculties (Chan, 2001; Trowler, 1998), and even in the perceptions of individual employees (Davies, in press; Ylijoki, 2003b), the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on employees' organisational commitment and quality of job performances may differ among and within countries, universities, or faculties. Therefore, the concepts and their relationships are placed within academic contexts (e.g., countries, universities, or faculties) that are characterised by different levels of managerialism. Figure 2.1 presents the conceptual model.

**Figure 2.1** *Conceptual model*



In the remainder of this section, we will elaborate on the concepts of this conceptual model: HRM practices, antecedents, organisational commitment, quality of job performances, and level of managerialism.

### 2.2.1 HRM practices

Studies in the field of HRM demonstrate a variation of possible practices. Based on Arthur (1992, 1994), Buck and Watson (2002) recently examined the potential influences of HRM practices among higher education staff employees. They analysed seven HRM practices: the degree of decentralisation (the possibility an employee has to decide about performance, planning, control of work, and to take responsibility for it), the method of compensation, the level of employee participation programmes (the possibility to contribute actively in the development and implementation of policy), the level of training and de-

velopment activities, the skill level of employees, the level of due process, and the level of social interactions within the organisation (Buck & Watson, 2002).

Closer scrutiny of Buck and Watson's Human Resource system reveals both an overlap and a deficiency when applied to contemporary European universities. Regarding the proposed overlap between the Human Resource instruments, Buck and Watson (2002) argue that increasing the employee discretion and responsibility (the skill level of employees) can positively influence commitment levels among employees. However, decentralisation already demands both the prudence of an employee in decision making and the taking of responsibility for the consequences of his or her decisions. The aspect of skill level may therefore be eliminated.

Regarding the suggested deficiency, the notions of management style and performance appraisal may be added to the six remaining Human Resource instruments, since it is argued that the academic 'revolution' has had its demands for "managerial relations and manager/managed identities and increased control over activities" (Prichard & Willmott, 1997, p. 311). In addition, the procedures for handling employee complaints or grievances (due process) may be replaced by the broader concept of employee security, which is fundamental to the implementation of other management instruments (Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999). Finally, Thornhill, Lewis, and Saunders (1996) discuss that receiving and providing information up and down the organisation is necessary for achieving employee involvement. This element of communication completes the list of Human Resource instruments that are expected to increase organisational commitment, which further consists of decentralisation, compensation, participation, training/development, employment security, social interactions, management style, and performance appraisal.

### **2.2.2 Antecedents**

It has been found that the extent of organisational commitment is dependent on three groups of antecedents: personal variables, job and role characteristics, and structural factors (e.g., Lee, 1971; Mowday et al., 1982; Steers, 1977).

Examples of personal variables are age (Lee, 1971; Mayer & Schoorman, 1998), sex (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972), educational level (Mayer & Schoorman, 1998; Steers, 1977), need for achievement (Steers, 1977), organisational tenure (Buchanan, 1974; Gregersen & Black,

1992), positional tenure (Cohen, 1999; Taylor, Audia, & Gupta, 1996), and family responsibility (Jans, 1989). Furthermore, career mobility (Bhagat & Chassie, 1981; Jans, 1989), job challenge (Kirchmeyer, 1995), job level (Galunic & Anderson, 2000), role conflict (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Gregersen & Black, 1992), role ambiguity (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972), the level of autonomy (Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Igbaria & Wormley, 1992), and the number of working hours (Tansky, Gallagher, & Wetzel, 1997) are examples of job and role characteristics. Finally, some structural factors are social involvement (Igbaria & Wormley, 1992), the employee's perception of personal importance to the organisation (Buchanan, 1974; Hall et al., 1970), and formalisation (Wallace, 1995a, 1995b).

### **2.2.3 Organisational commitment**

Over the years, organisational commitment has been conceptualised in different ways (e.g., Kanter, 1968; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982). For instance, Mowday et al. (1982) defined organisational commitment as “the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization” and it is characterised by “a strong belief in and acceptance of an organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership of the organization” (p. 27). O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) consider organisational commitment as “the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organisation; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalises or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization” (p. 493).

In clarifying organisational commitment, various authors have made a distinction between attitudinal and behavioural constructs. Attitudinal commitment has its origins in the studies of Buchanan (1974), Mowday et al. (1982), and Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974). Mowday et al. (1982) define attitudinal commitment as “the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization” (p. 26). It develops when an individual becomes involved in, recognises the value-relevance of, and/or derives his or her identity from the organisation. In contrast, behavioural commitment is rooted in the works of Becker (1960), Kiesler (1971), and Salancik (1977). According to Salancik (1977), it “is a state of being in which an indi-

vidual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his own involvement” (p. 62). It involves social roles or positions from which individuals derive their perception of the cost associated with leaving the organisation and the rewards related to participation in the organisation.

The concepts of attitudinal and behavioural commitment have come to be known as the affective and the continuance constructs of organisational commitment, respectively. Robinson, Kraatz, and Rousseau (1994) noted that affective and continuance commitment “touch on but do not directly confront the role of obligations, reciprocity, and fulfilment” (p. 149). Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that a normative construct of organisational commitment may be the ‘missing link’ since this construct has a distinct emphasis on obligations. The concept of normative commitment was originally introduced by Wiener (1982), who argued that normative commitment should be viewed as “the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organizational goals and interests” (p. 421). The combination of affective, continuance, and normative constructs of organisational commitment reflects an employee’s ‘commitment profile’ (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

#### **2.2.4 Quality of job performances**

Quality is a concept that cannot easily be grasped within academic institutions (Martin, 2001; Van Vught & Westerheijden, 1995), the more so since an unambiguous definition of the concept does not exist (Martin, 2001; Pollitt, 1993; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 1995); quality is thus often in the eye of the beholder. In universities, quality of performances may be expressed in measures of output of products and services, which may be quantitative (e.g., number of journal articles, number of supervised students) or qualitative (e.g., students’ complaints or compliments), in measures of time (e.g., lateness, absence, lost working time), and in financial measures (e.g., number of research subsidies awarded). In this study, we focus on the quality of university employees’ performances as it is determined by, if applicable, the quality of their overall performances, the quality of their research performances (e.g., journal articles, book chapters, books, research reports, and presentations), the quality of their teaching performances, and the quality of their management performances.

### **2.2.5 Level of managerialism**

The managerial developments involve seven dimensions (Hood, 1995). A first dimension is disaggregation, which means an expansion of student numbers and a diversification of study disciplines, programmes, and university functions. A second dimension is competition. By assuming the superiority of private markets over the perceived inefficient public organisations (Ferlie, Fitzgerald, & Ashburner, 1996), universities have felt an increased need to compete for financial means (Doolin, 2002; Townley, 1997) and students (Chan, 2001). Furthermore, the managerialism discourse, which has been borrowed from the private sector, has largely replaced that of professionalism, administration, and public interest (Massey, 1993; Trinczek & West, 1999). As a result, “the application of private sector management techniques to the requirements of public service delivery would produce a net increase in ‘efficiency, effectiveness and economy’” (Salter & Tapper, 2002, p. 248). The use of management practices drawn from the private sector constitutes the third dimension. The university reforms were driven, among other things, by the pressure on governments to reduce public expenditure. In turn, the decreased government financing has forced universities to deal moderately and parsimoniously with their (financial) resources (Potocki-Malicet et al., 1999). This emphasis on discipline and parsimony in resource use is a fourth dimension. A fifth dimension is the move towards more hands-on management. After all, imbued with the language of private sector organisations, the universities have deployed a system of devolved management that is responsive to consumer pressure and capable of utilising market mechanisms. As a result, university employees have a more direct contact with their ‘manager’ (Walsh, 1995). Regarding the sixth dimension, universities have come under increasing scrutiny of diverse stakeholders that require ‘value for money’ (Pounder, 1997). Therefore, explicit and measurable standards have become part of the national, regional and/or university evaluations. The final dimension is control with pre-set output measures. An indicator of the shift towards such control has been proposed by Shelley (1999): the emphasis is on “a managerially controlled appraisal agenda, with assessment criteria set by ‘lay’ line managers, rather than a system controlled by academics through peer review based on criteria set at the discretion of colleagues” (p. 442).

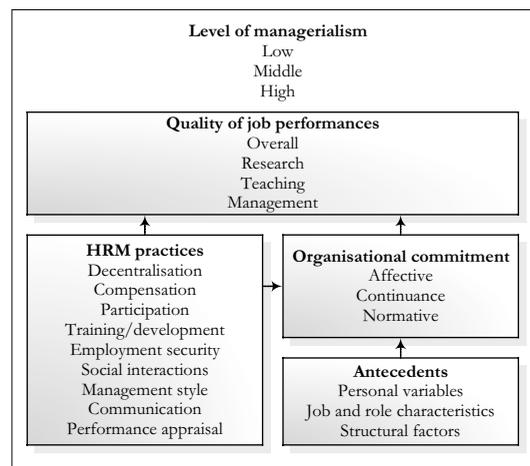
As noted, the levels of managerialism differ among academic contexts (e.g., countries, universities, faculties – Ball, 1990; Chan, 2001; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Shattock, 1999; Trowler, 1998). In this study, three ideal typical levels of managerialism are distinguished: low, middle, and high. On the country level, these three levels are referred to as central Europeans (e.g., Belgium and Germany – Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004), northern Europeans (e.g., Finland and Sweden – Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004), and core NPM countries (e.g., the Netherlands and the United Kingdom – De Boer, Enders, & Leisyte, 2006; Jongbloed, Salerno, Huisman, & Vossensteyn, 2005; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Ter Bogt, 2006; Van Gestel & Teelken, 2006). The central and northern European countries all “place greater emphasis on the state as *the* irreplaceable integrative force in society, with a legal personality and operative value system that cannot be reduced to the private sector discourse of efficiency, competitiveness, and consumer satisfaction” (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004, p. 98; see also Hood, 1995). However, the main difference between the two groups of countries lies in the pace of the reforms and the citizen-orientation. The central Europeans are more often portrayed as laggards with less participation for citizens as compared to their northern counterparts (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004). The core NPM countries are characterised by “a large role for private sector forms and techniques in the process of restructuring the public sector” (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004, p. 98; see also Bryson, 2004).

On the institutional level (e.g., universities, faculties, departments, or workgroups), the three levels of managerialism are referred to as separatist, integrationist, and hegemonist, respectively (Stiles, 2004). A separatist context is considered cohesive and collegial. Strategic goals are centred on promoting common values such as “the acquisition of knowledge for its own sake, [...] freedom of expression; and working with colleagues” (Stiles, 2004, p. 161). An integrationist context is seen as “more fragmented and conflictual since traditional collegial values are not so widely shared” (Stiles, 2004, p. 161). A hegemonist context is characterised as a “dependent and subservient” identity, in which “rational-economic managerial values dominate, including those emphasizing administrative effectiveness, career advancement, financial reward and customer-orientation” (Stiles, 2004, p. 162).

### 2.2.6 Elaborated conceptual model

In this section, the concepts of the conceptual model have been discussed. The elaborations of these concepts (HRM practices, antecedents, organisational commitment, quality of job performances, and level of managerialism) can be summarised as in Figure 2.2.

**Figure 2.2** *Elaborated conceptual model*



In brief then, in countries, universities, or faculties with different levels of managerialism (low, middle, high), HRM practices (decentralisation, compensation, participation, training/development, employment security, social interactions, management style, communication, and performance appraisal) and antecedents (personal variables, job and role characteristics, and structural factors) may affect organisational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) and quality of job performances (overall, research, teaching, and management). In addition, organisational commitment may also affect quality of job performances.

### **2.3 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION**

In order to cope with societal developments and changing demands, universities have adopted organisation characteristics that are commonly found in private sector organisations (managerialism). The managerial university values, however, are in conflict with the professional employee values. This conflict is argued to lead to lower levels of organisational commitment and lower quality of performances, while at the same time managerialism aims at efficient and effective quality improvement. As a result, a so-called managerialism contradiction emerges. Affecting organisational commitment and quality of job performances appears a suitable option for solving or reducing such a managerialism contradiction. Since the levels of managerialism differ among countries, universities, and faculties, the purpose of this chapter has been to build a conceptual model that can be used to conduct research into the factors that affect organisational commitment and quality of performances of university employees in countries, universities, or faculties with different levels of managerialism.

The conceptual model constructed in this chapter aims to offer both a scientific and a practical contribution. With regard to the scientific contribution, research into the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on university employees' organisational commitment and the quality of their job performances particularly in countries, universities, or faculties with different levels of managerialism has never been conducted before. The results of such research may add, for instance, to the further understanding of the relationships between HRM practices, antecedents, organisational commitment and quality of performances in universities, and to the debate on managerialism in universities. With regard to the practical contribution, the scientific results may be applied in practice. For example, the research results may help university HRM managers to shape or improve their HRM policies. At the same time, the mechanistic way of thinking, in which HRM practices increase the employees' organisational commitment and lift the performances to a higher level, is refined in our conceptual model. After all, the model demonstrates that organisational commitment is also dependent on personal variables, job and role characteristics, and structural factors. For university managers, it is therefore wise to realise that implementation of an HRM

programme does not automatically lead to higher levels of organisational commitment or better performances (Beardwell & Holden, 2001; Goss, 1994).

Summing up, the conceptual model as presented in this chapter may provide a basis for a better understanding of the factors affecting organisational commitment and the performances of university employees in countries, universities, and faculties with different levels of managerialism. On the basis of this understanding, the societal developments and changing demands may be met, while retaining employees' organisational commitment and the quality of their performances.



## CHAPTER 3

### *Pilot study*

**This chapter is based on:**

Smeenk, S.G.A., Eisinga, R.N., Teelken, J.C., & Doorewaard, J.A.C.M. (2006). The effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment among university employees. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17(12), 2035-2054.

**An earlier version of this chapter was presented as:**

Smeenk, S.G.A., Eisinga, R.N., Teelken, J.C., & Doorewaard, J.A.C.M. (2005). *The effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment among university employees*. Paper presented at the 5<sup>th</sup> EURAM Conference, Munich, Germany, May 4–7.

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Societal developments like democratisation, decentralisation, and budget constraints have influenced European universities since the early 1980s (Chan, 2001; Trinczek & West, 1999). To different extents (Ball, 1990; Chan, 2001; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Shattock, 1999; Trowler, 1998), these developments have reinforced the trend in academic institutions towards adopting organisational forms, technologies, management instruments, and values that are commonly found in the private business sector organisations (Deem, 1998). This wave of reforms, which has swept across universities and other public organisations all over Europe, is known as *managerialism* (Hood, 1991; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004). It involves “greater managerial power, structural reorganization, more emphasis on marketing and business generation, moves towards performance-related pay and a rationalization and computerization of administrative structures” (Parker & Jary, 1995, p. 320). Other issues that appear in reports of what managerialism entails are budget transparency, output measurement, increased competition, and use of private sector management techniques (Aucoin, 1990; Hood, 1991, 1995; Pollitt, 1993).

The ‘managerial’ values that are considered appropriate to cope with the societal developments are diametrically opposite to the ‘professional’ values that are generally held by the employees within universities. The historical inheritance of these institutions, in which collegiality, academic freedom and autonomy are upheld as cherished values, does not easily mix with the new tasks that go with the concept of managerialism and the new societal demands for public accountability, efficiency, and competitiveness (Salter & Tapper, 2002; Townley, 1997). A vast number of studies suggest that the conflict in universities between managerial organisation values and professional employee values leads to unintended behaviour of the individual employees, such as lower organisational commitment (e.g., Bryson, 2004; Deem, 1998; Prichard & Willmott, 1997). For example, Henkel and Kogan (1996) argue that university employees do not really respond warmly to attempts to erode their collegiality and academic autonomy. Boccock and Watson (1994) note that “many academics have felt dispirited, undervalued, diminished in their autonomy and have suffered an increasing lack of empathy for the goals of institutions” (pp. 124-125). Since a high level of organisational commitment has

been found to be important for the realisation of high-quality performances (e.g., Lee, 1971; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Porter, 1985), some authors claim that managerialism, which is aimed at efficient and effective quality improvement, works against its own intentions (e.g., Bryson, 2004; Chan, 2001; Trow, 1994a). This situation is what we call a *managerialism contradiction* (see also Smeenk, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2004).

To be able to solve, or at least to reduce, such a managerialism contradiction, increasing organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees appears a suitable option. Therefore, it is necessary to establish which factors affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances. Since levels of managerialism differ among faculties (Chan, 2001; Trowler, 1998), it is also necessary to know whether the processes of increasing organisational commitment and the quality of job performances differ among university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism. However, empirical studies on the development of university employees' organisational commitment and the quality of their performances are scarce, especially those conducted in faculties that are characterised by different levels of managerialism. This chapter therefore examines which factors affect university employees' organisational commitment and the quality of their performances in faculties with different levels of managerialism.

The chapter is organised as follows. The next section (Section 3.2) describes our conceptual model that is based on a critical reconsideration of the Resource-based View on human resource management (HRM), positioned against the level of managerialism. Subsequently, we will discuss the method used for our study (Section 3.3), followed by the presentation of the empirical analyses and results (Section 3.4). The chapter closes with conclusions, discussions, and limitations (Section 3.5).

### **3.2 CONCEPTUAL MODEL**

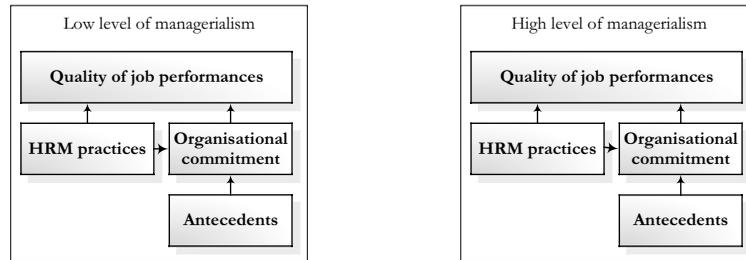
The Resource-based View of the Firm (Barney, 1991; Penrose, 1959; Wernerfelt, 1984) is one of the dominant theories in the field of human resource management (HRM) and performance (Delery & Shaw, 2001; Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). Since human resources particularly meet the four basic assump-

tions of this Resource-based View, i.e., value, rareness, inimitability, and non-substitutability, (Barney, 1991; Boxall, 1996; Huselid, 1995; Paauwe, 1994; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994), HRM researchers and practitioners have taken an interest in the Resource-based View of the Firm (Paauwe, 1994; Wright et al., 1994). In the context of universities, in this Resource-based View on HRM, university employees are a major determinant of the organisation's unique organisational performance and sustainable competitive advantage. To profit optimally from the employees as a source for unique performance and competitive advantage, universities deploy HRM practices. These practices bring about HRM outcomes, such as organisational commitment and quality of job performances (Guest, 1997), which in turn may contribute to unique organisational performance and sustainable competitive advantage.

This Resource-based View on HRM has however been criticised by several authors (e.g., Carr, 2001; Downing, 1997; Watson, 2002). Doorewaard and Benschop direct their critique towards “the utilitarian and formal/technical assumptions of this view, because it reduces human beings to ‘human resources’” (2003, p. 272). Considering (university) employees as human beings instead of human resources reveals that their commitment is intertwined with causal factors or antecedents (Lee, 1971; Mowday et al., 1982; Steers, 1977), separate from HRM practices. Previous research demonstrates that personal variables, job and role characteristics, and structural factors are related to organisational commitment (e.g., Lee, 1971; Mowday et al., 1982; Steers, 1977).

In brief, HRM practices and antecedents may affect organisational commitment and the quality of performances. Since the purpose of this chapter is to examine which factors affect university employees' organisational commitment and the quality of their performances in two faculties with different levels of managerialism, the four concepts (HRM practices, antecedents, organisational commitment, and quality of job performances) and their relationships are placed within two faculties with either a low or a high level of managerialism. Figure 3.1 presents the conceptual model.

The remainder of this section elaborates on the concepts of the conceptual model: the HRM practices, the antecedents, the organisational commitment, the quality of job performances, and the level of managerialism.

**Figure 3.1** *Conceptual model*

### 3.2.1 HRM practices

Although many studies focus exclusively on private sector companies (e.g., Beardwell & Holden, 2001; Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999), Buck and Watson (2002), based on Arthur (1994), used Human Resource system for measuring the potential influences of HRM practices among higher education staff employees. We have adapted Buck and Watson's system (see Section 2.2.1) resulting in the following nine HRM practices: decentralisation, compensation, participation, training/development, employment security, social interactions, management style, communication, and performance appraisal.

### 3.2.2 Antecedents

As noted, previous research by Lee (1971), Mowday et al. (1982), and Steers (1977) reveals that organisational commitment is related to three antecedent categories: personal variables, job and role characteristics, and structural factors. Age, sex, educational level, need for achievement, organisational tenure, positional tenure, and family responsibility are examples of personal variables. Job and role characteristics concern career mobility, job challenge, job level, role conflict, role ambiguity, level of autonomy, and working hours. Social involvement, personal importance, and formalisation are structural factors.

### 3.2.3 Organisational commitment

The concept of organisational commitment is usually divided into three constructs. Meyer and Allen (1997) refer to these constructs as affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment ('want to remain')

covers the individual's attachment to social relationships and to the organisation. It develops when an individual becomes involved in, recognises the value-relevance of, and/or derives his or her identity from the organisation. Based on Becker's (1960) side-bets conceptualisation of commitment, continuance commitment ('need to remain') involves social roles or positions from which individuals derive their perception of the cost associated with leaving the organisation and the rewards related to participation in the organisation. Normative commitment ('ought to remain') concentrates on the internalisation of norms and values and on inner convictions. It results in an individual's feeling of moral obligation to remain with the organisation.

### **3.2.4 Quality of job performances**

The quality of performances in universities can be expressed in measures of output of products and services, which may be quantitative (e.g., number of journal articles, number of supervised students) or qualitative (e.g., students' complaints or compliments), in measures of time (e.g., lateness, absence, lost working time), and in financial measures (e.g., number of research subsidies awarded). In this chapter, we concentrate on the quality of university employees' performances based on the quality of their overall performances, the quality of their research performances (e.g., journal articles, book chapters, books, research reports, and presentations), the quality of their teaching performances, and/or the quality of their management performances.

### **3.2.5 Level of managerialism**

As discussed above, levels of managerialism may differ between faculties. A faculty with a low level of managerialism is considered cohesive and collegial. Strategic goals are centred on promoting common values such as "the acquisition of knowledge for its own sake, [...] freedom of expression; and working with colleagues" (Stiles, 2004, p. 161). In contrast, a faculty with a high level of managerialism is characterised as being "dependent and subservient" and "rational-economic managerial values dominate, including those emphasizing administrative effectiveness, career advancement, financial reward and customer-orientation" (Stiles, 2004, p. 162).

The remainder of this chapter will discuss the empirical testing of the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on employees' organisational com-

mitment and quality of job performances in two faculties with a low of managerialism versus a high level of managerialism.

### 3.3 METHODS

#### 3.3.1 Data and sample

The study draws on a survey conducted among university employees in two Dutch faculties allied to the same university, in the summer of 2004. A Web questionnaire, which had been tested among a number of pilot respondents, was administered to the 412 employees of the two faculties. All employees associated with teaching, research, and support were included in the sample. The questionnaire consisted of eighty-four questions and was structured to encourage the respondents to reflect on their past and present experiences within the faculty. We conducted the survey across the Internet as all university staff are generally provided with access to the Net. Although Web surveys are relatively new as a means of collecting data, several researchers found support for use of the medium in terms of acceptable response rates (e.g., Cobanoglu, Warde, & Moreo, 2001; Sills & Song, 2002). The response was 33 per cent ( $n = 136$ ).

**Table 3.1** *Sample and population frequencies*

	Sample ( $n = 136$ )	Population ( $N = 51307$ )
<b>Age</b> ( $\chi^2_2 = 1.51$ ) <sup>a</sup>		
<35	39.7%	38.3%
35-54	47.8%	45.3%
55+	12.5%	16.4%
<b>Sex</b> ( $\chi^2_1 = 2.47$ ) <sup>b</sup>		
Male	69.4%	62.6%
Female	30.6%	37.4%
<b>Employment</b> ( $\chi^2_1 = .09$ ) <sup>b</sup>		
Full-time	66.9%	65.7%
Part-time	33.1%	34.3%

<sup>a</sup> As the critical value at  $\alpha = .05$  and two degrees of freedom is 5.991, the  $\chi^2$ -value is not significant. The sample values do not differ significantly from the population values.

<sup>b</sup> As the critical value at  $\alpha = .05$  and one degree of freedom is 3.841, the  $\chi^2$ -value is not significant. The sample values do not differ significantly from the population values.

Table 3.1 compares the sample proportions with respect to age, sex, and employment with the figures for the population of academic staff in the Netherlands (Association of Universities in the Netherlands [VSNU], 2004). As can be seen in Table 3.1, the sample does not differ significantly from the population with respect to these characteristics.

### 3.3.2 Measurements

Standard and study-specific measures are provided for the HRM practices, the antecedents, the three organisational commitment constructs, the quality of performances, and the level of managerialism.

#### *HRM practices*

We measured the employees' perceptions of *decentralisation* with a four-item scale based on the original instrument of Arthur (1994). In order to measure how they feel about the level of *compensation*, the university employees were asked to rate their own salary on a scale from 1 (= very inferior to my efforts) to 5 (= passes my efforts easily) (cf. Boyer, Altbach, & Whitelaw, 1994). Following Gaertner and Nollen (1989), perceived *participation* was measured with a four-item scale. To measure the level of *training and development*, we adapted Arthur's (1994) instrument to make it more appropriate for measuring training and development within the context of higher education. University employees were asked to indicate how many days per year they undertook off-the-job activities away from their immediate work area activities, on-the-job general skills training not directly related to their current jobs, and on-the-job skills training directly related to their current jobs. We summed up the ratings on the items to generate a single composite score. Based on Gaertner and Nollen (1989), perceived *employment security* was measured by a single item asking the respondents to indicate whether the faculty does all it can do to avoid layoffs.

To measure the employees' perception of *social interactions*, we used Sheldon's (1971) instrument, including the items 'I have frequently off-the-job contacts with my work colleagues', 'I feel very much a part of my work group', and 'I feel very much a part of my faculty'. To measure the perceived *style of management*, the employees were asked which management style fits best their manager or management team (cf. Blake & Mouton, 1985): [1] Impoverished Management (*laissez-faire* management), [2] Country Club Management

(friendly atmosphere), [3] Middle of the Road Management (balancing work and people), [4] Authority-Compliance (efficiency), and [5] Team Management (trust and respect). We used the following items to measure the perception of the *communication* level in the faculty (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree): 'I am adequately informed about what is currently going on in the faculty', and 'I am adequately informed about changes that affect my job' (cf. DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). Finally, the style of *performance appraisal* (judgmental oriented or developmental oriented) as experienced by the employees was measured by asking them which of the two styles best fits their faculty.

### *Antecedents*

The personal variables *age*, *sex*, *educational level*, *organisational tenure*, *positional tenure*, and *family responsibility* were recorded using six single-item self-report responses. We measured the *need for achievement* by asking the university employees to indicate their agreement or disagreement with regard to propositions about the importance of performing well and working hard (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree).

We measured the job and role characteristics *career mobility* and *job challenge* by the agreement or disagreement (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree) of university employees with propositions concerning opportunities for career development and the challenge of their work, respectively (cf. Allen & Meyer, 1990a). *Job level* was measured by a single-item scale consisting of nine position categories ranging from 'dean' to 'other personnel'. Next, *role conflict* and *role ambiguity* were measured by using the questionnaire items that loaded .60 or higher in the study of Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree). The *autonomy* measure used the adapted instrument of Hackman and Lawler (1971). Finally, part-time or full-time employment (*working hours*) was measured by a single-item self-report response to the office hours that are regularly scheduled, excluding any paid or unpaid overtime.

With respect to structural factors, we measured the feeling of *social involvement* with Hackman and Lawler's (1971) instrument, which we adapted for our study. Agreement or disagreement with the Allen and Meyer (1990b) proposition 'I feel my contribution is important for the larger aims of the faculty' was taken as an indication of *personal importance*. To measure *formalisation*, we asked the respondents whether they agree or disagree with the proposition

that the faculty has clear rules and regulations that everyone is expected to follow closely (cf. Sashkin & Morris, 1987).

### *Organisational commitment*

Organisational commitment can be measured by a number of different scales (e.g., Cook & Wall, 1980; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Penley & Gould, 1988; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Partly based on Buchanan (1974) and Quinn and Staines (1979), Allen and Meyer (1990b) developed a twenty-four-item scale to measure *affective, continuance, and normative organisational commitment*. It consists of three subscales: the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS), and the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS). We also used these scales and tried to improve the scale items by reducing item ambiguity and deleting equivalent and irrelevant items, and used six items for each subscale. Responses were made on a five-point continuum (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree).

### *Quality of job performances*

The data on *quality of job performances* have been acquired using two measures. Firstly, we asked the respondents how they think their colleagues would rate the quality of the respondents' overall performances, and, if applicable, the quality of their research performances, the quality of their teaching performances, and the quality of their management performances (ranging from bottom 10% to highest 10%). Secondly, the actual performances of the university employees were measured by asking them to indicate how many articles they had published in refereed and non-refereed journals, how many chapters in edited volumes they had published, how many textbooks or other books they had disseminated, the number of research reports they had disseminated internally or to external clients, and the number of presentations they had held at conferences and workshops in the previous three years. The ratings on the items of this second measure were summed up to generate a composite score.

### *Level of managerialism*

Hood (1995) argues that the managerial developments involve seven dimensions: extent of disaggregation (expansion of student numbers and diversification of study disciplines), competition between universities or faculties, use of

management practices drawn from the private sector, stress on discipline and parsimony in resource use, move towards more hands-on management, move towards more explicit and measurable standards of performance, and attempts to control according to pre-set output measures. In order to measure the *level of managerialism*, employees were asked to indicate to what extent they perceive that these dimensions apply to the faculties in which they are employed. The ratings on the items were summed up to generate a composite score.

### 3.3.3 Common method variance

To control for the potential effects of common method variance, which may occur when the measures of different concepts share common methods (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), we applied different response formats for the measurement of the HRM practices (single-choice question, numerical entry, five-point Likert scale), the antecedents (single-choice with and without optional text-response, date and numerical entry, five-point Likert scale), the constructs of organisational commitment (five-point Likert scale), the quality of job performances (five-point Likert scale with a 'not applicable' option, and numerical entry), and the level of managerialism (four-point Likert scale). Moreover, on the basis of qualitative research into the formulation of the items, we improved scale items by reducing item ambiguity, social desirability, and demand characteristics, and we deleted equivalent and irrelevant items. Because we applied tested and widely used scales to measure most of the concepts, we were cautious in altering the scale formats and scale values in order to preserve the original scale validities.

To check for the possible influence of common method variance, we conducted Harman's (1967) one-factor test as described by Podsakoff et al. (2003). As the unrotated principal component factor analysis of the variables used in the study resulted in twenty-five factors, with the first factor explaining only 15.3 per cent of the common variance, our findings are not greatly affected by the problem of common method variance.

### 3.3.4 Factor analyses

For the purpose of data reduction, we conducted Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) using principal-axis extraction. We used three criteria for determining the appropriateness of the factor model: Eigenvalue ( $> 1.00$ ), communality ( $>$

.20), and not too high loadings of one item on two or more factors (< .35). The factor matrices were rotated to ‘simple structure’ using either oblique rotation (direct oblimin) when the factors were expected to have intercorrelations (HRM practices and antecedents), or orthogonal rotation (varimax) when the factors were expected to have no intercorrelations (organisational commitment – based on Allen & Meyer, 1990b).

Table 3.2 summarises the results of the factor analyses for the HRM practices, the antecedents, the organisational commitment, the quality of performances, and the level of managerialism, including the number of items, Cronbach’s alpha, and the total explained variance.

**Table 3.2** *Factor analyses of HRM practices, antecedents, organisational commitment, and quality of job performances*

	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha	All communalities larger than	All loadings larger than
<b>HRM practices<sup>a</sup></b>				
Decentralisation	3	.63	.37	.52
Participation	2	.50 (.75) <sup>d</sup>	.22	.37
Social interactions	2	.49 (.74) <sup>d</sup>	.28	.48
Communication	2	.71	.57	.68
<i>Total explained variance: 46.4%</i>				
<b>Antecedents<sup>b</sup></b>				
Role conflict	2	.49 (.74) <sup>d</sup>	.35	.50
Role ambiguity	3	.69	.21	.44
Level of autonomy	3	.68	.37	.55
Social involvement	4	.61	.33	.40
<i>Total explained variance: 43.3%</i>				
<b>Organisational commitment<sup>c</sup></b>				
Affective commitment	4	.70	.28	.41
Continuance commitment	4	.74	.36	.56
Normative commitment	4	.73	.32	.54
<i>Total explained variance: 45.2%</i>				
<b>Quality of job performances</b>	4	.63	.20	.44
<i>Total explained variance: 48.9%</i>				

<sup>a</sup> Correlations between factors vary from .06 to .34.

<sup>b</sup> Correlations between factors vary from .05 to .37.

<sup>c</sup> Uncorrelated factors.

<sup>d</sup> As the original reliability is lower than the lower limit of acceptability (between .60 and .70 – Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998), we calculated the six-item reliability (the coefficient between brackets) using the Spearman-Brown formula:  $r_{kk} = k * r_{\infty} / (1 + [k-1] * r_{\infty})$ , where  $r_{kk}$  is the reliability of the scale that has  $k$  times as many items as the original scale,  $r_{\infty}$  is the reliability of the original scale, and  $k$  is the multiplier.

The figures in Table 3.2 show that factor analysis of the multi-item measured HRM practices results in four factors: decentralisation, participation, social interactions, and communication. Likewise, role conflict, role ambiguity, level of autonomy, and social involvement are factors that appear from the factor analysis of the multi-item measured antecedents. Furthermore, organisational commitment appears to consist of three conceptually and empirically separable factors: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Finally, quality of performances appears to constitute one reliable factor.

### 3.4 RESULTS

To characterise the two sample faculties with respect to managerialism, we tested whether the two faculties had significantly different levels of managerialism. Descriptive statistics and elements of the independent samples t-test are shown in Table 3.3.

**Table 3.3** *Descriptive statistics and independent samples test of level of managerialism*

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>		
<b>Faculty I</b>	43	15.256	3.586		
<b>Faculty II</b>	81	16.877	3.367		

<i>t-test for equality of means</i>					
	<i>t</i>	<i>Degrees of freedom</i>	<i>Significance<sup>a</sup></i>	<i>Mean difference</i>	<i>Standard error difference</i>
<b>Level of managerialism</b>	2.494 <sup>b</sup>	122	.014	1.621	.650

<sup>a</sup> two-tailed.

<sup>b</sup> equal variances may assumed.

As the calculated t-value of 2.494 falls in the rejection region, we concluded that the two faculties have a significant different mean ( $p = .014$ ), equal variances assumed, and therefore a different level of managerialism. Of the two faculties, Faculty I is characterised as having a low level of managerialism

(‘low-managerialism’) and Faculty II is characterised as having a high level of managerialism (‘high-managerialism’).

To obtain parsimonious models for the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on university employees’ organisational commitment and quality of performances in the two faculties, we conducted stepwise multiple regression analyses. As the commitment factors are uncorrelated, the effects of HRM practices and antecedents were analysed for each organisational commitment construct separately in the two faculties. Furthermore, the effects of HRM practices on quality of performances are controlled for the antecedents and the three commitment constructs, whereas the effects of the commitment constructs on the quality of job performances are controlled for the HRM practices and the antecedents. The at  $p < .05$  significant standardised regression coefficients ( ) and (adjusted)  $R^2$ s are presented in Table 3.4. As the variance inflation factor (VIF) values ranged from 1.00 to 2.20, which is much lower than the recommended cut-off threshold of 10 (Hair et al., 1998), the problem of multicollinearity does not appear to play a role here. Note that our interest focuses on the propensity of outcomes rather than their dynamic character. Like all cross-sectional analyses, this study is unable to solve the ambiguity in the direction of causality. Inferences about causal processes are therefore tentative and partial at best.

The results in Table 3.4 reveal that employees’ organisational commitment in the low-managerialism faculty is significantly affected by the HRM practice of training/development and the antecedents of educational level, positional tenure, career mobility, job challenge, and role ambiguity. In contrast, the HRM practice of neutral performance appraisal and the antecedents of age, organisational tenure, family responsibility, level of autonomy, working hours, social involvement, and personal importance are significantly important for affecting employees’ organisational commitment in the high-managerialism faculty. The HRM practices of decentralisation, participation, social interactions, and communication, and the antecedent of job level are important in the two faculties. Of these factors, social interactions appear to constitute the only factor that has similar effects on employees’ organisational commitment in the two faculties. Regarding the effects of the other factors, namely, decentralisation, participation, communication, and job level, there are differences between the two faculties.

For instance, decentralisation is positively related to employees' affective commitment of the employees in the low-managerialism faculty, whereas it is negatively related to quality of employees' performances in the high-managerialism faculty. In addition, the effect of participation on continuance commitment is negative in the low-managerialism faculty, whereas the effect on affective commitment is positive in the high-managerialism faculty.

**Table 3.4** *Standardised effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment and quality of job performances of employees in the low-managerialism faculty (n = 43) and the high-managerialism faculty (n = 81)*

	Low-managerialism faculty				High-managerialism faculty			
	AC <sup>a</sup>	CC <sup>a</sup>	NC <sup>a</sup>	Quality <sup>a</sup>	AC	CC	NC	Quality
<b>HRM practices</b>								
Decentralisation	.45							-.24
Participation		-.70			.32			
Training/development	-.46							
Social interactions	.40				.28	.41	.39	
Communication			.38					.18
Neutral appraisal <sup>b</sup>					.24			
<b>Antecedents: personal variables</b>								
Age					.31			
Other education <sup>c</sup>	.32							
Organisational tenure							.47	
Positional tenure		.52						
Family responsibility						.23	-.26	
<b>Antecedents: job and role characteristics</b>								
Career mobility		.58						
Job challenge				-.32				
(Senior) lecturer <sup>d</sup>	-.26							
PhD <sup>d</sup>	.35							
Other scientific staff <sup>d</sup>								.32
Role ambiguity		.33						
Level of autonomy						-.29	-.32	
Working hours						-.32	-.28	
<b>Antecedents: structural factors</b>								
Social involvement						-.38		
Personal importance					.29			
<b>Organisational commitment</b>								
AC								
CC								-.30
NC								
<b>(Adjusted) R<sup>2</sup></b>	.68 (.61)	.45 (.38)	.24 (.20)	.19 (.17)	.50 (.46)	.41 (.35)	.55 (.50)	.61 (.57)

<sup>a</sup> AC = affective commitment, CC = continuance commitment, NC = normative commitment, Quality = quality of job performances.

<sup>b</sup> Dummy variable of performance appraisal, consisting of the categories: developmental (reference category), judgemental, and neutral.

<sup>c</sup> Dummy variable of educational level, consisting of the categories: doctor (reference category), master, and other education.

<sup>d</sup> Dummy variable of job level, consisting of the categories: professor (reference category), (senior) lecturer, PhD, other scientific staff, and other position.

Furthermore, communication has a positive effect in the two faculties but this effect is related to normative commitment in the low-managerialism faculty and to the quality of job performances in the high-managerialism faculty. Finally, job level is significant among the employees in the two faculties, although the PhD's are more affectively committed and the (senior) lecturers are less affectively committed than their professor counterparts in the low-managerial faculty. The other scientific staff (such as post-doc researchers and research fellows) are more normatively committed than the professors in the high-managerialism faculty.

Finally, Table 3.4 indicates that employees' quality of job performances is affected by the continuance construct of organisational commitment in the high-managerialism faculty only.

### 3.5 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter empirically examined the effects of nine HRM practices and three antecedent categories on organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees in two Dutch faculties with different levels of managerialism (low versus high). Overall, the results indicate that employees' organisational commitment and quality of performances are affected differently among faculties with different levels of managerialism. In other words, there are distinct sets of factors that are important for influencing organisational commitment and quality of job performances in organisations with different levels of managerialism. This finding empirically supports the *configurational approach* as proposed by Delery and Doty (1996) and the *bundles fit* of Guest (1997). Both perspectives argue that in order to achieve superior performance, different configurations or bundles of HRM practices are suited for different organisations.

Our findings have implications for both theory and practice. With regard to the theoretical implications, our study contributes to the theory of the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment and quality of job performances in general and to the theory of relationships between these concepts in faculties with different levels of managerialism. Some of our results replicate previously found relationships in other branches or or-

ganisations, while others contest them. For instance, the negative effect of training/development supports studies in which it is argued that this HRM practice allows employees to realise that they are valuable to their current organisation but also to other organisations in which they can deploy their knowledge and experiences (e.g., Buck & Watson, 2002). In addition, our study shows that the employees in a low-managerialism faculty appear to prefer determining their daily work themselves (decentralisation) over only having a say in decisions affecting their work (participation). This may be unique for university employees in a low-managerialism faculty since this preference is in line with the long-established values of academic freedom and autonomy. Furthermore, the negative relationship between the level of autonomy and organisational commitment is quite noteworthy, especially because it is found in the high-managerialism faculty, which is characterised by attempts to erode the employees' autonomy. Additionally, it was found that academic employees' work benefits from a high level of autonomy. This surprising finding, however, supports the research of Boselie, Paauwe, and Richardson (2003) in which they question the employee need for some degree of freedom, as this is assumed by the *high performance* paradigm. It seems that not every university employee wants and needs a high level of autonomy. Another possible explanation for this finding is that a high level of autonomy results in an alienation from the workplace and, consequently, lower levels of organisational commitment. Finally, although Gersick, Bartunek, and Dutton (2000) pinpoint the strategic importance of social relations in academia, our study reveals that social involvement has a significantly negative impact on university employees' continuance commitment in the high-managerialism faculty. This negative relationship seems to bolster the image of scientists as persons who prefer to work on their own, as far as their continuance organisational commitment is concerned.

With regard to the practical contribution, our research demonstrates that a faculty's level of managerialism shapes the set of HRM practices and antecedents affecting employees' organisational commitment and the quality of their performances. Therefore, practitioners in the field of university HRM should be cautious in applying 'generally approved' HRM practices. We think it is wise to take into account the level of managerialism while implementing an HRM strategy. After all, our research demonstrates that, for instance, an

HRM strategy that focuses on participation is suitable for increasing affective organisational commitment in a high-managerialism faculty, but can be detrimental to the organisational commitment in a low-managerialism faculty.

We are aware that the research has some limitations that must be considered in evaluating the study's findings. For instance, the respondents were all employed at the same university in the Netherlands. Although we have no reason to believe that the relations observed are unique to the country or institution, generalisations to other countries, universities, and faculties should be made with caution. For instance, the loose coupling between the Dutch university employees and their organisations, the financial structures, the formal regulations, and the steering arrangements that characterise the Dutch university system (De Boer, Enders, & Leisyte, 2006) may all have some impact on the empirical findings. Unfortunately, in this chapter we are unable to compare our results with those from other countries. A replication of the study in this chapter in other European countries could reveal whether our results are country-specific or may be generalised to other countries. In this international replication, both the differences between faculties as well as the differences between universities or countries may be addressed.

## CHAPTER 4

### *Factors affecting organisational commitment*

**This chapter is based on:**

Smeenk, S.G.A., Eisinga, R.N., Teelken, J.C., & Doorewaard, J.A.C.M. (2006). *A comparison of factors affecting organisational commitment among European university employees*. Manuscript submitted for publication.

**An earlier version of this chapter was presented as:**

Smeenk, S.G.A., Eisinga, R.N., Teelken, J.C., & Doorewaard, J.A.C.M. (2006). *An analysis of the factors affecting organisational commitment among European university employees*. Paper presented at the 66<sup>th</sup> Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, Atlanta, GA, August 11–16.

## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

Societal developments, such as budget constraints, ‘massification’, and diversification of higher education (Bryson, 2004; Gueissaz & Häyrinen-Alestalo, 1999; Potocki-Malicet, Holmesland, Estrela, & Veiga-Simao, 1999), have reinforced the trend in universities all over Europe towards adopting organisational forms, technologies, management instruments, and values that are commonly found in the private business sector (Deem, 1998; Hood, 1995; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004). This trend, which is also known as *managerialism*, may lead to a loss of organisational commitment among university employees and, consequently, to performance problems.

Although universities feel compelled to adopt ‘managerial’ strategies, structures, and values that are based on, for example, administrative effectiveness (Stiles, 2004), organisationally controlled resources, and a supply-oriented focus (Löwendahl, 1997; Maister, 1993), university employees generally adhere to ‘professional’ values that focus on individual autonomy, collegiality, and professionalism (Bryson, 2004). This implies that a conflict will emerge between managerial organisation values and professional employee values. This value conflict may result in a loss of organisational commitment (Bryson, 2004; Chan, 2001; Trow, 1994b), because organisational commitment is only expected when employee values match organisation values (Allen & Meyer, 1990b). In addition, since a high level of organisational commitment has been found to be valuable for the realisation of high-quality performances (e.g., Lee, 1971; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982), some authors even claim that managerialism, which is aimed at efficient and effective quality improvement, works against its own intentions (e.g., Bryson, 2004; Chan, 2001; Thornhill, Lewis, & Saunders, 1996; Trow, 1994b). This situation is what we call a *managerialism contradiction* (see also Smeenk, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2004).

To solve, or at least to reduce, such a managerialism contradiction in contemporary European universities, it is essential to know how organisational commitment of university employees is affected. Since levels of managerialism differ among countries (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004), universities (Ball, 1990; Shattock, 1999), faculties (Chan, 2001; Trowler, 1998), and even in the perceptions of individual employees (Davies, in press; Ylijoki, 2003b), it is also necessary to know whether the processes of affecting organisational

commitment differ among countries, universities, faculties, and employees. Empirical studies on the development of employees' organisational commitment in countries, universities, or faculties with different (perceived) levels of managerialism are scarce. This chapter focuses on the factors affecting university employees' organisational commitment in two groups of employees: one group containing employees who perceive low levels of managerialism in their faculties, and the other group containing employees who perceive high levels of managerialism in their faculties.

The chapter is organised as follows. The following section (Section 4.2) will describe our conceptual model that is charted from a Resource-based View, with a particular emphasis on human resources, and from critique of this argumentation, which adds antecedents of organisational commitment to the model. In Section 4.3, we will discuss the methods used for our study, followed by a presentation of the empirical analyses and results (Section 4.4). The chapter closes with points of discussion, conclusions, and limitations (Section 4.5).

## **4.2 CONCEPTUAL MODEL**

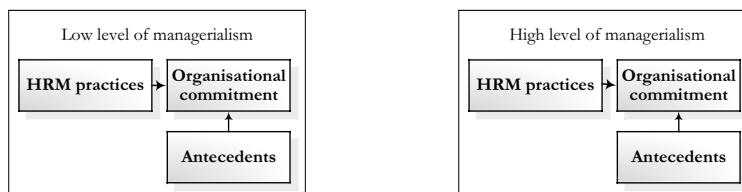
In the area of human resource management (HRM) and performance, the Resource-based View of the Firm (Barney, 1991; Penrose, 1959; Wernerfelt, 1984) is one of the dominant theories (Delery & Shaw, 2001; Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). In this Resource-based View on HRM, human resources contribute to sustainable competitive advantage because they are valuable, rare, difficult to imitate, and difficult to substitute (Boxall, 1996; Huselid, 1995; Paauwe, 1994; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994). Organisations deploy HRM practices to profit optimally from the human resources as a source of competitive advantage. Such practices are directed at the realisation of so-called HRM outcomes, like organisational commitment and quality of job performances (Guest, 1997), which in turn may contribute substantially and uniquely to competitive advantage.

This Resource-based View on HRM, however, is argued to underestimate the complexity of human beings and their functioning in organisational processes (Watson, 2002). Other critics claim that a Resource-based View on

HRM reduces human beings to ‘human resources’ (e.g., Doorewaard & Benschop, 2003). Therefore, we argue that organisational commitment is not only affected by HRM practices, but also by other factors, or antecedents, such as personal variables, job and role characteristics, and structural factors (Lee, 1971; Mowday et al., 1982; Steers, 1977).

In brief, the conceptual model (see Figure 4.1) is built on the reasoning that HRM practices and antecedents potentially affect organisational commitment. Since the levels of managerialism may differ in the perceptions of individual employees (Davies, in press; Ylijoki, 2003b), in this chapter the concepts of HRM practices, antecedents, and organisational commitment are examined within two groups of employees who perceive different levels of managerialism in their faculties.

**Figure 4.1** *Conceptual model*



The remainder of this section discusses the main concepts of our conceptual model: the HRM practices, the antecedents, the organisational commitment, and the level of managerialism.

#### 4.2.1 HRM practices

Since organisational commitment is the desired outcome of the HRM practices, this chapter concentrates on HRM practices that focus on building and sustaining organisational commitment. Although many studies focus exclusively on private sector companies (e.g., Beardwell & Holden, 2001; Becker & Gerhart, 1996), Buck and Watson (2002), based on Arthur (1994), measured the potential influences of HRM practices among higher education staff employees. We have adapted Buck and Watson’s instrument (see Section 2.2.1) to our study, resulting in the following HRM practices: decentralisation, com-

pensation, participation, training/development, employment security, social interactions, management style, communication, and performance appraisal.

#### **4.2.2 Antecedents**

Previous studies by Lee (1971), Mowday et al. (1982), and Steers (1977) reveal that organisational commitment is related to three antecedent categories: personal variables, job and role characteristics, and structural factors. Age, sex, educational level, need for achievement, organisational tenure, positional tenure, and family responsibility are examples of personal variables. Job and role characteristics include career mobility, job challenge, job level, role conflict, role ambiguity, level of autonomy, and working hours. Finally, social involvement, personal importance, and formalisation are structural factors.

#### **4.2.3 Organisational commitment**

Organisational commitment is a widely studied concept. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) consider organisational commitment as “the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organisation; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalises or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization” (p. 493). The concept of organisational commitment is usually divided into three constructs: affective, continuance, and normative organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective commitment (‘want to remain’) covers the individual’s attachment to social relationships and to the organisation. It develops when an individual becomes involved in, recognises the value-relevance of, and/or derives his or her identity from the organisation. Rooted in Becker’s (1960) side-bets conceptualisation of commitment, continuance commitment (‘need to remain’) involves social roles or positions from which individuals derive their perception of the cost associated with leaving the organisation and the rewards related to participation in the organisation. Normative commitment (‘ought to remain’) concentrates on the internalisation of norms and values and on inner convictions. It results in an individual’s feeling of moral obligation to remain with the organisation.

#### **4.2.4 Level of managerialism**

As previously noted, levels of managerialism may differ among countries, universities, faculties, and the perceptions of employees. This chapter focuses on

the faculties' levels of managerialism as perceived by the employees. A faculty with a low level of managerialism is most similar to Newman's (1976) collegium idea in which normative 'liberal values' are based on the social bonds of a community of scholars. In addition, common values, like the acquisition of knowledge for its own sake, freedom of expression, and working with colleagues are promoted (Stiles, 2004). In contrast, a faculty with a high level of managerialism is characterised by "greater managerial power, structural reorganisation, more emphasis on marketing and business generation, moves towards performance-related pay and a rationalization and computerization of administrative structures" (Parker & Jary, 1995, p. 320). Additionally, "rational-economic managerial values dominate, including those emphasizing administrative effectiveness, career advancement, financial reward and customer-orientation" (Stiles, 2004, p. 162).

The next section discusses the methods used for research into which HRM practices and antecedents affect organisational commitment in two employee groups perceiving different managerialism levels in their faculties.

### **4.3 METHODS**

#### **4.3.1 Data and sample**

The study draws on a Web survey conducted from November 2004 to January 2005 among university employees (all associated with teaching, research and support) from thirty-six faculties and eighteen universities (two faculties per university) in six European countries (Belgium, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United Kingdom). We chose these countries because they have undergone public management reforms to different extents (Hood, 1995; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004) but are reasonably comparable in socio-economic terms. In addition, the knowledge of the English language is generally high in these countries (we used a questionnaire formulated in English only). Within these countries we selected all universities that have both a business/economics faculty and a social sciences faculty or equivalents thereof. Using criteria similar to those for the choice of the countries, we chose two gamma faculties because they are expected to reflect different levels of managerialism while at the same time being reasonably comparable. After all, the

levels of managerialism do not only differ among countries, but also within countries and even within universities (Ball, 1990; Podgórecki, 1997; Shaddock, 1999; Trowler, 1998). Subsequently, we randomly picked three universities (and consequently six faculties) per country, and searched for the email addresses of the employees of these selected faculties on the Internet.

We conducted the survey across the Internet as all university employees are generally provided with access to the Net. Although Web surveys are relatively new as a means of collecting data, several researchers have found support for use of this medium (e.g., Cobanoglu, Warde, & Moreo, 2001; Handwerk, Carson, & Blackwell, 2000; Sills & Song, 2002; Tomsic, Hendel, & Matross, 2000). After a deduction of 1,493 ineligible respondents, the response was 28.9 per cent ( $n = 2,325$ ). The sample proportions regarding sex, age and employment were comparable to the population proportions (see Smeenk, Eisinga, Doorewaard, & Teelken, 2006). In other words, the sample did not differ significantly from the population with respect to these characteristics.

#### **4.3.2 Questionnaire**

The questionnaire consisted of eighty-four items divided across twenty-one questions (see Appendix A). It was structured in such a way as to encourage the respondents to reflect on their past and present experiences in the faculty. Following Swoboda, Mühlberger, Weikunat, and Schneeweiss (1997), we tried to keep the questionnaire as short and as simple as possible. The questionnaire was pre-tested in the summer of 2004 through a pilot survey in two Dutch faculties (a business/economics faculty and a social sciences faculty) of the same university (see Chapter 3; see also Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2006d). The results of this pilot study led to some minor adaptations being made to the formulation and sequence of the questions.

#### **4.3.3 Measurements**

Standard and study-specific measures are provided for the HRM practices, the antecedents, the three organisational commitment constructs, and the perceived level of managerialism.

### *HRM practices*

We measured the university employees' perceptions of *decentralisation* with a four-item scale based on the original instrument of Arthur (1994) including, for example, 'I monitor data on my productivity' (1 = does not apply at all, 5 = applies completely). In order to measure how they feel about the level of *compensation*, the university employees were asked to rate their own salary on a scale from 1 (= very inferior to my efforts) to 5 (= passes my efforts easily) (cf. Boyer, Altbach, & Whitelaw, 1994). Following Gaertner and Nollen (1989), perceived *participation* was measured with a four-item scale including, for example, 'I am given the possibility to participate in decisions that affect my work' (1 = does not apply at all, 5 = applies completely). To measure the level of *training and development*, we adapted Arthur's (1994) instrument to make it more appropriate for measuring training and development within the context of higher education. Employees were asked to indicate how many days per year they undertook off-the-job activities away from their immediate work area, on-the-job general skills training not directly related to their current jobs, and on-the-job skills training directly related to their current jobs. We summed up the ratings on the items to generate a composite score. Based on Gaertner and Nollen (1989), perceived *employment security* was measured by a single item asking the respondents to indicate whether the faculty does enough to avoid layoffs (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree).

To measure the employees' perception of *social interactions*, we used Sheldon's (1971) instrument, including items like 'I frequently have off-the-job contacts with my colleagues' and 'I feel a part of my department' (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree). To measure the perceived *management style*, the employees were asked which style best fits their manager or management team (cf. Blake & Mouton, 1985): [1] laissez-faire management (no care for the employees, no care for the organisation), [2] management of people's need (full care for the employees, no care for the organisation), [3] management of efficiency (no care for the employees, full care for the organisation), [4] middle management (little care for the employees, little care for the organisation), and [5] ideal management (full care for the employees, full care for the organisation). We used the following items to measure the university employees' perception of the *communication* level in the faculty (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree): 'I am adequately informed about what is going on in the fac-

ulty', and 'I am adequately informed about changes that affect my job' (cf. DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). Finally, the style of *performance appraisal* as experienced by the employees was measured by asking them to which of two styles the performance appraisal in their faculty tends (1 = judgmental-oriented, focused on control, accountability and performance measurement, to 5 = developmental-oriented, focused on development of individual competences).

### *Antecedents*

The personal variables *age*, *sex*, *educational level*, *organisational tenure*, *positional tenure*, and *family responsibility* were recorded using six single-item self-report responses. We measured the *need for achievement* by asking the employees to indicate their agreement or disagreement with propositions about the importance of performing well and working hard (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree).

The job and role characteristics *career mobility* and *job challenge* were measured by the agreement or disagreement (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree) of employees with propositions on opportunities for career development and the challenge of their work, respectively (cf. Allen & Meyer, 1990a). *Job level* was measured by a single-item scale consisting of eleven position categories ranging from 'dean' to 'other position (please specify)'. Next, *role conflict* and *role ambiguity* were measured by using the questionnaire items that loaded .60 or higher in the study of Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) like the role conflict item 'I work under incompatible policies and guidelines' and the reversed role ambiguity item 'I have divided my working time properly' (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree). The *autonomy* measure used the adapted instrument of Hackman and Lawler (1971) including, for example, the item 'I have the freedom to do many different things in my job' (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree). Finally, *working hours* were measured by a single-item self-report response to the office hours that are regularly scheduled, excluding overtime.

Regarding structural factors, we measured the feeling of *social involvement* with Hackman and Lawler's (1971) instrument, which we adapted to our study. We used, amongst others, the following reversed item: 'My job is often solitary' (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree). Agreement or disagreement (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree) with the Allen and Meyer (1990b) proposition 'My contribution is important for the larger aims of the faculty' was

taken as an indication of *personal importance*. To measure *formalisation*, we asked the respondents whether they agreed or disagreed (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree) with the proposition that the faculty has clear rules and regulations that everyone is expected to follow closely (cf. Sashkin & Morris, 1987).

### ***Organisational commitment***

Organisational commitment can be measured by a number of different scales (e.g., Cook & Wall, 1980; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Penley & Gould, 1988; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Partly based on Buchanan (1974) and Quinn and Staines (1979), Allen and Meyer (1990b) developed a twenty-four-item scale to measure *affective, continuance, and normative organisational commitment*. It consists of three subscales: the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS), and the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS). We also used these scales and tried to improve the scale items by reducing item ambiguity and deleting equivalent and irrelevant items, and used six items for each subscale. Responses were made on a five-point continuum (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree).

### ***Perceived level of managerialism***

Hood (1995) argues that managerial developments involve seven dimensions: extent of disaggregation (expansion of student numbers and diversification of study disciplines), competition between universities or faculties, use of management practices drawn from the private sector, stress on discipline and parsimony in resource use, move towards more hands-on management, move towards more explicit and measurable standards of performance, and attempts to control according to pre-set output measures. To measure the *level of managerialism*, university employees were asked to indicate to what extent they perceive that these dimensions apply to the faculties in which they are employed (1 = does not apply at all, 5 = applies completely).

#### **4.3.4 Common method variance**

To control for the potential effects of common method variance, possibly occurring when the measures of different concepts share common methods (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), we applied different response formats for the measurement of HRM practices (single-choice ques-

tions, numerical entry, five-point Likert scale), antecedents (single-choice with and without optional text-response, date and numerical entry, five-point Likert scale), organisational commitment (five-point Likert scale), and level of managerialism (five-point Likert scale with ‘don’t know’ option). Moreover, on the basis of qualitative research into item formulation and the pilot study, we improved scale items by reducing item ambiguity, social desirability, and demand characteristics, and we deleted equivalent and irrelevant items. Since we mostly applied tested and widely used scales, we were cautious in altering the scale formats and values in order to preserve the original scale validities.

We conducted Harman’s (1967) one-factor test as described by Podsakoff et al. (2003) to check for the possible influence of common method variance. The unrotated factor analysis of the variables used in the study resulted in twenty-two factors, with the first factor explaining only 10.8 per cent of the common variance. Hence, our findings are not greatly affected by the problem of common method variance.

#### 4.3.5 Factor analyses

For the purpose of data reduction, we conducted factor analyses using principal-axis extraction. We applied two criteria to determine the appropriateness of the factor model: Eigenvalue ( $> 1.00$ ) and communality ( $> .20$ ). The factor matrices were rotated to ‘simple structure’ using either oblique rotation (direct oblimin) – when the factors were expected to have intercorrelations – or orthogonal rotation (varimax) – when the factors were expected to have no intercorrelations.

**Table 4.1** *Factor analyses of HRM practices and antecedents*

	<i>Number of items</i>	<i>Cronbach’s alpha</i>	<i>All communalities larger than</i>	<i>All pattern loadings larger than</i>	<i>Total explained variance</i>
<b>HRM practices</b>					
Participation	3	.76	.27	.52	55.9%
<b>Antecedents</b>					
Level of autonomy	3	.68	.38	.62	42.4%
Social involvement <sup>a</sup> :					48.9%
- Personal contacts	3	.70	.40	.45	
- Work contacts	2	.59 (.81) <sup>b</sup>	.22	.47	

<sup>a</sup> *Oblimin rotation, correlation between factors: .42.*

<sup>b</sup> *As the original reliability is lower than the lower limit of acceptability (between .60 and .70 – Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998), we calculated the six-item reliability (the coefficient between brackets) using the Spearman-Brown formula:  $r_{kk} = k * r_{\text{soc}} / (1 + [k-1] * r_{\text{soc}})$ , where  $r_{kk}$  is the reliability of the scale that has  $k$  times as many items as the original scale,  $r_{\text{soc}}$  is the reliability of the original scale, and  $k$  is the multiplier.*

Table 4.1 summarises the results of the factor analyses of the HRM practices and antecedents, including the number of items, Cronbach's alpha, and the total explained variance. It appears from this table that the items of participation and level of autonomy represent two reliable factors. Furthermore, social involvement consists of two factors: personal and work-related contacts.

The varimax-rotated factor matrix of the dependent variables, i.e., the constructs of affective, continuance and normative organisational commitment, is depicted in Table 4.2. The table also shows the reliabilities of the three sets of items determined by Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ), the communalities ( $h^2$ ) and the loading of the items, and the total explained variance.

**Table 4.2** *Factor analysis of organisational commitment*

<i>Dimensions and scale items</i>	$h^2$	Factor matrix <sup>a</sup>		
		I	II	III
<b>Affective organisational commitment (<math>\alpha = .83</math>)</b>				
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career at the faculty	.34	.53		
I enjoy discussing the faculty in a positive sense with people outside it	.50	.70		
I really feel as if the faculty's problems are my own	.43	.63		
I feel like 'part of the family' at the faculty	.60	.76		
The faculty has a great deal of personal meaning for me	.67	.81		
<i>I easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one (R)<sup>bc</sup></i>	.	.		
<b>Continuance organisational commitment (<math>\alpha = .77</math>)</b>				
I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up	.29		.53	
It would be very hard for me to leave the faculty right now	.49		.65	
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave the faculty now	.61		.76	
I could leave the faculty at no cost now (R)	.23		.47	
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving the faculty	.36		.58	
I continue to work for the faculty as leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice	.39		.62	
<b>Normative organisational commitment (<math>\alpha = .66</math>)</b>				
Employees generally move from organisation to organisation too often	.30			.54
I do not mind at all when employees jump from organisation to organisation (R)	.32			.56
If I got offered a job elsewhere I would feel uncomfortable leaving the faculty	.29			.36
I believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation	.46			.63
I think that wanting to be a 'company man/woman' is still sensible	.23			.43
<i>Nowadays, things are better than in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers (R)</i>	.			.
<b>Total explained variance:</b> 40.5%		16.8	14.6	9.0

<sup>a</sup> Roman numerals refer to the order in which the factors appeared in the orthogonal (varimax) rotated solution using principal-axis factoring. Factor scores lower than .35 are not reported.

<sup>b</sup> Items in italics were excluded from the analyses because of low communality ( $< .20$ ).

<sup>c</sup> Reversed items are indicated with (R).

The figures in Table 4.2 reveal that the organisational commitment scales possess quite acceptable psychometrical properties. All factors account for a passable proportion of the variance in the variables, and the reliability coefficients suggest a reasonable degree of internal consistency for each scale. Also, the three factors appear to be uncorrelated. These results largely resemble and support Allen and Meyer's (1990b) findings indicating that affective, continuance, and normative commitment are conceptually and empirically separable components of organisational commitment.

Table 4.3 summarises the results of the oblimin-rotated factor analysis of the level of managerialism as perceived by the employees, including the reliabilities, the items' communalities ( $h^2$ ), the loadings, the total explained variance, and the correlation between the factors. The table reveals that the level of managerialism consists of two factors: one related to the use of private management adoption, and the other related to faculty expansion.

**Table 4.3** *Factor analysis of level of managerialism*

<i>Dimensions and scale items</i>	$h^2$	<i>Pattern matrix<sup>a</sup></i>	
		I	II
<b>Private management adoption (<math>\alpha = .67</math>)</b>			
Explicit measuring standards are the largest part of the quality evaluation in the faculty	.35	.58	
In the faculty, the evaluation of teaching and research is mainly carried out with assessment criteria set by 'the managers' rather than by 'peers'	.37	.62	
The faculty has increasingly applied private sector management techniques, such as performance management and efficiency controlling	.37	.60	
The faculty's management is characterised by a control orientation rather than a developmental orientation	.28	.54	
<i>The faculty is under pressure to compete with similar faculties at other universities<sup>b</sup></i>	.	.	
<i>The faculty is under pressure to reduce expenditures</i>	.	.	
<b>Faculty expansion (<math>\alpha = .54/.78^c</math>)</b>			
The number of study disciplines in the faculty has increased since I started working here	.39		.61
The number of student enrolments to the faculty has increased since I started working here	.37		.62
<b>Total explained variance: 35.5%</b>		27.2	8.3

<sup>a</sup> Roman numerals refer to the order in which the factors appeared in the oblique (oblimin) rotated solution using principal-axis factoring. Correlation between factors: .46. Factor scores lower than .35 are not reported.

<sup>b</sup> Items in italics were excluded from the analyses because of low communality ( $< .20$ ).

<sup>c</sup> As the original reliability is lower than the lower limit of acceptability (between .60 and .70 – Hair et al., 1998), we calculated the six-item reliability using the Spearman-Brown formula:  $r_{kk} = k * r_{\infty} / (1 + [k-1] * r_{\infty})$ , where  $r_{kk}$  is the reliability of the scale that has  $k$  times as many items as the original scale,  $r_{\infty}$  is the reliability of the original scale, and  $k$  is the multiplier.

#### 4.4 RESULTS

Since levels of managerialism may vary among the perceptions of individual employees (Davies, in press; Ylijoki, 2003b), we created two groups of employees based on their perceptions of the levels of managerialism within the faculties in which they are employed. The 632 respondents who scored below the means of the two managerialism factors emerging from the factor analysis (private management adoption and faculty expansion) were assigned to the group of employees who perceive low levels of managerialism ('low-managerialism'). Similarly, the 775 respondents who scored above the means of the two managerialism factors were assigned to the group of employees who perceive high levels of managerialism ('high-managerialism'). We did not create a 'middle-managerialism' group because such a group contains not only the employees who gave moderate responses to all managerialism questions ('pure middle perceivers') but also those who gave both extremely low and extremely high responses to the managerialism questions ('hybrid perceivers'). This ambiguity could have blurred the results.

The numbers of respondents, the means and standard deviations of the two managerialism factors, the mean differences, and the standard errors of the differences in the two groups of employees are summarised in Table 4.4.

**Table 4.4** *Descriptive statistics of level of managerialism factors*

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>	<i>Mean difference</i>	<i>Standard error difference</i>
<b>Private management adoption</b>				1.43	.02
Low-managerialism group	632	-.78	.52		
High-managerialism group	775	.65	.39		
<b>Faculty expansion</b>				1.54	.03
Low-managerialism group	632	-.85	.57		
High-managerialism group	775	.68	.46		

In the remainder of this chapter, we examine the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment in the two employee groups using regression analyses. To obtain parsimonious models for the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on university employees' organisational

commitment in the two groups, we conducted stepwise multiple regression analyses. The analyses were controlled for country and faculty type. As the commitment factors are uncorrelated, the effects of HRM practices and antecedents were analysed for each construct of organisational commitment separately. Since the purpose of this chapter is to examine the effects of HRM practices and antecedents in two groups with employees who perceive different levels of managerialism, unstandardised regression coefficients were obtained for each group. As variance-inflation factors ranged from 1.00 to 1.44 – which is much lower than the recommended cut-off threshold of 10 (Hair et al., 1998) – there appeared to be no problem of multicollinearity. The at  $p < .01$  significant unstandardised regression coefficients and (adjusted)  $R^2$ s are presented in Table 4.5.

**Table 4.5** *Unstandardised effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment of employees in the low-managerialism ( $n = 632$ ) and the high-managerialism group ( $n = 775$ )*

	Low-managerialism group			High-managerialism group		
	AC <sup>a</sup>	CC <sup>a</sup>	NC <sup>a</sup>	AC	CC	NC
<b>HRM practices</b>						
Compensation					.65	
Participation					-.27	
Employment security	.49					
Social interactions	.75		.27	1.13		.29
Communication				.20		
Performance appraisal				.54		
<b>Antecedents: personal variables</b>						
Age				.30		.38
Male <sup>b</sup>	1.20					
Organisational tenure					.33	
<b>Antecedents: job and role characteristics</b>						
Role ambiguity	-.22		-.23			
Level of autonomy		-.35				
<b>Antecedents: structural factors</b>						
Personal contacts	.22					
Personal importance	.54			.57		
Formalisation	.64					
<b>(Adjusted) R<sup>2</sup></b>	.42 (.41)	.02 (.02)	.08 (.08)	.47 (.47)	.04 (.04)	.12 (.11)

Note: Analyses have been controlled for country and faculty type.

<sup>a</sup> AC = affective commitment, CC = continuance commitment, NC = normative commitment.

<sup>b</sup> Dummy variable of sex, consisting of the categories: male and female (reference category).

The figures in Table 4.5 indicate that the proportions of explained variation of the three commitment constructs demonstrate the same pattern across the two employee groups. In both the low- and the high-managerialism groups, HRM practices and antecedents explain most of the variation in affective commitment and to a lesser extent in normative and continuance commitment. The proportions of variation in the low-managerialism group are, however, explained by different factors than those explaining the proportions of variation in the high-managerialism group.

With regard to the HRM practices, it appears that social interactions have positive effects on the affective and normative commitment of employees in the two employee groups. In contrast, employment security affects the affective commitment of employees who perceive low levels of managerialism, while compensation, participation, communication, and performance appraisal influence in particular the organisational commitment of employees who perceive high levels of managerialism.

Regarding the antecedents, the figures in Table 4.5 reveal that personal importance influences the affective commitment in the two employee groups. Sex, role ambiguity, level of autonomy, personal contacts, and formalisation affect the organisational commitment of employees who perceive low levels of managerialism. In contrast, the organisational commitment of employees who perceive high levels of managerialism is particularly influenced by the personal variables age and organisational tenure.

#### 4.5 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter empirically compared the effects of nine HRM practices and three antecedent categories on affective, continuance, and normative organisational commitment in two groups of university employees who perceive either low or high levels of managerialism in the faculties in which they are employed.

The results indicate that the set of HRM practices affecting organisational commitment varies between the two employee groups, with the exception of social interactions. These results largely support the *configurational approach* as proposed by Delery and Doty (1996) and the *bundles fit* of Guest

(1997). Both perspectives argue that different configurations or bundles of HRM practices are appropriate for organisations with different characteristics (e.g., the level of managerialism) to achieve superior performance. Likewise, the set of antecedents appears to vary between low- and high-managerialism groups as well, although personal importance appears to have the same effects in the two employee groups. Overall, our results imply that the set of factors (HRM practices and antecedents) affecting organisational commitment differs between employees who perceive different levels of managerialism. The main results, implications, and limitations are discussed below.

Some noteworthy findings are that social interactions positively affect the organisational commitment in the two employee groups, that personal contacts have positive effects in the low-managerialism group, and that communication has a positive influence in the high-managerialism group. These findings imply that collegiality and social contacts are core aspects of an academic institution, regardless of the perceived level of managerialism. Furthermore, when university employees who perceive a high level of managerialism have the possibility to participate in various decisions, it might be that the managerial style of the management does not fit their own (often professional) ideas and values, thereby leading to lower levels of continuance commitment. Additionally, and unsurprisingly, the positive relationship between performance appraisal and affective commitment is found in the high-managerialism group. After all, the more performance appraisal tends to be developmental (focused on individual competencies and development) only among employees who perceive high levels of managerialism, the more that appraisal style will match the professional values, which are generally held by university employees (Bryson, 2004), leading to higher levels of affective commitment.

Furthermore, it is expected that employees in public institutions that have adopted private sector management tools are more satisfied with communication practices, and therefore more committed (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2004) as a result of more effective organisational processes (Rainey, 1997). In addition, Johlke and Duhan (2000) argue that the level of ambiguity felt by employees is dependent on the quality of communication. Therefore, it is not surprising to find that communication leads to higher levels of affective commitment among university employees who perceive high levels of man-

agerialism (and, consequently, intensive use of private management tools), whereas higher levels of ambiguity lead to lower levels of affective and normative commitment among employees in the low-managerialism group (whose employees perceive less effective communication practices). Moreover, the higher levels of role ambiguity in the low-managerialism group may imply that the employees feel less capable of dealing with ambiguity as compared to their colleagues in the high-managerialism group. This idea is strengthened by the result that a higher level of formalisation (clear rules and regulations) is 'rewarded' with a high level of affective commitment among employees who perceive low levels of managerialism. Finally, it is surprising that in the low-managerialism group, higher levels of autonomy lead to lower levels of continuance commitment. After all, since highly educated professionals' work is generally said to benefit from autonomy (e.g., Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Igbaria & Wormley, 1992; Wallace, 1995b), it could be expected that the organisational commitment of university employees, who can reasonably be considered as highly educated professionals, would increase when levels of autonomy increase. It might be that employees who perceive low levels of managerialism also perceive such high levels of autonomy that these result in high levels of independence and individualism, and consequently, lower levels of continuance commitment. In addition, this finding supports the research of Boselie, Paauwe, and Richardson (2003) in which the employee's need for a certain degree of freedom, as this is assumed by the 'high performance' paradigm, is questioned.

A practical implication that results from these findings is that practitioners in the field of university HRM should be cautious when applying 'generally approved' HRM practices. We think it is wise to establish the employees' perception of their faculty's level of managerialism before implementing an HRM strategy. After all, our research demonstrates that, for instance, an HRM strategy focused on employment security is suitable for increasing the organisational commitment of employees who perceive low levels of managerialism, but may appear ineffective for employees who perceive high levels of managerialism. Furthermore, by presenting significant relationships between several HRM practices and antecedents and organisational commitment, our study contributes to the theory of the effects

of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment and to the theory of these effects for university employees in particular.

We are aware that the research has some limitations that must be considered in evaluating the study's findings. For example, by dividing the employees into two groups on the basis of their scores on the managerialism factors, we did not account for the differences between the cultures of the sample countries. Further research could address these differences by analysing whether some HRM practices and/or antecedents are particularly important for the organisational commitment in one or more specific countries.



## CHAPTER 5

### *Factors affecting quality of job performances*

**This chapter is based on:**

Smeenk, S.G.A., Eisinga, R.N., Teelken, J.C., & Doorewaard, J.A.C.M. (2006). *An international comparison of factors affecting quality of job performances among European university employees*. Manuscript submitted for publication.

## 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the early 1980s, social, economic and political changes have taken place in the context of European universities such as democratisation of access to higher education, decentralisation, and budget constraints (Bleiklie, 2001; Chandler, Barry, & Clark, 2001; Gueissaz & Häyriinen-Alestalo, 1999; Thune, 1998). Due to these issues, the universities in Europe have been challenged by social demands such as accountability, quality improvement, efficiency and effectiveness (Chan, 2001; Deem, 1998; Gueissaz & Häyriinen-Alestalo, 1999; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000; Roberts, 2001). To be able to cope with the context developments and the accompanying societal demands, a private sector way of organising has been considered appropriate including “greater managerial power, structural reorganisation, more emphasis on marketing and business generation, moves towards performance-related pay and a rationalization and computerization of administrative structures” (Parker & Jary, 1995, p. 320). Many academic institutions have adopted organisational forms, technologies, management instruments and values that are commonly found in the private business sector (Deem, 1998). This wave of reforms, which has swept through universities and other public organisations all over Europe, is known as *managerialism* (Hood, 1991, 1995; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000).

The consequences of managerialism in universities are a subject of debate. Some researchers suggest that “‘some dose’ of ‘managerialism’ in the right proportion and in the right context” may be useful in universities (Chan, 2001, p. 109; see also Research Assessment Exercise, 2001). As managerialism results in higher efficiency, transparency, and effectiveness, it is thought to positively affect the quality of job performances. Others, however, argue that ‘managerial’ characteristics in universities impede employees from achieving a higher quality of job performances (e.g., Bryson, 2004; Henkel & Kogan, 1996; Trow, 1994a; Ylijoki, 2003a). For instance, due to the managerial accountability aim (Chan, 2001), it has increasingly become mandatory for employees to report activities and progress. As a result of the increase of these and other bureaucratic procedures, university employees are being urged to spend more time on such ‘secondary’ activities; time that could otherwise have been invested in doing research, writing articles, or improving teaching programmes. In addition, employees adapt their activities to “the simplifying ten-

dencies of the quantification of outputs” (Trow, 1994a, p. 41), which may lead to lower-quality performances. In other words, opponents of managerialism argue that it works against its own intentions of efficient and effective quality improvement (e.g., Bryson, 2004; Davies & Thomas, 2002; Thornhill, Lewis, & Saunders, 1996; Trow, 1994a). The latter situation is what we label a *managerialism contradiction* (see also Smeenk, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2004).

To be able to solve, or at least to reduce, such a managerialism contradiction, it is important to know how to increase the quality of university employees’ performances. Since the timing, pace, and extent of managerialism differ among countries (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004), universities (Ball, 1990; Shattock, 1999), faculties (Chan, 2001; Trowler, 1998), and even in the perceptions of individual employees (Davies, in press; Ylijoki, 2003b), it is also important to know whether the processes of affecting the quality of job performances differ among and within countries, universities, or faculties. Empirical research into the development of the quality of job performances in countries, universities, or faculties with different levels of managerialism is scarce. Therefore, this chapter examines which factors affect the quality of job performances of university employees in faculties that are characterised by different levels of managerialism.

The chapter is organised as follows. The next section (Section 5.2) will describe the main concepts of this study and presents a conceptual model showing their relationships. In the succeeding section (Section 5.3), we will discuss the methods used for our study, followed by the presentation of the empirical analyses and results (Section 5.4). The chapter closes with points of discussion, conclusions, and limitations (Section 5.5).

## **5.2 CONCEPTUAL MODEL**

The rational-economic managerial organisation values, adopted to cope with societal developments, include those emphasising budget transparency, administrative effectiveness, increased competition, output measurement, and financial reward (Stiles, 2004). These values are in conflict with professional employee values that generally focus on individual autonomy, collegiality, and professionalism (Bryson, 2004). As a consequence, a conflict emerges between

organisation values and employee values. Since organisational commitment is only expected to occur when employee values match organisation values (Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Kanter, 1968), this value conflict may lead to a loss of organisational commitment (Bryson, 2004; Chan, 2001; Trow, 1994b). Empirical research supports this expectation by suggesting that university employees have a reduced morale and negative feelings, are reluctant to work, resist changes strongly, and even demonstrate unproductive behaviour (e.g., Chan, 2001; Fruytier & Timmerhuis, 1996; Henkel & Kogan, 1996; Potocki-Malicet, Holmesland, Estrela, & Veiga-Simao, 1999; Trow, 1994b; Välimaa, Aittola, & Kontinen, 1998; Ylijoki, 2003a). In addition, the study of Bryson (2004) reveals that some academic employees “no longer enjoy any part of the job, apart from the vacations” (p. 45). Boccock and Watson (1994) note that “many academics have felt dispirited, undervalued, diminished in their autonomy and have suffered an increasing lack of empathy for the goals of institutions” (pp. 124-125).

Organisational commitment is usually divided into three components or constructs, i.e., affective, continuance, and normative organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). These constructs are expected to be important for affecting the quality of job performances (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Porter, 1985). Firstly, the effect of affective commitment on job performances is found to be positive by most studies (e.g., Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Iles, Mabey, & Robertson, 1990; Meyer et al., 1989; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), albeit that some report a weak or statistically insignificant relationship (e.g., Keller, 1997). Secondly, earlier attempts at empirically tracing the link between continuance organisational commitment and the quality of job performances report statistically insignificant relationships (e.g., Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Mayer & Schoorman, 1992; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Somers & Birnbaum, 1998). These results are, however, not always supported by the work of others, who have found clear negative associations (e.g., Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 1989). They argue that employees with strong continuance commitment behave negatively in reaction to the ‘no choice’ situation (i.e., they have to stay with the organisation in any circumstances) (Meyer & Allen, 1997) or perform passively in reaction to the learned helplessness (Seligman, 1975) that is promoted by a strong continu-

ance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Finally, normative commitment appears to be either positively, negatively, or not related at all to job performances in different studies (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1996). Most of the studies, however, reveal a positive relationship with performances (e.g., Meyer et al., 2002), although often less strong than the relationship between affective commitment and performances (Marchiori & Henkin, 2004; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Since organisational commitment plays an important role in influencing the quality of job performances (Meyer et al., 1989; Mowday et al., 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Porter, 1985), a possible way to increase the quality of performances and, consequently, solve or reduce a managerialism contradiction in contemporary European universities, is to influence organisational commitment. A commonly known instrument in literature for influencing organisational commitment is the use of human resource management (HRM) practices (e.g., Beardwell & Holden, 2001; Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999). Recently, Buck and Watson (2002), based on Arthur (1994), measured the potential influences of a so-called commitment system consisting of seven HRM practices among higher education staff employees. We have adapted Buck and Watson's system (see Section 2.2.1) resulting in the following nine HRM practices: decentralisation, compensation, participation, training/development, employment security, social interactions, management style, communication, and performance appraisal.

In addition to the studies that consider organisational commitment as a mediating variable between HRM practices and quality of performances, some studies do not provide much insight into how HRM practices contribute to job performances. They suggest that "when various sub-systems including the HRM-system are aligned and supporting each other, superior performance is likely" (Guest, 1997, p. 268) and they are merely concerned with the relationships between HRM practices and quality of job performances (e.g., Huselid, 1995; Marchington & Zagelmeyer, 2005; Paauwe & Richardson, 1997; Wright, Gardner, Moynihan, & Allen, 2005). Although these relationships are often statistically weak and the results ambiguous (Paauwe & Boselie, 2005), various empirical studies demonstrate that HRM practices do have an effect on the quality of job performances. In this study, we will refer to an indirect effect of HRM practices on performances when this relationship is mediated by organ-

isational commitment. We will refer to a direct effect when the effects of HRM practices on the quality of job performances are direct, or at least not mediated by organisational commitment. There may be other mediating variables that play a role in the relationship between HRM practices and quality of job performances, but it is not within the scope of this chapter to establish which variables these are.

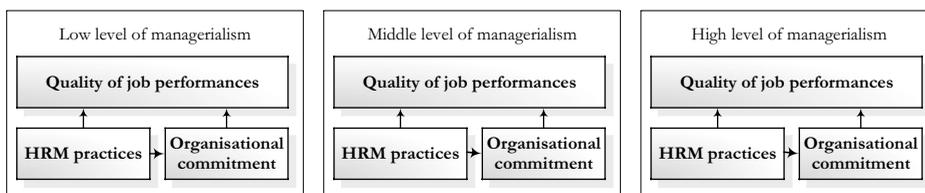
Since the timing, pace, and extent of managerialism differ among countries (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004), universities (Ball, 1990; Shattock, 1999), faculties (Chan, 2001; Trowler, 1998), and even in the perceptions of individual employees (Davies, in press; Ylijoki, 2003b), the direct and indirect effects of HRM practices may differ among or within countries, universities, and faculties. This chapter focuses on the effects of HRM practices among university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism. In this study, these levels of managerialism are based on the country levels of managerialism as they are known in literature. Since Belgium and Germany are generally seen as countries with low levels of managerialism (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000, 2004), all Belgian and German faculties are considered as ‘low-managerialism’ faculties. Similarly, since Finland and Sweden are generally thought to represent countries with middle levels of managerialism (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000, 2004), all Finnish and Swedish faculties are considered as ‘middle-managerialism’ faculties. Finally, since the Netherlands and the United Kingdom represent countries with high levels of managerialism (De Boer, Enders, & Leisyte, 2006; Jongbloed, Salerno, Huisman, & Vossensteyn, 2005; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000, 2004; Ter Bogt, 2006; Van Gestel & Teelken, 2006), all Dutch and British faculties are considered as ‘high-managerialism’ faculties.

Faculties with low levels of managerialism are most similar to Newman’s (1976) collegium idea in which normative ‘liberal values’ are based on the social bonds of a community of scholars. In addition, common values, like the acquisition of knowledge for its own sake, freedom of expression, and working with colleagues are promoted (Stiles, 2004). Faculties with middle levels of managerialism are seen as “more fragmented and conflictual since traditional collegial values are not so widely shared” (Stiles, 2004, p. 161). Finally, faculties with high levels of managerialism are characterised by “greater managerial power, structural reorganisation, more emphasis on marketing and business generation, moves towards performance-related pay and a rationali-

zation and computerization of administrative structures” (Parker & Jary, 1995, p. 320). In addition, “rational-economic managerial values dominate, including those emphasizing administrative effectiveness, career advancement, financial reward and customer-orientation” (Stiles, 2004, p. 162).

The concepts of HRM practices, organisational commitment, quality of job performances, level of managerialism, and the relationships between them are visualised in the conceptual model displayed in Figure 5.1.

**Figure 5.1** *Conceptual model*



The following section will discuss the methods used for the study on direct and indirect effects of HRM practices on the quality of job performances across faculties with different levels of managerialism.

## 5.3 METHODS

### 5.3.1 Data and sample

The study draws on a Web survey conducted from November 2004 to January 2005 among university employees (all associated with teaching, research, and support) from thirty-six faculties and eighteen universities (two faculties per university) in six European countries (Belgium, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United Kingdom). We chose these countries because they are expected to reflect different levels of managerialism (Bleiklie, 2001; Hood, 1995; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004) but are reasonably comparable in socio-economic terms. In addition, the knowledge of the English language is generally high in these countries (we used a questionnaire formulated in English only). Within these countries we selected all universities that have both a

business/economics faculty and a social sciences faculty or equivalents thereof. We chose two gamma faculties because they provide variation in the independent variables while at the same time being reasonably comparable. Subsequently, we randomly picked three universities (and consequently six faculties) per country, and searched for the email addresses of the employees of these selected faculties on the Internet.

We conducted the survey across the Internet as all university employees are generally provided with access to the Net. Although Web surveys are a relatively new means for collecting data, several researchers have found support for use of this medium (e.g., Cobanoglu, Warde, & Moreo, 2001; Handwerk, Carson, & Blackwell, 2000; Sills & Song, 2002; Tomsic, Hendel, & Matross, 2000). After a deduction of 1,493 ineligible respondents, the response was 28.9 per cent ( $n = 2,325$ ). The sample proportions with respect to sex, age, and employment were comparable to the population proportions. In other words, the sample did not differ significantly from the population with respect to these characteristics (Smeenk, Eisinga, Doorewaard, & Teelken, 2006).

### **5.3.2 Questionnaire**

The questionnaire consisted of eighty-four items divided across twenty-one questions (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was structured to encourage the respondents to reflect on their past and present experiences in the faculty. Following Swoboda, Mühlberger, Weikunat, and Schneeweiss (1997) we tried to keep the questionnaire as short and as simple as possible. The questionnaire was pre-tested in the summer of 2004 through a pilot survey held in two Dutch faculties (a business/economics faculty and a social sciences faculty) of the same university (see Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2006d). The results of this pilot study led to some minor adaptations being made to the formulation and sequence of the questions. For this study, we used the items concerning organisational commitment (eighteen items), HRM practices (twenty items), quality of job performances (ten items) and three control variables which had been proven to be important for university employees in an earlier study (Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2006a), i.e., age, sex, and organisational tenure (three items).

### 5.3.3 Measurements

Standard and study-specific measures are provided for the HRM practices, the organisational commitment constructs, the quality of job performances, and the control variables.

#### *HRM practices*

We measured the university employees' perceptions of *decentralisation* with a four-item scale based on the original instrument of Arthur (1994) including, for example, 'I monitor data on my productivity' (1 = does not apply at all, 5 = applies completely). In order to measure how they feel about the level of *compensation*, the university employees were asked to rate their own salary on a scale from 1 (= very inferior to my efforts) to 5 (= passes my efforts easily) (cf. Boyer, Altbach, & Whitelaw, 1994). Following Gaertner and Nollen (1989), perceived *participation* was measured with a four-item scale including, for example, 'I am given the possibility to participate in decisions that affect my work' (1 = does not apply at all, 5 = applies completely). To measure the level of *training and development*, we adapted Arthur's (1994) instrument to make it more appropriate for measuring training and development within the context of higher education. Employees were asked to indicate how many days per year they undertook off-the-job activities away from their immediate work area activities, on-the-job general skills training not directly related to their current jobs, and on-the-job skills training directly related to their current jobs. We summed up the ratings on the items to generate a single composite score. Based on Gaertner and Nollen (1989), perceived *employment security* was measured by a single item asking the respondents to indicate whether the faculty does enough to avoid layoffs (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree).

To measure the employees' perception of *social interactions*, we used Sheldon's (1971) instrument, including items like 'I frequently have off-the-job contacts with my colleagues' and 'I feel a part of my department' (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree). To measure the perceived *style of management*, the university employees were asked which management style best fits their manager or management team (cf. Blake & Mouton, 1985): [1] *laissez-faire* management (care neither for the employees nor for the organisation), [2] management of people's need (full care for the employees, no care for the organisation), [3] management of efficiency (no care for the employees, full care

for the organisation), [4] middle management (little care for the employees, little care for the organisation), and [5] ideal management (full care for the employees, full care for the organisation). We used the following items to measure the employees' perception of the *communication* level in the faculty (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree): 'I am adequately informed about what is going on in the faculty', and 'I am adequately informed about changes that affect my job' (cf. DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). Finally, the style of *performance appraisal* as experienced by the employees was measured by asking them to which of two styles the performance appraisal in their faculty tends (1 = judgmental-oriented to 5 = developmental-oriented).

### *Organisational commitment*

Organisational commitment can be measured by a number of different scales (e.g., Cook & Wall, 1980; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Penley & Gould, 1988; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Partly based on Buchanan (1974) and Quinn and Staines (1979), Allen and Meyer (1990b) developed a twenty-four-item scale to measure affective, continuance, and normative *organisational commitment*. It consists of three subscales: the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS), and the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS). We also used these scales and tried to improve the scale items by reducing item ambiguity and deleting equivalent and irrelevant items, and used six items for each subscale. Responses were made on a five-point continuum (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree).

### *Quality of job performances*

The data on quality of performances were acquired using two measures. Firstly, we asked the respondents how they thought their colleagues would rate the quality of the respondents overall performances and, if applicable, the quality of their research performances, the quality of their teaching performances, and the quality of their management performances (ranging from bottom 10% to highest 10%). Secondly, the actual performances of the university employees were measured by asking them to indicate how many articles they had published in refereed and non-refereed journals, how many chapters in edited volumes they had published, how many textbooks or other books they had disseminated, the number of research reports they had disseminated in-

ternally or to external clients, and the number of presentations they had held at conferences and workshops in the previous three years. The ratings on these items were summed to generate a single composite score.

### ***Control variables***

The control variables *age*, *sex*, and *organisational tenure* were recorded using three single-item self-report responses.

### **5.3.4 Common method variance**

To control for the potential effects of common method variance, which possibly emerges when the measures of different concepts share common methods (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), we applied different response formats for the measurement of the HRM practices (single-choice questions, numerical entry, five-point Likert scale), organisational commitment (five-point Likert scale), the quality of job performances (five-point scale with 'not applicable'-option and numerical entry), and the control variables (single-choice question, date and numerical entry). Moreover, on the basis of qualitative research into the formulation of the items and the pilot study (see Smeenk et al., 2006d), we improved scale items by reducing item ambiguity, social desirability, and demand characteristics, and we deleted equivalent and irrelevant items. Since we applied tested and widely used scales to measure most of the concepts, we were cautious in altering the scale formats and scale values in order to preserve the original scale validities.

To test for common method bias, the Harman's (1967) one-factor test as described by Podsakoff et al. (2003) was conducted. As the unrotated principal component factor analysis of all relevant items resulted in fifteen components, with the first component explaining only 17.4 per cent of the common variance, our findings are not greatly affected by the problem of common method variance.

### **5.3.5 Factor analyses**

For the purpose of data reduction, we conducted exploratory factor analysis using principal-axis extraction. We applied three criteria for determining the appropriateness of the factor model: Eigenvalue ( $> 1.00$ ), communality ( $> .20$ ), and not too high loadings of an item on two or more factors ( $< .30$ ). The

factor matrices were rotated to ‘simple structure’ using either oblique rotation (direct oblimin) – when the factors were expected to have intercorrelations – or orthogonal rotation (varimax) – when the factors were expected to have no intercorrelations.

For the HRM practices, we conducted a factor analysis for the practices that were measured by two or more items: social interactions, communication, participation, and decentralisation (see Table 5.1). The single-item measured HRM practices of compensation, training/development, employment security, management style, and performance appraisal, were left out of this factor analysis.

**Table 5.1** *Factor analysis of HRM practices*

<i>Dimensions and scale items</i>	$b^2$	<i>Pattern matrix<sup>a</sup></i>		
		I	II	III
<b>Contacts (<math>\alpha = .77</math>)</b>				
I feel a part of my department	.46	.71		
I feel a part of my faculty	.54	.75		
I am adequately informed about what is going on in the faculty	.47	.60		
I am adequately informed about changes that affect my job	.46	.56		
<i>I frequently have off-the-job contacts with my colleagues<sup>b</sup></i>	.	.		
<b>Participation (<math>\alpha = .62</math>)</b>				
There should be more employee involvement (R) <sup>c</sup>	.40		.63	
I wish to have more say in decisions about my work (R)	.47		.67	
<i>I am given the possibility to participate in decisions that affect my work</i>	.		.	
<i>I am satisfied with my possibility to participate in decisions that affect my work</i>	.		.	
<b>Decentralisation (<math>\alpha = .55/.79^d</math>)</b>				
I have the possibility to develop new research and/or teaching programmes	.32			.58
I take part in faculty decisions about investments in new projects	.48			.65
<i>I monitor data on my productivity</i>	.			.
<i>I determine my work flow (tasks-ordering)</i>	.			.
<b>Total explained variance: 44.9%</b>		29.9	9.1	6.0

<sup>a</sup> Roman numerals refer to the order in which the factors appeared in the oblique (oblimin) rotated solution using principal-axis factoring. Factor loadings lower than .35 are not reported. Correlation between factors:

	I	II	III
I	1.00	.40	.45
II		1.00	.16
III			1.00

<sup>b</sup> Items in italics were excluded from the analyses because of low communality ( $\leq .20$ ) or high loadings ( $\geq .30$ ) on two or more factors

<sup>c</sup> Reversed items are indicated with (R).

<sup>d</sup> As the original reliability is lower than the lower limit of acceptability (between .60 and .70 – Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998), we calculated the six-item reliability using the Spearman-Brown formula:  $r_{kk} = k * r_{\infty} / (1 + [k-1] * r_{\infty})$ , where  $r_{kk}$  is the reliability of the scale that has  $k$  times as many items as the original scale,  $r_{\infty}$  is the reliability of the original scale, and  $k$  is the multiplier.

Table 5.1 summarises the results of the oblimin rotated analyses of the multi-item measured HRM practices together with the Cronbach's alphas ( $\alpha$ ), the communalities ( $h^2$ ), the loadings, and the total explained variance. It appears from this table that the items of social interactions and communication together represent one factor, which we call 'contacts'. Furthermore, participation and decentralisation represent two separate factors.

The varimax-rotated factor matrix of the organisational commitment constructs, the factor reliabilities (Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ), the communalities ( $h^2$ ), the loadings, and the total explained variance are depicted in Table 5.2.

**Table 5.2** Factor analysis of organisational commitment

<i>Dimensions and scale items</i>	$h^2$	Factor matrix <sup>a</sup>		
		I	II	III
<b>Affective organisational commitment (<math>\alpha = .83</math>)</b>				
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career at this faculty	.34	.53		
I enjoy discussing the faculty in a positive sense with people outside it	.50	.70		
I really feel as if the faculty's problems are my own	.43	.63		
I feel like 'part of the family' at the faculty	.60	.76		
The faculty has a great deal of personal meaning for me	.67	.81		
<i>I easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one (R)<sup>bc</sup></i>	.	.		
<b>Continuance organisational commitment (<math>\alpha = .77</math>)</b>				
I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up	.29		.53	
It would be very hard for me to leave the faculty right now	.49		.65	
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave the faculty now	.61		.76	
I could leave the faculty at no cost now (R)	.23		.47	
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving the faculty	.36		.58	
I continue to work for the faculty as leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice	.39		.62	
<b>Normative organisational commitment (<math>\alpha = .66</math>)</b>				
Employees generally move from organisation to organisation too often	.30			.54
I do not mind at all when employees move from organisation to organisation (R)	.32			.56
If I got offered a job elsewhere I would feel uncomfortable leaving the faculty	.29			.36
I believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation	.46			.63
I think that wanting to be a 'company man/woman' is still sensible	.23			.43
<i>Nowadays, things are better than in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers (R)</i>	.			.
<b>Total explained variance: 40.5%</b>		16.8	14.6	9.0

<sup>a</sup> Roman numerals refer to the order in which the factors appeared in the orthogonal (varimax) rotated solution using principal-axis factoring. Factor loadings lower than .35 are not reported.

<sup>b</sup> Items in italics were excluded from the analyses because of low communality ( $\leq .20$ ).

<sup>c</sup> Reversed items are indicated with (R).

The data in Table 5.2 reveal that the commitment scales possess quite acceptable psychometrical properties. All factors account for a passable proportion of the variance in the variables, and the reliability coefficients suggest a reasonable degree of internal consistency for each scale. Also, the three factors appear to be uncorrelated. These results largely resemble and support Allen and Meyer's (1990b) findings indicating that affective, continuance, and normative commitment are conceptually and empirically separable components of organisational commitment.

Table 5.3 presents the unrotated factor solution for the quality of job performances together with the reliability denoted by the Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ), the communalities ( $h^2$ ) of the items, the loadings, and the total explained variance.

**Table 5.3** *Factor analysis of quality of job performances*

<i>Dimensions and scale items</i>	<i><math>h^2</math></i>	<i>Factor matrix</i>
<b>Quality of job performances (<math>\alpha = .70</math>)</b>		
The overall quality of your performances	.95	.97
The quality of your research performances	.22	.47
The quality of your teaching performances	.31	.56
The quality of your management performances	.31	.56
<i>Composite quality score measured by activities</i>	.	.
<b>Total explained variance: 44.7%</b>		44.7

Table 5.3 demonstrates that the quality of job performances is reliably measured by the items that covered the respondents' thoughts about how they think their colleagues would rate the quality of the respondents' performances.

## 5.4 RESULTS

To test the direct and indirect effects of HRM practices on quality of performances of university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism, we used the multiple mediator model as discussed by Preacher and Hayes (2006). All estimates presented below were controlled for faculty type, and for three personal variables (age, sex, and organisational tenure) that ap-

peared to be important for university employees' organisational commitment in a previous study (Smeenk et al., 2006a). First of all, we examined which HRM practices affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances among the respondents of all faculties ( $n = 1700$ ). Due to deletion of respondents with missing values, this number deviates from the original number of respondents (2,325). Table 5.4 presents the significant ( $p < .05$ ) standardised regression coefficients. The complete table can be found in Appendix B.

**Table 5.4** Significant standardised direct, indirect, and total effects of HRM practices and organisational commitment on quality of job performances of all employees ( $n = 1700$ )

	AC <sup>a</sup>	CC <sup>a</sup>	NC <sup>a</sup>	Quality of job performances			
				Direct effect	Indirect effect via <sup>b</sup>		Total indirect effect
				AC	CC	NC	
<b>Organisational commitment</b>							
AC				.161			.161
CC				-.091			-.091
<b>HRM practices</b>							
Contacts	.541		.177	.100	.087		.082*
Decentralisation				.076			.009*
Compensation		.058	.051	-.176			-.182*
Training/development				-.050			-.048*
Employment security	.054				.009		.009*
Participation	-.050				-.008		
Performance appraisal	.087				.014		.017*
Management style	.043						
<b>(Adjusted) R<sup>2</sup></b>							.100 (.092)

<sup>a</sup> AC = affective commitment, CC = continuance commitment, NC = normative commitment.

<sup>b</sup> Coefficient is greater than two times the standard error. The program INDIRECT by Preacher and Hayes (2006) was used to assess the significance of the indirect effects. The standard errors of the indirect effects are obtained by bootstrapping using 5,000 bootstrap samples. The standard errors for the other effects are obtained by OLS. The parameters estimates are controlled for faculty type, age, sex, and organisational tenure.

The results in Table 5.4 reveal that organisational commitment and almost all HRM practices (directly or indirectly) affect quality of job performances. With regard to the effects of the organisational commitment constructs, the results largely support the previous findings on the positive effect of affective commitment on the quality of job performances (e.g., Iles et al., 1990; Meyer et al.,

1989; Meyer et al., 2002), the negative effect of continuance commitment (e.g., Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 1989), and the statistically insignificant effect of normative commitment (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Regarding the direct effects of HRM practices on the quality of job performances, the results in Table 5.4 show that both contacts and decentralisation positively affect the quality of job performances, whereas compensation and training/development have negative effects. Employment security, participation, performance appraisal, and the style of management do not have any influence.

When we take a look at the indirect effects of the HRM practices, it appears that contacts, decentralisation, employment security, and performance appraisal positively affect quality of job performances, whereas participation has a negative effect. The indirect effect of contacts is by far the largest. It furthermore appears that most of the indirect effects occur via the affective construct of organisational commitment.

Another noteworthy result is that most of the HRM practices have either a direct effect (compensation and training/development) or an indirect effect (employment security, participation, and performance appraisal). Only contacts and decentralisation have both direct and indirect effects, although the indirect effect of contacts is by far the larger of the two.

Subsequently, we conducted separate analyses for the three groups of faculties that are characterised by different levels of managerialism: the low-managerialism faculties ( $n = 495$ ), the middle-managerialism faculties ( $n = 470$ ), and the high-managerialism faculties ( $n = 735$ ). The significant ( $p < .05$ ) unstandardised regression coefficients are presented in Table 5.5. The complete table can be found in Appendix B.

The general picture that results from Table 5.5 regarding the effect of organisational commitment on the quality of job performances demonstrates again that affective commitment is positively related, continuance commitment is negatively related, and normative commitment is statistically insignificantly related to quality of job performances.

In low-managerialism faculties, however, employees' organisational commitment is not related to the quality of their job performances. This finding is in line with the result that in these faculties the effects of HRM practices on the quality of job performances are only direct (or at least not mediated by

organisational commitment). In detail, compensation and training/development have relatively large negative effects, whereas contacts have positive effects.

**Table 5.5** Significant unstandardised direct, indirect, and total effects of HRM practices and organisational commitment on quality of job performances of employees in low-managerialism ( $n = 495$ ), middle-managerialism ( $n = 470$ ), and high-managerialism faculties ( $n = 735$ )

		AC <sup>a</sup>	CC <sup>a</sup>	NC <sup>a</sup>	Direct effect	Quality of job performances			Total indirect effect	Total effect
						Indirect effect via <sup>c</sup>				
						AC	CC	NC		
<b>Organisational commitment</b>										
AC	M <sup>b</sup>				.152					.152
	H <sup>b</sup>				.226					.226
CC	M				-.159					-.159
	H				-.106					-.106
<b>HRM practices</b>										
Decentralisation	M					.006	.010	.002	.018	
	H				.147					.159
Compensation	L <sup>b</sup>		.154		-.484					-.489
	M	.102		.121		.016	-.008	-.006		-.261
	H				-.241					-.261
Participation	M	-.128		-.119						
	H	-.093				-.021				
Training/development	L				-.207					-.199
	M		-.390				.062			
Employment security	L	.105								
	M					.011	.006	.002	.019	
Contacts	L	.554		.139	.289					.348
	M	.631		.270		.096			.070	.160
	H	.543		.117		.123			.122	.115
Management style	L			-.225						
	M								.017	
	H	.184							.039	
Performance appraisal	L		-.100							
	M	.111							.027	
	H	.073								
<b>(Adjusted) R<sup>2</sup></b>										
	L								.206	(.182)
	M								.105	(.076)
	H								.098	(.079)

<sup>a</sup> AC = affective commitment, CC = continuance commitment, NC = normative commitment.

<sup>b</sup> L = low-managerialism faculties, M = middle-managerialism faculties, H = high-managerialism faculties.

<sup>c</sup> Coefficient is greater than two times the standard error. The program INDIRECT by Preacher and Hayes (2006) was used to assess the significance of the indirect effects. The standard errors of the indirect effects are obtained by bootstrapping using 5000 bootstrap samples. The standard errors for the other effects are obtained by OLS. The parameters estimates are controlled for faculty type, age, sex, and organisational tenure.

In contrast, in middle-managerialism faculties, the effects of HRM practices on the quality of job performances are all mediated by organisational commitment. Contacts and training/development appear to constitute the most important HRM practices that indirectly (via affective and continuance commitment, respectively) affect the quality of job performances of employees in these faculties.

The effects in the high-managerialism faculties are mixed: HRM practices have both direct and indirect effects on the quality of employees' job performances. The most important HRM practices in these faculties are decentralisation and compensation, which have relatively large positive and negative direct effects, respectively, and contacts, which have relatively large positive indirect effects. With regard to the indirect effects, it appears again that affective commitment is the main mediating variable between HRM practices and the quality of job performances, especially for the indirect effects of contacts.

When we look at the sets of practices, we see that there is little difference among the employees of the various faculties. Both compensation and contacts have relatively large negative and positive effects, respectively, in all faculties. Furthermore, training/development is important for employees' performances in the low- and middle-managerialism faculties, although the direction and mediating role of organisational commitment differ between the two groups of faculties. Management style appears to have an effect among employees in middle- and high-managerialism faculties. Finally, employment security and performance appraisal are unique HRM practices in middle-managerialism faculties, whereas participation has an impact in high-managerialism faculties only.

## **5.5 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION**

This chapter empirically examined which factors affect the quality of job performances of university employees in three groups of faculties that are characterised by different levels of managerialism. More specifically, on the basis of theoretical insights and previous research, we focused on the direct and indirect effects (via organisational commitment) of HRM practices on the quality

of job performances in low-, middle-, and high-managerialism faculties. The main conclusion that we can derive from our research is that HRM practices do play a role in affecting quality of job performances. This finding supports many other studies that have investigated the relationship between HRM practices and job performances (e.g., Boselie, Paauwe, & Richardson, 2003; Buck & Watson, 2002; Delery & Doty, 1996).

When we go deeper into *which* HRM practices matter, it appears that there are some large differences between the effects of the various HRM practices among the employees in the three groups of faculties. For instance, compensation and training/development negatively affect quality of employees' performances in low-managerialism faculties, whereas the same practices have positive effects in middle-managerialism faculties. Likewise, employment security and performance appraisal only have effects in middle-managerialism faculties, whereas participation is unique in influencing HRM practice in the high-managerialism faculties. These and similar results tend to support the *configurational approach* as proposed by Delery and Doty (1996) and the *bundles fit* of Guest (1997). Both perspectives argue that different configurations or bundles of HRM practices are suited for organisations with different characteristics and strategic orientations in order to achieve superior performance. However, there are also many similarities regarding the effects of HRM practices in various faculties. For instance, contacts and compensation have positive and negative effects, respectively, on employees' performances in all faculties, whereas decentralisation and management style have positive effects in both middle- and high-managerialism faculties. These findings tend to support proponents of the *best practice approach*, also labelled the *universalistic mode* (Delery & Doty, 1996), which does not take into account differences in culture and institutional settings (e.g., Huselid, 1995; Ichniowski & Shaw, 1999; Pfeffer, 1994).

When we go deeper into *how* HRM practices matter, it appears that there are clear differences among the employees in the three groups of faculties in the way the HRM practices affect the quality of their job performances. In low-managerialism faculties, the effects of HRM practices are predominantly direct (or at least not mediated by organisational commitment), in middle-managerialism faculties the effects are all mediated by organisational commitment, and in high-managerialism faculties, the HRM practices have both direct and indirect effects. The results in low-managerialism faculties re-

garding how HRM practices affect the quality of performances refute the theories which claim that the effects of HRM practices on job performances are mediated by organisational commitment (e.g., Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills, & Walton, 1984). In contrast, the results in the middle-managerialism faculties are supportive of such theories. It further appears that if organisational commitment mediates the relationship between HRM practices and the quality of job performances, it is mainly the affective construct that plays this role.

The above discussion on which HRM practices affect quality of performances, and how they do this, contributes to the debate on the relationship between HRM practices and performances. The practical implication that arises from our study is that it indicates which HRM practices are best applied by university HRM managers in various faculties and countries in order to solve or reduce a potential managerialism contradiction.

We are aware that our study has some limitations that must be considered when evaluating the findings. For example, by creating three groups of faculties on the basis of the levels of managerialism as reported in the literature, we did not account for the differences between the levels of managerialism of universities or faculties within one country. After all, levels of managerialism do not only differ between countries, but also between universities and faculties (Ball, 1990; Podgórecki, 1997; Shattock, 1999). Further research could address these differences by investigating whether the levels of managerialism in the sampled universities or faculties of the same country resemble each other. Furthermore, we labelled the effects of HRM practices on quality of performances that were not mediated by organisational commitment as direct, indicating that the effect is not mediated by organisational commitment. In other words, we only considered organisational commitment to be a possible mediating variable. Further research could investigate whether the direct effects in this study are possibly mediated by other variables, such as satisfaction or motivation (Pauwe & Richardson, 1997).

## CHAPTER 6

### *The managerialism contradiction*

**This chapter is based on:**

Smeenk, S.G.A., Eisinga, R.N., Teelken, J.C., & Doorewaard, J.A.C.M. (2006). *Managerialism, organisational commitment, and quality of job performances among European university employees*. Manuscript submitted for publication.

## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

As a result of socio-economic and political developments, such as budget constraints, accountability for quality, ‘massification’, and decentralisation of higher education (e.g., Bryson, 2004), universities all over Europe have adopted organisational strategies, structures, technologies, management instruments, and values that are commonly found in the private business sector (Aucoin, 1990; Deem, 1998). This trend is generally known as *managerialism* (Hood, 1991, 1995; Pollitt, 1993). Many researchers argue that managerialism works against its own intentions of efficient and effective quality improvement (e.g., Bryson, 2004; Chandler, Barry, & Clark, 2001; Davies & Thomas, 2002; Thornhill, Lewis, & Saunders, 1996; Trow, 1994a). This discrepancy is what we call a *managerialism contradiction* (see also Smeenk, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2004). This theory is, however, challenged by a limited number of studies that suggest that “‘some dose’ of ‘managerialism’ in the right proportion and in the right context” may be useful in universities and that it positively affects the quality of job performances (Chan, 2001, p. 109; see also Research Assessment Exercise, 2001).

Individual employees in the same country, university, or faculty may perceive different levels of managerialism (Davies, in press; Ylijoki, 2003b). Since it is the employees’ perceptions of managerialism that possibly affect their performances and attitudes, this chapter focuses on the perceptions of individuals regarding the level of managerialism in their faculty. The purpose of this study is to examine the possible existence of a managerialism contradiction by testing two lines of reasoning. In the first one, managerialism as perceived by university employees is suggested to have a direct effect on the quality of performances (‘direct effect argumentation’). The second line of reasoning assumes that managerialism as perceived by university employees has an indirect effect on the quality of job performances that is mediated by organisational commitment (‘indirect effect argumentation’). Also, most studies on the consequences of managerialism in universities are qualitative in character. We will conduct a quantitative empirical study of the issue, using data from a survey conducted among university employees from six European countries.

The chapter is organised as follows. In the following section (Section 6.2), a number of hypotheses will be formulated to test the possible existence of a managerialism contradiction. Then, the methods used for our empirical study will be discussed (Section 6.3), followed by the presentation of the analyses and findings (Section 6.4). The chapter closes with conclusions and discussion (Section 6.5).

## **6.2 HYPOTHESES**

In this section, we derive hypotheses from two lines of reasoning underlying a potential managerialism contradiction in contemporary European universities. The first hypothesis assumes that managerialism as perceived by university employees has a direct effect on quality of performances. This is what we call the ‘direct effect argumentation’. The second set of hypotheses assumes that managerialism as perceived by university employees has an indirect effect on the quality of job performances that is mediated by organisational commitment. This is what we call the ‘indirect effect argumentation’.

### **6.2.1 Direct effect argumentation**

This first line of reasoning assumes that managerialism as perceived by employees in universities impedes university employees from achieving a higher quality of job performances. For example, owing to the accountability aim (Chan, 2001), it has increasingly become necessary to report activities and progress. As a result of the development and expansion of these and other bureaucratic procedures, university employees are being urged to spend more time on such ‘secondary’ activities. This is time that they could otherwise have invested in doing research, writing articles, or improving teaching programmes. In addition, employees adapt their activities to “the simplifying tendencies of the quantification of outputs” (Trow, 1994a, p. 41; see also Noden & Nieminen, 1999), which may lead to lower-quality performances. To test this direct effect argumentation underlying a potential managerialism contradiction, we formulate the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis I:* Managerialism as perceived by university employees has a direct negative effect on the quality of their job performances.

### **6.2.2 Indirect effect argumentation**

An alternative line of reasoning underlying a potential managerialism contradiction suggests that organisational commitment acts as a mediator between the perceived level of managerialism and the quality of job performances. In this argumentation, rational-economic ‘managerial’ organisation values, including those emphasising budget transparency, administrative effectiveness, increased competition, output measurement, and financial reward (Stiles, 2004), are in conflict with ‘professional’ employee values that generally focus on individual autonomy, collegiality, and professionalism (Bryson, 2004). Because organisational commitment is only expected to occur when employee values match organisation values (Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Kanter, 1968), the adoption of private sector characteristics may lead to a loss of organisational commitment (Bryson, 2004; Chan, 2001; Trow, 1994b). Organisational commitment, in turn, is expected to be an important factor in stimulating high-quality performances (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Porter, 1985).

Organisational commitment is usually divided into three components or constructs, i.e., affective, continuance, and normative organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Each construct is differently affected by the perceived level of managerialism and differently related to the quality of job performance. Firstly, since it is argued that managerial values are in conflict with professional values (e.g., Bryson, 2004; Chan, 2001; Trow, 1994b), we expect that an increase of managerialism as perceived by university employees will result in a decrease of affective organisational commitment. After all, affective commitment covers the individual’s attachment to social relationships and to the organisation, and develops when an individual becomes involved in, recognises the value-relevance of, and/or derives his or her identity from the organisation. The effect of affective commitment on job performances is considered to be positive by most studies (e.g., Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Iles, Mabey, & Robertson, 1990; Meyer et al., 1989; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), albeit that some report a weak or statistically insignificant relationship (e.g., Keller, 1997).

Secondly, as a result of an increased use of performance measurement and performance-related pay, university employees are more conscious of how their performances are related to costs (e.g., leaving the organisation) and rewards (e.g., bonuses). We expect that they consequently become more calculating and increasingly develop stronger continuance commitment. This commitment involves social roles and positions from which individuals derive their perception of the costs associated with leaving the organisation and the rewards related to participation in the organisation. Earlier attempts at empirically tracing the link between continuance organisational commitment and the quality of job performances report statistically insignificant relationships (e.g., Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Mayer & Schoorman, 1992; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Somers & Birnbaum, 1998). These results are, however, not always supported by the work of others, who have found clear negative associations (e.g., Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 1989). They argue that employees with strong continuance commitment behave negatively in reaction to the 'no choice' situation (i.e., they have to stay with the organisation in any circumstances) (Meyer & Allen, 1997) or perform passively in reaction to the learned helplessness (Seligman, 1975) that is promoted by a strong continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Finally, similar to affective commitment, as a result of a value conflict we expect that the level of perceived managerialism negatively affects normative commitment. Because normative commitment concentrates on the internalisation of norms and values and on inner convictions, university employees may not be able to internalise the managerial norms and values and will consequently fail to develop a feeling of moral obligation to remain with the organisation. Furthermore, normative commitment appears to be either positively, negatively, or not related at all to job performance in some studies (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1996). Most of the studies, however, reveal a positive relationship with performance (e.g., Meyer et al., 2002), although often less strong than the relationship between affective commitment and performance (Marchiori & Henkin, 2004; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

In brief, the above indirect effect argumentation assumes that managerialism as perceived by employees negatively affects affective and normative commitment and positively affects continuance commitment. These commitment forms, in turn, have either a positive (affective and normative) or a nega-

tive (continuance) effect on the quality of job performances. To test the indirect effect argumentation, the following hypotheses are formulated:

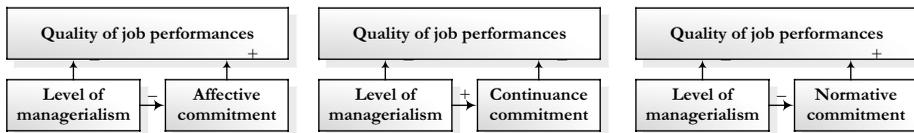
*Hypothesis IIa:* Managerialism as perceived by university employees has a negative effect on the quality of their job performances because it has a negative effect on affective organisational commitment, which in turn has a positive effect on quality of job performances.

*Hypothesis IIb:* Managerialism as perceived by university employees has a negative effect on the quality of their job performances because it has a positive effect on continuance organisational commitment, which in turn has a negative effect on quality of job performances.

*Hypothesis IIc:* Managerialism as perceived by university employees has a negative effect on the quality of their job performances because it has a negative effect on normative organisational commitment, which in turn has a positive effect on quality of job performances.

Accordingly, the postulated direct and indirect effect relationships between the level of managerialism as perceived by employees, the three commitment constructs, and the quality of performances are shown in Figure 6.1.

**Figure 6.1** *Hypothesised direct and indirect effects of managerialism on quality of performances*



As can be seen, the direct effect of managerialism on quality of performances and the indirect effects via the multiple commitment mediators are all assumed to be negative. Hence, taken as a whole, managerialism as perceived by employees is hypothesised to lead to a lower quality of job performances.

## **6.3 METHODS**

### **6.3.1 Data and sample**

The study draws on a Web survey conducted from November 2004 to January 2005 among European university employees associated with teaching, research and support. The employees were sampled from thirty-six faculties of eighteen universities (two faculties per university) equally divided across six European countries (Belgium, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United Kingdom). We chose these countries because they are expected to reflect different levels of managerialism (Bleiklie, 2001; Hood, 1995; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004), but at the same time are reasonably comparable in socio-economic terms. In addition, knowledge of the English language in these countries is generally sufficient to be able to fill in the questionnaire, which was designed in English. Within these countries we selected all universities that have both a business/economics faculty and a social sciences faculty or equivalents thereof. Similar to the selection of countries, we chose two gamma faculties because they are expected to reflect different levels of managerialism but are relatively similar otherwise. After all, levels of managerialism do not only differ among countries, but also within countries, within universities and even within faculties (Ball, 1990; Bleiklie, 2001; Hood, 1995; Podgórecki, 1997; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Shattock, 1999; Trowler, 1998). Subsequently, we randomly picked three universities (and consequently six faculties) per country, and searched for the email addresses of the employees of these selected faculties on the Internet.

We conducted the survey across the Internet as all university employees are generally provided with access to the Net. Although Web surveys are relatively new for data collection, several researchers have found support for use of this medium (e.g., Cobanoglu, Warde, & Moreo, 2001; Handwerk, Carson, & Blackwell, 2000; Sills & Song, 2002; Tomsic, Hendel, & Matross, 2000). After deletion of ineligible respondents, a sample size of 2,325 European university employees was obtained, implying a response of 28.9 per cent. The sample proportions with respect to sex, age and employment were similar to the population proportions. In other words, the sample did not differ significantly from the population with respect to these characteristics (Smeenk, Eisinga, Doorewaard, & Teelken, 2006).

### 6.3.2 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was structured to encourage the respondents to reflect on their past and present experiences in the faculty (see Appendix A). Following Swoboda, Mühlberger, Weikunat, and Schneeweiss (1997) we tried to keep the questionnaire as short and as simple as possible. The question about the number of academic activities (articles, books, presentations, etc.) the respondent had performed since January 1, 2002, was not relevant for support and administrative employees, or for student assistants. The position in the faculty was used as a filter. All other questions were formulated in such a way that they were relevant to all respondents. The questionnaire was pre-tested in the summer of 2004 through a pilot survey held in two Dutch faculties (a business/economics faculty and a social sciences faculty) of the same university (see Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2006d). The results of this pilot study led to some minor adaptations being made to the formulation and sequence of the questions.

### 6.3.3 Measurements

Standard and study-specific measures are provided for the level of managerialism, the three organisational commitment constructs, and the quality of job performances.

#### *Level of managerialism*

Hood (1995) argues that the managerial developments involve seven dimensions: extent of disaggregation (expansion of student numbers and diversification of study disciplines), competition between universities or faculties, use of management practices drawn from the private sector, stress on discipline and parsimony in resource use, move towards more hands-on management, move towards more explicit and measurable standards of performance, and attempts to control according to pre-set output measures. University employees were asked to indicate to what extent they perceive that these dimensions apply to their faculties (1 = does not apply at all, 5 = applies completely).

#### *Organisational commitment*

Partly based on Buchanan (1974) and Quinn and Staines (1979), Allen and Meyer (1990b) developed a twenty-four-item scale to measure affective, con-

tinuance, and normative organisational commitment. It consists of three subscales: the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS), and the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS). We also used these scales and tried to improve the scale items by reducing item ambiguity and deleting equivalent and irrelevant items, and used six items for each subscale. Responses were made on a five-point continuum (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree).

### *Quality of job performances*

Data on the quality of job performances were acquired using two measures. Firstly, we asked the respondents how they thought their colleagues would rate the quality of the respondents overall performances and, if applicable, the quality of their research, their teaching, and their management performances (ranging from bottom 10% to highest 10%). Secondly, the actual performances of the employees were measured by asking them to indicate how many articles they had published in refereed and non-refereed journals, how many chapters in edited volumes they had published, how many textbooks or other books they had disseminated, the number of research reports they had disseminated internally or to external clients, and the number of presentations they had held at conferences and workshops in the previous three years. The ratings on the items of this second measure were summed to generate a single composite score.

### **6.3.4 Common method variance**

To control for the potential effects of common method variance, which may emerge when the measures of different concepts share common methods (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), we applied different response formats for the measurement of the perceived level of managerialism (five-point Likert scale with 'don't know' option), organisational commitment (five-point Likert scale), and the quality of job performances (five-point scale with a 'not applicable' option and numerical entry). Moreover, on the basis of qualitative research into the formulation of the items and the pilot study, we improved scale items by reducing item ambiguity, social desirability, and demand characteristics, and we deleted equivalent and irrelevant items. Since we applied tested and widely used scales to measure most of the concepts, we

were cautious in altering the scale formats and scale values in order to preserve the original scale validities.

We conducted Harman's (1967) one-factor test as described by Podsakoff et al. (2003) to test for common method bias. The unrotated principal component factor analysis of all relevant variables resulted in twelve components, with the first component accounting for only 13.9 per cent of the variance. Hence, our findings are not greatly affected by the problem of common method variance.

### **6.3.5 Factor analysis**

For the purpose of data reduction, we conducted factor analysis using principal-axis extraction. On the basis of previous research (Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2006a; Meyer & Allen, 1997), we expected a six-factor solution: two factors representing the perceived level of managerialism, three factors representing organisational commitment, and one factor representing the quality of job performances. In addition, we deleted items with communalities less than .20 and items with equivalent loadings (of at least .25) on two or more factors. Table 6.1 summarises the results of the oblimin-rotated factor analysis of the variables used in our study.

The data in this table reveal that the perceived level of managerialism consists of two largely uncorrelated factors. Looking at the items that belong to each factor, we see that one factor is related to the adoption of private management and that the other is related to the expansion of university faculties. Therefore, we labelled these factors 'private management adoption' and 'faculty expansion', respectively. Further, organisational commitment consists of three factors (affective, continuance, and normative commitment) that are intercorrelated up to .29. These results support Allen and Meyer's (1990b) findings that affective, continuance, and normative commitment are both conceptually and empirically separable components of organisational commitment. Finally, the quality of job performances items appear to constitute a reliable factor.

**Table 6.1** *Factor analysis*

<i>Dimensions and scale items</i>	<i>b<sup>2</sup></i>	<i>Pattern matrix<sup>a</sup></i>					
		<i>I</i>	<i>II</i>	<i>III</i>	<i>IV</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>VI</i>
<b>Private management adoption (<math>\alpha = .54/.73^b</math>)</b>							
Explicit measuring standards are the largest part of the quality evaluation in the faculty	.27				.51		
In the faculty, the evaluation of teaching and research is mainly carried out with assessment criteria set by 'the managers', rather than by 'peers'	.32				.53		
The faculty has increasingly applied private sector management techniques, such as performance management and efficiency controlling	.41				.64		
<i>The faculty is under pressure to compete with similar faculties at other universities<sup>c</sup></i>	.				.		
<i>The faculty is under pressure to reduce expenditures</i>	.				.		
<i>The faculty's management is characterised by a control orientation rather than a developmental orientation</i>	.				.		
<b>Faculty expansion (<math>\alpha = .44/.70^b</math>)</b>							
The number of study disciplines in the faculty has increased since I started working here	.31						.52
The number of student enrolments to the faculty has increased since I started working here	.32						.57
<b>Affective organisational commitment (<math>\alpha = .83</math>)</b>							
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career at the faculty	.42	.57					
I enjoy discussing the faculty in a positive sense with people outside it	.57	.76					
I really feel as if the faculty's problems are my own	.46	.65					
I feel like 'part of the family' at the faculty	.67	.80					
The faculty has a great deal of personal meaning for me	.69	.81					
<i>I easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one (R)<sup>d</sup></i>	.	.					
<b>Normative organisational commitment (<math>\alpha = .64</math>)</b>							
Employees generally move from organisation to organisation too often	.40						-.64
I do not mind at all when employees jump from organisation to organisation (R)	.41						-.65
I believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation	.39						-.55
I think that wanting to be a 'company man/woman' is still sensible	.22						-.35
<i>If I got offered a job elsewhere I would feel uncomfortable leaving the faculty</i>	.						.
<i>Nowadays, things are better than in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers (R)</i>	.						.

**Table 6.1** *Factor analysis* (continued)

<b>Continuance organisational commitment (<math>\alpha = .77</math>)</b>							
I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up							
	I would be very hard for me to leave the faculty right now	.31				.56	
	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave the faculty now	.54				.69	
	I could leave the faculty at no cost now (R)	.56				.74	
	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving the faculty	.32				.55	
	I continue to work for the faculty as leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice	.39				.54	
		.44				.63	
<b>Quality of job performances (<math>\alpha = .70</math>)</b>							
	The overall quality of your performances	.97				.99	
	The quality of your research performances	.24				.46	
	The quality of your teaching performances	.31				.52	
	The quality of your management performances	.40				.54	
	<i>Composite quality score measured by activities</i>	.				.	
<b>Total explained variance: 43.0%</b>			15.6	11.3	6.2	4.8	3.7 2.5

<sup>a</sup> Roman numerals refer to the order in which the factors appeared in the oblique (oblimin) rotated solution with Kaiser normalisation and using principal-axis factoring. Factor loadings lower than .25 are not reported. Correlation between factors:

	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
I	1.00	.03	.20	-.04	-.29	.21
II		1.00	-.18	.05	-.15	-.03
III			1.00	-.04	.05	.17
IV				1.00	-.13	.05
V					1.00	-.09
VI						1.00

<sup>b</sup> As the original reliability is lower than the lower limit of acceptability (between .60 and .70 – Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998), we calculated the six-item reliability using the Spearman-Brown formula:  $r_{kk} = k * r_{\text{scs}} / (1 + [k-1] * r_{\text{scs}})$ , where  $r_{kk}$  is the reliability of the scale that has  $k$  times as many items as the original scale,  $r_{\text{scs}}$  is the reliability of the original scale, and  $k$  is the multiplier.

<sup>c</sup> Items in italics were excluded from the analysis because of low communality (< .20).

<sup>d</sup> Reversed items are indicated with (R).

## 6.4 RESULTS

To test the direct and indirect effects hypotheses formulated in the second section, we used the multiple mediator model as discussed by Preacher and Hayes (2006). All estimates presented below were controlled for country and faculty type, and for three personal variables (age, sex, and organisational tenure) that were shown to be important for university employees' organisational commitment in a previous study (see Smeenk et al., 2006a). Further, the variance inflation factor (VIF) values in all analyses ranged from 1.00 to 2.17, which is much lower than the recommended cut-off threshold of 10 (Hair et al., 1998). This indicates that there is no problem of

multicollinearity. The significant unstandardised regression coefficients, along with their standard errors (in parentheses), are presented in Table 6.2 ( $n = 1868$ ). Due to deletion of respondents with missing values, this number deviates from the original number of respondents (2,325). The complete table can be found in Appendix C.

**Table 6.2** Significant unstandardised direct, indirect (mediated by organisational commitment), and total effects of managerialism on the quality of job performances, standard errors in parentheses ( $n = 1868$ )

	AC <sup>a</sup>	CC <sup>a</sup>	NC <sup>a</sup>	Direct effect	Quality of job performances			Total indirect effect	Total effect
					AC	CC	NC		
<b>Managerialism</b>									
PMA <sup>b</sup>		.076 (.031)	.080 (.028)						
FE <sup>b</sup>	.128 (.035)		.089 (.031)	.118 (.037)	.029 (.009)			.026 (.010)	.144 (.038)
<b>Organisational commitment</b>									
AC				.224 (.025)					
CC				-.123 (.025)					
<b>(Adjusted) R<sup>2</sup></b>								.069 (.062)	

<sup>a</sup> AC = affective commitment, CC = continuance commitment, NC = normative commitment.

<sup>b</sup> PMA = private management adoption, FE = faculty expansion

<sup>c</sup> Coefficient is greater than two times the standard error. The program INDIRECT by Preacher and Hayes (2006) was used to assess the significance of the indirect effects. The standard errors of the indirect effects are obtained by bootstrapping using 5,000 bootstrap samples. The standard errors for the other effects are obtained by OLS. The parameters estimates are controlled for faculty type, age, sex, and organisational tenure.

The results in Table 6.2 are used to test the hypotheses concerning the direct and indirect lines of reasoning underlying a potential managerialism contradiction. According to the direct effect argumentation, managerialism as perceived by university employees has a direct negative effect on the quality of their job performances. The findings indicate that the private management part of managerialism has no significant direct effect on the quality of performances and that the direct effect of the faculty expansion factor is positive. Both results clearly refute *hypothesis I*.

The indirect effect argumentation maintains that the negative effect of managerialism on the quality of job performances is indirect and mediated by organisational commitment. Firstly, when we look at the influence of managerialism on affective commitment, we see that the effect of private management adoption is not significant and that the effect of faculty expansion is positive. When employees have higher levels of affective commitment, they deliver job performances of higher quality. However, the indirect effect of private management adoption on the quality of performances via affective commitment is statistically insignificant, and the indirect effect of faculty expansion via affective commitment is positive. Hence, these findings do not support *hypothesis IIIa*.

Secondly, continuance commitment increases when employees increasingly perceive use of performance management, efficiency controlling, and evaluation with explicit measuring standards set by 'the managers' (private management adoption). Faculty expansion has no significant effect on the level of continuance commitment. Employees' continuance commitment, in turn, is negatively related to quality of performances. Moreover, while the indirect effect of faculty expansion on the quality of job performances via continuance commitment is not significant, the indirect effect of private management adoption is negative. Hence, the findings corroborate *hypothesis IIIb*, but only as far as the private management aspect of managerialism is concerned.

Thirdly, university employees feel an increased moral obligation to remain with the faculty (normative commitment) when they experience higher levels of private management adoption and faculty expansion. Normative commitment, in turn, has no significant effect on the quality of performances. As a result, the indirect effects of both private management adoption and faculty expansion on the quality of job performances via normative commitment are not significant. These results fail to confirm *hypothesis IIIc*.

Finally, when we look at the total indirect effects of the organisational commitment constructs, we see that private management adoption has no significant total indirect effect on the quality of job performances, whereas the total indirect effect of faculty expansion is positive. The total (direct and indirect) effects of the managerialism factors indicate that private management

adoption has no effect on the quality of job performances and that the overall effect of faculty expansion is positive.

## **6.5 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION**

In this chapter, two lines of reasoning (the direct and the indirect effect argumentation) that possibly explain a managerialism contradiction in contemporary universities were tested. The results of our study indicate that the private management factor of managerialism has no direct effect on the quality of job performances. There is a weak negative indirect effect via continuance commitment, but this effect is cancelled out by other indirect effects, resulting in a statistically insignificant total indirect effect. With regard to the faculty expansion factor of managerialism, it appears that this factor has a positive direct effect on the quality of performances. Also, faculty expansion additionally affects job performances indirectly via organisational commitment in general and affective commitment in particular. In this study, evidence for a managerialism contradiction is thus largely absent among European university employees. Such contradiction is, if at all present, constrained to a small negative effect of managerialism on performance via continuance organisational commitment. By and large, managerialism does not seem to work against its own intentions. To the contrary, as evidenced by the effect of faculty expansion, it is more likely to promote the quality of job performances.

In addition to the effects examined above, it may be that managerialism itself affects the influence of organisational commitment on the quality of job performances. In other words, university employees may be as committed as they were under a managerial regime but the effect of this commitment has changed as a result of increased managerialism. We were not able to find studies that indicated this moderating relationship. Moreover, when we tested this possibility, the results indicated that there is no moderating effect of managerialism on the relationship between organisational commitment and the quality of job performances at all. We therefore did not include this line of reasoning as a possible argumentation underlying a managerialism contradiction.

We can think of three perspectives that may provide an explanation for the absence of a managerialism contradiction. The first perspective is that

there is no conflict at all. It may be that professional employee values can co-exist with managerial values. This idea is supported by research of others. For example, Becher and Kogan (1992) argue that “management values in higher education are not intrinsically hostile to professional values” (p. 179). Gewirtz, Ball, and Bowe (1995) suggest that professional values have not entirely disappeared but that some employees switch between two sets of values according to the context, although accepting the new emphasis on markets and competition is often difficult for them.

The second perspective suggests that universities retain their character by adapting the managerialism ideology and values (e.g., Deem & Brehony, 2005). In terms of *Translation Theory*, which is based on Callon/Latour’s Actor-network Theory, a ‘translation’ takes place: “all actors discuss, interpret, modify, and alter the core ideas of the new management fashion” (Doorewaard & Van Bijsterveld, 2001, p. 60; see also Callon, 1986; Latour, 1986). Prichard and Willmott (1997) support this idea by suggesting that “localised practices and existing discursive regimes have a strong mediating effect on the reception and articulation of ‘management disciplines’” (p. 311). Christensen and Lægveid (1999) argue that managerial features are filtered, interpreted, and adjusted in accordance with national and institutional cultures, traditions, and contexts.

The third perspective assumes that universities, which tend to be deeply conservative when it comes to organisational change (Dearlove, 1998), are in a period of transition. A possible conflict between the professional and the managerial may merely be the expression of transitional problems (De Boer, Goedegebuure, & Meek, 1998), which will slowly fade away over the years. This idea is supported by the suggestion of Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzmann, Scott, and Trow (1994) that universities are moving from one stage of academic governance to another.

A practical implication that results from our findings is that practitioners in the field of university HRM should try to affect organisational commitment in order to increase university employees’ quality of job performances. After all, our study demonstrates that if a managerialism contradiction exists, particularly continuance organisational commitment mediates the relationship between managerialism and quality of job performances.

Our research has some limitations that must be considered when evaluating the study's findings. A first limitation concerns the instrument and method used for collecting the commitment data. The instrument is an attitudinal survey and therefore based on the individual respondent's emotional state at the time of responding. Secondly, as the complex nature of quality of performances cannot be captured in its totality by personal impressions and counting publications, we are thoroughly conscious that this study only gives a quantitative insight into the relationships between managerialism, organisational commitment, and quality of job performances. The results give rise to further elaboration of the existence of a managerialism contradiction. Special attention should be paid to factors that possibly affect the relationships between the core concepts in the managerialism contradiction, such as organisational size, the financial situation of the institution, or satisfaction with university or faculty management.



## **CHAPTER 7**

### *General conclusions and discussion*

## 7.1 INTRODUCTION

To face societal developments and changing demands for efficient and effective quality improvement, universities have adopted to various extents organisation characteristics that are commonly known in private sector organisations. This trend is known as *managerialism*. The ‘managerial’ values that accompany this concept seem to mismatch the dominant ‘professional’ values of university employees. This conflict may result in lower organisational commitment and lower quality of job performances. Hence, managerialism constitutes both a major stimulus (through reforms) and a major obstacle (through lower organisational commitment among employees) for quality improvement. This situation is what in this study is called a *managerialism contradiction*.

To solve, or at least to reduce, such a managerialism contradiction, increasing university employees’ organisational commitment and the quality of their job performances appears a suitable option. Therefore, it is necessary to know which factors affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees. In this study, human resource management (HRM) practices and antecedents have been discerned as factors that potentially affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances. Furthermore, since levels of managerialism differ among countries, universities, faculties, and even in the perceptions of individual employees, it is also necessary to know the differences and similarities regarding the effects of HRM practices and antecedents between countries, universities, or faculties with different levels of managerialism. This study focuses on faculties with low, middle, and high levels of managerialism. Accordingly, the purpose of this study is to examine which HRM practices and which antecedents affect university employees’ organisational commitment and the quality of their job performances in faculties that are characterised by low, middle, and high levels of managerialism.

This dissertation has been written as a collection of five papers represented in Chapters 2 to 6. Chapters 2 to 5 address the research purpose. Chapter 2 presents a conceptual model for the study, while Chapters 3, 4, and 5 focus on specific parts of this conceptual model. Finally, Chapter 6 explores the existence of a managerialism contradiction by examining the relationships

between the level of managerialism, organisational commitment, and quality of job performances.

In this final chapter, the conclusions from Chapters 3, 4, and 5 will be combined, based on the conceptual model in Chapter 2, in order to constitute a complete picture of HRM practices and antecedents that affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism (Section 7.2). Furthermore, the results of the exploration of the relationships between the level of managerialism, organisational commitment, and quality of job performances, as reported in Chapter 6, will be discussed in relation to the research into the factors affecting employees' organisational commitment and quality of job performances in faculties with different levels of managerialism (Section 7.3). Then, the scientific and practical implications of this study will be discussed (Section 7.4). In the final section (Section 7.5), the major conceptual/theoretical and methodological limitations of the study will be considered, accompanied by perspectives for future research.

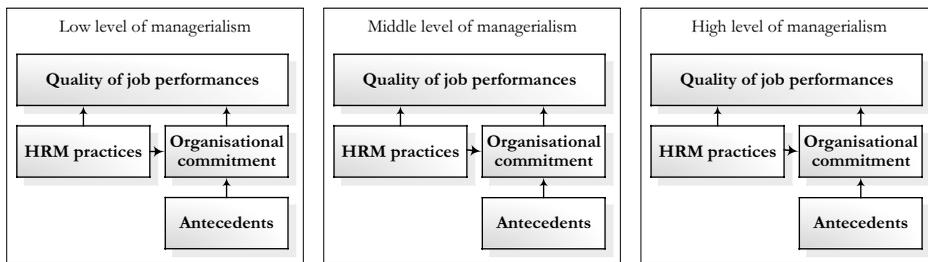
## **7.2 ADDRESSING THE RESEARCH PURPOSE**

In Chapter 2, a conceptual model for this research was developed on the basis of a Resource-based View on HRM, in which HRM practices bring about HRM outcomes, such as organisational commitment and quality of job performances (e.g., Beer, Eisenstat, & Biggadike, 1995; Doorewaard & Meihuizen, 2000; Flood, Gannon, & Paauwe, 1995; Guest, 1997; Paauwe, 1994). Since several authors (e.g., Carr, 2001; Downing, 1997; Watson, 2002) strongly criticise a Resource-based line of reasoning in the field of HRM for its utilitarian and formal/technical assumptions, it is, however, suggested that there are other factors, apart from HRM practices, that potentially influence the organisational commitment of the employees (Lee, 1971; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Steers, 1977). These factors are referred to as antecedents.

Since the levels of managerialism differ among countries (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004), universities (Ball, 1990; Shattock, 1999), faculties (Chan, 2001; Trowler, 1998), and even in the perceptions of individual employees (Davies, in press; Ylijoki, 2003b), the effects of HRM practices and antec-

dents on organisational commitment and quality of job performances may differ among and within countries, universities, and faculties. In this study, the HRM practices, antecedents, organisational commitment, quality of job performances, and their relationships are placed within faculties that are characterised by different levels of managerialism. In other words, the study focuses on the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism. The conceptual model of the study is depicted in Figure 7.1.

**Figure 7.1** *Conceptual model of the study as presented in Chapter 2*



Chapters 3, 4, and 5 address the research purpose by studying parts of this conceptual model. Chapter 3 examines which HRM practices and which antecedents affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances, Chapter 4 focuses on the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment, and Chapter 5 concentrates on the effects of HRM practices on quality of job performances and the effects of these practices on quality of job performances via organisational commitment.

To constitute a complete picture of HRM practices and antecedents that affect organisational commitment and quality of job performances of employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism, the results from Chapters 3, 4, and 5 will be tied together. However, interpretations and conclusions will be drawn cautiously since the three chapters differ with regard to the determination of the faculties' levels of managerialism and the population examined. Regarding the determination of the faculties' levels of managerial-

ism, in Chapter 3, two faculties were characterised based on the employees' perceptions of the level of managerialism in the faculty they work. The employees in one of the faculties generally perceive their faculty as low-managerialism, whereas the employees in the other faculty generally perceive their faculty as high-managerialism. In Chapter 4, two employee groups were created based on the employees' perceptions of the levels of managerialism of the faculties in which they are employed. The low-managerialism group contains all the employees who perceive their faculties as having low levels of managerialism, whereas the high-managerialism group contains all employees who perceive their faculties as having high levels of managerialism. In Chapter 5, the faculties' levels of managerialism were based on country levels of managerialism as they are known in literature. Since Belgium and Germany represent countries with a low level of managerialism (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000, 2004), all Belgian and German faculties are considered as low-managerialism faculties. Likewise, since Finland and Sweden represent countries with a middle level of managerialism (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000, 2004), all Finnish and Swedish faculties are considered as middle-managerialism faculties. Finally, since the Netherlands and the United Kingdom represent countries with a high level of managerialism (De Boer, Enders, & Leisyte, 2006; Jongbloed, Salerno, Huisman, & Vossensteyn, 2005; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000, 2004; Ter Bogt, 2006; Van Gestel & Teelken, 2006), all Dutch and British faculties are considered as high-managerialism faculties.

With regard to the population examined, in Chapter 3 the data of 136 respondents from two Dutch faculties of the same university were used (see Smeenk, Eisinga, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2006d). In contrast, the analyses in Chapters 4 and 5 were based on data of 2,325 respondents from thirty-six faculties of eighteen universities (two faculties per university) equally divided across six European countries, i.e., Belgium, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United Kingdom (see Smeenk, Eisinga, Doorewaard, & Teelken, 2006; Smeenk, Van Selm, & Eisinga, 2005).

In the remainder of this section, the various relationships in the conceptual model are discussed separately, involving the results and conclusions from the relevant chapters.

### 7.2.1 Effects of HRM practices on organisational commitment

Chapters 3, 4, and 5 all report on the effects of HRM practices on organisational commitment. Table 7.1 summarises the effects of the HRM practices that have significant effects in at least two of these chapters.

**Table 7.1** *Effects of HRM practices on organisational commitment*

HRM practices	Chapter 3			Chapter 4			Chapter 5		
	LOM <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>b</sup>	OCC <sup>c</sup>	LOM	R	OCC	LOM	R	OCC
Compensation							Low Middle	+	CC AC/NC
Participation	Low	-	CC	High	+	CC			
Training/developm.	High Low	+	AC AC	High	-	CC	Middle High	-	AC/NC AC
Employment security				Low	+	AC	Middle Low	-	CC AC
Social interactions	Low High	+	AC AC/CC/NC	Low High	+	AC/NC AC/NC			
Communication	Low	+	NC	High	+	AC			
Contacts							Low Middle High	+	AC/NC AC/NC AC/NC
Performance appraisal							Low Middle High	-	CC AC AC
				High	+	AC	High	+	AC

<sup>a</sup> LOM = level of managerialism, which may be low, middle, or high.

<sup>b</sup> R = relationship, which may be significantly positive (+) or significantly negative (-).

<sup>c</sup> OCC = organisational commitment construct, which may be affective (AC), continuance (CC), or normative (NC).

As can be seen in Table 7.1, at face value our results seem to confirm the suggestion that HRM practices affect organisational commitment (e.g., Beer et al., 1995; Buck & Watson, 2002; Doorewaard & Meihuizen, 2000; Flood et al., 1995; Guest, 1997; Paauwe, 1994). In addition, the influences of HRM practices largely differ between the affective, continuance, and normative constructs of organisational commitment. Of these constructs, affective commitment, which is the most desirable form of commitment from the organisation's point of view (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), is mostly fostered. This finding is in line with other studies that found stronger relationships between HRM practices and affective commitment than between HRM practices and

either continuance or normative commitment (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnysky, 2002).

Regarding the comparison of the effects of HRM practices on organisational commitment across the three chapters, some noteworthy patterns can be discerned. First of all, despite the differences in the determination of the faculties' levels of managerialism and the population examined, the study reveals that the HRM practices of social interactions and communications (which are covered by 'contacts' in Chapter 5) have consistently positive effects on organisational commitment in both low-, middle-, and high-managerialism faculties. Other researchers also found positive effects of social interactions (e.g., Wallace, 1995a, 1995b) and communication (e.g., Galunic & Anderson, 2000). This finding implies that collegiality and social contacts are core aspects of a university, whatever its level of managerialism. In addition, it largely rejects Lucy Kellaway's (2006) suggestion that academics make employees from hell since they are not team players, have spectacularly low levels of emotional intelligence, and often stick to insecurity, pettiness, and bitchiness. Likewise, compensation seems to be positively related to organisational commitment in faculties with different levels of managerialism. The results are, however, less consistent across the chapters and the differences are likely to be caused by differences in determining the levels of managerialism.

In addition, participation appears to be negatively related to organisational commitment in high-managerialism faculties, although it concerns the continuance commitment construct in Chapter 4 and the affective construct in Chapter 5. This result differs from the findings as reported in Chapter 3, in which a positive effect on affective commitment is found. Again, this discrepancy may be explained by the differences in the determination of the faculties' levels of managerialism and the population examined. The negative effects of participation in Chapters 4 and 5 also contradict previous findings (e.g., Mayer & Schoorman, 1998; Wallace, 1995a). However, since high-managerialism faculties often apply top-down approaches of policy- and decision making, it may be that a high level of participation in such organisations leads to frustrations and, consequently, lower levels of organisational commitment. Besides, it may be that university employees prefer to determine themselves their daily work rather than only having a say in decisions that affect their work. This

preference is in line with the long-established values of academic freedom and autonomy.

Furthermore, in the chapters that used the same dataset but applied different ways of determining the faculties' levels of managerialism (i.e., Chapters 4 and 5), employment security and performance appraisal (as tending to a developmental style) are consistently positively related to affective commitment, although the effect of employment security occurs particularly among employees in low-managerialism faculties, whereas the effect of performance appraisal is apparent among employees in high-managerialism faculties. Both results are consistent with previous findings on the effects of employment security (e.g., Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996) and performance appraisal (e.g., Slocombe & Bluedorn, 1999).

The finding that social interactions and communication have consistently similar effects across faculties with different levels of managerialism supports the *best practice approach* (e.g., Huselid, 1995; Ichniowski & Shaw, 1999; Pfeffer, 1994), also labelled the *universalistic mode* (Delery & Doty, 1996). This approach argues that "some HRM practices are always better than others and that all organizations should adopt these best practices" (Delery & Doty, 1996, p. 803) and neglects differences in culture and institutional settings (Boselie, Paauwe, & Jansen, 2001). In contrast, the finding that participation, employment security, and performance appraisal have effects among employees in faculties with specific levels of managerialism allies to the *bundles fit* of Guest (1997) and the *configurational approach* as proposed by Delery and Doty (1996). Both perspectives argue that in order to achieve superior performance, different bundles or configurations of HRM practices are suited for organisations with different organisational characteristics, such as the level of managerialism.

### **7.2.2 Effects of antecedents on organisational commitment**

Chapters 3 and 4 report on the effects of antecedents on university employees' organisational commitment. The effects of the antecedents that have significant effects in the two chapters are summarised in Table 7.2.

**Table 7.2** *Effects of antecedents on organisational commitment*

	Chapter 3			Chapter 4		
	LOM <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>b</sup>	OCC <sup>c</sup>	LOM	R	OCC
<b>Antecedents</b>						
Age	High	+	AC	High	+	AC/NC
Organisational tenure	High	+	NC	High	+	CC
Role ambiguity	Low	+	CC	Low	-	AC/NC
Level of autonomy	High	-	CC/NC	Low	-	CC
Personal importance				Low	+	AC
	High	+	AC	High	+	AC

<sup>a</sup> LOM = level of managerialism, which may be low, middle, or high.  
<sup>b</sup> R = relationship, which may be significantly positive (+) or significantly negative (-).  
<sup>c</sup> OCC = organisational commitment construct, which may be affective (AC), continuance (CC), or normative (NC).

Although Chapters 3 and 4 used different datasets and applied different ways of determining the faculties' levels of managerialism, the figures in Table 7.2 demonstrate that age, organisational tenure, and personal importance are consistently positively related to organisational commitment, particularly among employees in high-managerialism faculties. These results confirm previous findings (e.g., Cohen, 1999; Knoke, 1988). A possible explanation for the occurrence of the effects particularly in high-managerialism faculties is that a high level of managerialism may induce clarity and security, for instance through recording appointments and contracts or through applying clear rules and regulations. The clarity and security may lead to higher organisational commitment especially among older employees, who also frequently keep longer organisational tenures. Additionally, it may be that the increasing use of performance measurements in high-managerialism faculties allows the employees to realise what their personal importance to the organisation is, which in turn leads to higher levels of organisational commitment.

Furthermore, role ambiguity seems to have an effect on the organisational commitment of employees in low-managerialism faculties only, although the effect is positive in Chapter 3 and negative in Chapter 4. The latter result confirms previous findings (e.g., Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Mayer & Schoorman, 1998). The discrepancy between the results of the two chapters may be explained by differences in datasets used.

Finally, level of autonomy is consistently negatively related to organisational commitment among employees in both low- and high-managerialism faculties. Although the level of autonomy is generally found to positively af-

fect organisational commitment, especially among highly educated professionals (e.g., Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Igbaria & Wormley, 1992; Wallace, 1995b), this finding seems to support the research of Boselie, Paauwe, and Richardson (2003). In this study, the employee need for a certain degree of freedom, as this is assumed by the 'high performance' paradigm, is questioned.

### 7.2.3 Effects of HRM practices on quality of job performances

In Chapters 3 and 5, the effects of HRM practices on quality of job performances were examined. Table 7.3 demonstrates the effects of the HRM practices that were significantly related to quality of job performances in the two chapters.

**Table 7.3** *Effects of HRM practices on quality of job performances*

HRM practices	Chapter 3			Chapter 4		
	LOM <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>b</sup>	Via OC <sup>c</sup>	LOM	R	Via OC
Decentralisation	High	-	Not applicable	Middle	+	Yes
Compensation				High	+	No
				Low	-	No
Training/development				High	-	No
Employment security				Low	-	No
Contacts				Middle	+	Yes
				Low	+	No
				Middle	+	Yes
Management style				High	+	Yes
				Middle	+	Yes
				High	+	Yes
Performance appraisal				Middle	+	Yes

<sup>a</sup> LOM = level of managerialism, which may be low, middle, or high.  
<sup>b</sup> R = relationship, which may be significantly positive (+) or significantly negative (-).  
<sup>c</sup> Via OCC = via organisational commitment, which indicates whether the relationship between an HRM practice and quality of job performances is mediated by organisational commitment (yes) or not (no).

Comparing the results of Chapters 3 and 5 reveals that with the exception of decentralisation, none of the HRM practices have effects in the two chapters. However, this practice has a negative effect in Chapter 3, which challenges the positive effect of the same practice in Chapter 5. The absence of consistent results on the effects of HRM practices on the quality of job performances across the two chapters feeds the debate on the relationship between HRM

practices and quality of performances. In this debate, some researchers argue that the relationship between HRM practices and performances is often statistically weak and that the results are ambiguous (e.g., Paauwe & Boselie, 2005), whereas others demonstrate that HRM practices do have an effect on the quality of job performances (e.g., Huselid, 1995; Marchington & Zagelmeyer, 2005; Paauwe & Richardson, 1997; Wright, Gardner, Moynihan, & Allen, 2005). In addition, some studies stress the importance of the 'black box', which contains behaviours that fall between HRM practice and the quality of job performances (Guest, 1998; Purcell, Kinnie, Hutchinson, Rayton, & Swart, 2003), whereas others are merely concerned with the relationships between HRM practices and the quality of job performances without focusing on the black box (e.g., Huselid, 1995; Marchington & Zagelmeyer, 2005; Wright et al., 2005).

Related to the discussion on the black box, in which organisational commitment is argued to be included (e.g., Benckhoff, 1997; Boselie et al., 2001; Buck & Watson, 2002; Paauwe & Boselie, 2005; Randall, 1990), this study demonstrates that in low-managerialism faculties the effects of HRM practices are predominantly direct (or at least not mediated by organisational commitment), in middle-managerialism faculties the effects are all mediated by organisational commitment (mainly the affective construct), and in high-managerialism faculties the HRM practices have both direct and indirect effects. The results in low-managerialism faculties refute theories that claim that the effects of HRM practices on job performances are mediated by organisational commitment (e.g., Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills, & Walton, 1984), whereas the results for the middle-managerialism faculties are supportive of such theories.

#### **7.2.4 Effects of organisational commitment on quality of job performances**

The effects of organisational commitment on the quality of job performances were examined in Chapters 3 and 5. The effects of the organisational commitment constructs that were significant in the two chapters are shown in Table 7.4.

**Table 7.4** *Effects of organisational commitment on quality of job performances*

	<i>Chapter 3</i>		<i>Chapter 5</i>	
	LOM <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>b</sup>	LOM	R
<b>Organisational commitment</b>				
Affective			Middle	+
			High	+
Continuance			Middle	-
	High	-	High	-

<sup>a</sup> LOM = level of managerialism, which may be low, middle, or high.  
<sup>b</sup> R = relationship, which may be significantly positive (+) or significantly negative (-).

The figures in Table 7.4 indicate that continuance commitment has consistently negative effects on the quality of job performances among employees in high-managerialism faculties. This finding supports existing theories on the negative effect of continuance commitment (e.g., Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989). Although not consistent across the chapters, the figures on affective commitment seem to support the positive effect of affective commitment on the quality of job performances as found by others (e.g., Iles, Mabey, & Robertson, 1990; Meyer et al., 1989; Meyer et al., 2002). Finally, the absence of significant effects of normative commitment is in line with previous findings of statistically insignificant effects of this construct (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1996).

### 7.3 EXPLORING THE MANAGERIALISM CONTRADICTION

On the basis of a vast amount of theoretical and empirical research (e.g., Bryson, 2004; Chandler, Barry, & Clark, 2001; Davies & Thomas, 2002; Thornhill, Lewis, & Saunders, 1996; Trow, 1994a), in this study the existence of a managerialism contradiction has been assumed. As noted, there are also some studies in which it is suggested that “‘some dose’ of ‘managerialism’ in the right proportion and in the right context” may be useful in universities and that it positively affects the quality of job performances (Chan, 2001, p. 109; see also Research Assessment Exercise, 2001). In other words, they argue that a managerialism contradiction does not necessarily exist.

In Chapter 6, two lines of reasoning underlying a managerialism contradiction were tested. The first one assumes that managerialism has a direct

effect on the quality of performances. In the second line of reasoning, managerialism is suggested to have an indirect effect on the quality of job performances via organisational commitment. The results of testing the two lines of reasoning indicate that evidence for a managerialism contradiction is largely absent among European university employees. If it is present, it is constrained to a small negative effect of managerialism on the quality of job performances via the continuance construct of organisational commitment. In other cases, managerialism is even more likely to promote the quality of job performances.

Three perspectives provide possible explanations for the absence of a managerialism contradiction. The first perspective advocates that managerial values possibly co-exist with professional values (e.g., Becher & Kogan, 1992; Gewirtz, Ball, & Bowe, 1995). The second perspective suggests that managerial values may be adapted to the national and institutional cultures, traditions, and contexts (e.g., Christensen & Lægheid, 1999; Deem & Brehony, 2005; Prichard & Willmott, 1997). The third perspective assumes that the conflict between managerial and professional values could merely be the expression of transitional problems (e.g., De Boer, Goedegebuure, & Meek, 1998; Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzmann, Scott, & Trow, 1994).

Although the results and conclusions as reported in Chapter 6 seem to point to a limited relevance of research that contributes to solving or reducing a managerialism contradiction, it should be noted that the exploration of the existence of a managerialism contradiction uses data that have been collected particularly for research into the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism. Therefore, interpretations and conclusions on the existence of a managerialism contradiction should be drawn very cautiously. After all, it may be that measuring a managerialism contradiction involves factors that have not been measured in the research into factors affecting organisational commitment and quality of job performances of university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism. Organisational size, the financial situation of the institution, and satisfaction with university or faculty management are examples of such factors.

Additionally, the arguments of co-existence (e.g., Becher & Kogan, 1992; Gewirtz et al., 1995), adaptation (e.g., Christensen & Lægheid, 1999;

Deem & Brehony, 2005; Prichard & Willmott, 1997), and transition (e.g., De Boer et al., 1998; Gibbons et al., 1994) are conceptual in nature and have not been tested empirically. Since other studies on the effects of managerialism do provide empirical evidence for a managerialism contradiction (e.g., Chandler et al., 2001; Thornhill et al., 1996), it is reasonable to make assumptions on the basis of this empirical evidence, as has been done in this study, rather than pursuing and elaborating on conceptual considerations. In addition, although the argument of transition (e.g., De Boer et al., 1998; Gibbons et al., 1994) implies that the sampled individuals in this study perceive that the period of transition has been successfully concluded in their faculties, at the same time it acknowledges that a conflict between managerial and professional values does exist. Therefore, it may be that countries, universities, faculties, and individual employees other than the sampled ones are still in, or experience, a transition period and, consequently, experience a managerialism contradiction.

#### **7.4 IMPLICATIONS**

The findings in this study have implications for both theory and practice. Since none of the studies on the effects of HRM practices and/or antecedents on organisational commitment and/or quality of performances (e.g., Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Buck & Watson, 2002; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Galunic & Anderson, 2000; Hall et al., 1970; Lee, 1971; Mayer & Schoorman, 1998; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch 2001; Meyer et al., 2002; Randall, 1990; Slocombe & Bluedorn, 1999; Somers & Birnbaum, 1998; Steers, 1977; Timmerhuis, 1997; Wiener, 1982) concentrated particularly on university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism, this study considerably contributes to theories of the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment and the quality of job performances.

Some of the study's findings replicate, while others contest relationships that have been found previously in other branches or organisations. For instance, a vast amount of studies demonstrate clear positive effects of the HRM practices of employment security (e.g., Ashford et al., 1989; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996) and social interactions (e.g., Wallace, 1995a, 1995b). Others stress the importance of age (e.g., Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Mayer &

Schoorman, 1998; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992), organisational tenure (e.g., Gregersen & Black, 1992; Taylor, Audia, & Gupta, 1996; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998), and personal importance (Buchanan, 1974; Hall et al., 1970) for organisational commitment. The results in this study support and add to these and other studies' findings by presenting positive effects of employment security, social interactions, age, organisational tenure, and personal importance of university employees in faculties with specific levels of managerialism.

In contrast, although participation is generally argued to be a powerful tool for enhancing organisational commitment (e.g., Mayer & Schoorman, 1998; Wallace, 1995a), this study demonstrates that participation mainly negatively affects organisational commitment. In addition, the level of autonomy is generally found to positively affect organisational commitment, especially among highly educated professionals (e.g., Hall et al., 1970; Igbaria & Wormley, 1992; Wallace, 1995b). Although university employees may also generally be considered to be highly educated professionals, a higher level of autonomy unexpectedly results in lower levels of continuance and normative commitment among employees in both low- and high-managerialism faculties.

With regard to the practical contribution, this study demonstrates that practitioners in the field of university HRM should be cautious in applying 'generally approved' HRM practices. The implementation of an HRM programme does not automatically lead to higher levels of organisational commitment and better performances (Beardwell & Holden, 2001; Goss, 1994). Although some HRM practices (e.g., social interactions and communications) seem to positively affect organisational commitment among university employees, other HRM practices have effects among university employees that differ from what is generally expected. For instance, an HRM strategy focused on participation may be suitable for increasing organisational commitment among, for instance, financial service workers, but may be detrimental to the organisational commitment in university faculties. In addition, the effects of HRM practices may differ between faculties with different levels of managerialism and between organisational commitment constructs. For example, according to the results as reported in Chapter 5, developmental performance appraisal is positively related to affective commitment in middle- and high-managerialism faculties, but is negatively related to continuance commitment in low-managerialism faculties.

## 7.5 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Although conducting research is always aimed at finding an answer to a specific question, it usually leads to new questions, either within or beyond the research context. This research is no exception. In this section, the major theoretical/conceptual and methodological limitations will be discussed, which in turn give rise to further research.

### 7.5.1 Theoretical/conceptual issues

This study focused on the effects of nine HRM practices and three antecedent categories on affective, continuance, and normative organisational commitment, and on the quality of job performances of university employees in faculties with different levels of managerialism. The main advantage of the large number of variables in this research is that a relatively complete picture of effects emerges. Although the study already contains a broad range of factors affecting organisational commitment and the quality of performances, previous research examined the effects of many other factors such as task scope (e.g., Hall & Schneider, 1972), responsibility (e.g., Buchanan, 1974), confirmed expectations (e.g., Guest, 1992), organisational climate (e.g., DeCotiis & Summers, 1987), feedback (e.g., Steers, 1977), size of the organisation (e.g., Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978), and organisational dependability (e.g., Steers, 1977). Future research should examine whether and how these factors are related to employees' organisational commitment and quality of job performances in faculties with different levels of managerialism.

The other side of the coin of the broad focus of this study is that the results may remain to some extent superficial and inconclusive. On the one hand, the results provide some clear indications about which HRM practices and antecedents affect university employees' organisational commitment and the quality of their job performances in faculties with specific levels of managerialism. For instance, the HRM practices of participation, employment security, social interactions, communications, and performance appraisal, and the antecedents age, organisational tenure, and personal importance appear of significant importance throughout at least two of the relevant empirical chapters in this study (i.e., Chapters 3, 4, and 5). On the other hand, a definite picture or unambiguous conclusions for the other HRM practices and antec-

dents do not emerge. Further research should focus on these HRM practices and/or antecedents, for instance by using more items to measure the relevant concepts, or applying other research techniques, in order to obtain a complete representation of the factors affecting organisational commitment and the quality of job performances.

Furthermore, the levels of managerialism were measured differently across the chapters. In Chapter 3, two faculties were characterised based on the employees' perceptions of the level of managerialism in the faculty where they work. In Chapter 4, two employee groups were created based on the employees' perceptions of the levels of managerialism of the faculties in which they are employed. In Chapter 5, the faculties' levels of managerialism were based on country levels of managerialism as they are known in literature. As a result of these differences in measuring the level of managerialism, a low level of managerialism in one chapter is not the same low level of managerialism in the other two chapters. Further research could use the same measurements for level of managerialism across different analyses.

In addition, in this research the importance of organisational commitment is clearly expressed since it is argued that affecting organisational commitment, in addition to affecting the quality of job performances, may contribute to solving or reducing a managerialism contradiction. However, it may be that other variables, such as satisfaction or motivation (Paauwe & Richardson, 1997), mediate the relationships between HRM practices, antecedents, and the quality of job performances. In addition, organisational commitment is considered and measured as commitment to the faculty in which a respondent is employed. Since university employees may also feel committed to, for instance, their department or research group, it would be interesting to investigate the effects of various factors on commitment to the department or to the research group. Besides, university employees are often characterised as employees with dual commitments (Hall & Schneider, 1972): commitment to certain professional values of the work (professional commitment) and commitment to the organisation (organisational commitment). Future research could focus on the differences and similarities with regard to the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on professional and organisational commitment.

Finally, the discrepancy between this study's assumption of a managerialism contradiction and the explorative results as found in Chapter 6, which point out the absence of a managerialism contradiction, give rise to further elaboration of the existence of a managerialism contradiction. Special attention could be paid to factors that possibly affect the relationships between the core concepts in the managerialism contradiction, such as organisational size, the financial situation of the institution, or satisfaction with university or faculty management.

### **7.5.2 Methodological issues**

A first methodological limitation to be mentioned is that this study is cross-sectional in nature. As a consequence, the causality in the relationships between HRM practices, antecedents, organisational commitment, and the quality of job performances is in question. Furthermore, although the sample data appeared to be generally representative for the population with regard to sex and position structures (Smeenk et al., 2006), they may be subject to bias. Firstly, the major reason for employing the Internet in the research was that it is a suitable tool for reaching a population of university staff. After all, the population is distributed across a relatively large geographic region, but is generally provided with access to the Internet. The method of a Web-based survey, however, may have attracted respondents who are familiar with computers but kept away those who are not. Secondly, because the respondents in the six countries were expected to have enough command of the English language to understand the questionnaire, questionnaires in the languages of the sample countries have not been constructed. Instead, an English version was used in all countries. A possible consequence is that some answers from employees who did not understand the English language sufficiently have been missed. However, this may have been partly compensated by the answers of foreign employees who do not speak or understand sufficiently the language of the country where they work but do speak and understand the English language.

Another limitation concerns the measurement of the items. Firstly, since Sheehan and McMillan (1999) and Swoboda, Mühlberger, Weikunat, and Schneeweiss (1997) suggest that the longer the questionnaire, the less likely people will respond, the questionnaire was kept as short and as simple as possible. As a consequence, some variables were measured by only one item or a

limited number of items. Future research could focus on a limited selection of HRM practices and/or antecedents to measure the relationships with organisational commitment and the quality of job performances in more detail. Secondly, the complex nature of quality of performances cannot be captured in its totality by personal impressions and counting publications and presentations. As a result, this study only gives a quantitative insight into the effects of HRM practices, antecedents, and organisational commitment on the quality of job performances. Additionally, relying on rather subjective performance measurements may have caused 'rating effects' (Brewerton & Millward, 2001). An example of such a rating effect is a 'halo effect', which occurs when the rater tends to give the same level of rating across all criteria (Thorndike, 1920). Thirdly, the instrument and method used for collecting the data is an attitudinal survey and therefore based on the individual respondent's emotional state at the time of responding to the questionnaire. Furthermore, differences in perceptions or interpretations may have distorted the data. After all, respondents from different countries, universities, or faculties may perceive or interpret the same situation differently. For instance, in a country that is generally known for its high level of managerialism, a respondent may perceive a faculty as having a low level of managerialism, whereas the same faculty may be perceived as having a high level of managerialism in a country that is generally known for its low level of managerialism.



**APPENDIX A**

*Questionnaire*

## **Academic employees and their Commitment to the University**

This questionnaire is part of a study on organisational commitment among European academic employees (both academics, administrators, and other supporting staff). It is designed to make completion as easy and fast as possible. Most questions can be answered by simply ticking boxes. Filling in the questionnaire will take 10 to 12 minutes. Please do not spend too long on any question as it is your perception and your opinion that count; there is no right or wrong answer. The information supplied will be used for research purposes only and all of the information will be treated fully confidentially.

The questionnaire has been created for simultaneous use in six countries. Some questions may therefore be phrased in a slightly unfamiliar way. As gratitude for your assistance, we will raffle off twenty-five coupons of 40 euro (or equivalent) among those who have completed the questionnaire.

Thank you very much for you cooperation!

Sanne Smeenk  
Christine Teelken  
Hans Doorewaard  
Rob Eisinga

*We hope this questionnaire is self-explanatory but if you have any questions about this questionnaire or research, please feel free to contact: [S.Smeenk@fm.ru.nl](mailto:S.Smeenk@fm.ru.nl).*

**1. At which faculty are you employed?**

- Belgium: University of Antwerp - Faculty of Applied Economics
- Belgium: University of Antwerp - Faculty of Political and Social Sciences
- Belgium: Ghent University - Faculty of Economics and Business Administration
- Belgium: Ghent University - Faculty of Political and Social Sciences
- Belgium: University of Leuven - Faculty of Economics and Applied Economics
- Belgium: University of Leuven - Faculty of Social Sciences
- Finland: Jyväskylä University - School of Business and Economics
- Finland: Jyväskylä University - Faculty of Social Sciences
- Finland: University of Oulu - Faculty of Economics and Business Administration
- Finland: University of Oulu - Faculty of Humanities
- Finland: University of Tampere - Faculty of Economics and Administration
- Finland: University of Tampere - Faculty of Social Sciences
- Germany: University of Bremen - Faculty of Business Studies and Economics
- Germany: University of Bremen - Faculty of Social Sciences
- Germany: Frankfurt University - Faculty of Economics and Business Administration
- Germany: Frankfurt University - Faculty of Social Sciences
- Germany: University of Magdeburg - Faculty of Economics and Management
- Germany: University of Magdeburg - Faculty for Humanities, Social Sciences and Education
- Netherlands: Free University Amsterdam - Faculty of Economics and Business Administration
- Netherlands: Free University Amsterdam - Faculty of Social Sciences
- Netherlands: University of Amsterdam - Faculty of Economics and Econometrics
- Netherlands: University of Amsterdam - Faculty of Social and Behavioural Sciences
- Netherlands: University of Groningen - Faculty of Management and Organisation
- Netherlands: University of Groningen - Faculty of Behavioural and Social Sciences
- Sweden: Göteborg University - School of Business, Economics and Law
- Sweden: Göteborg University - Faculty of Social Sciences
- Sweden: Uppsala University - Faculty of Social Sciences (Economic part)
- Sweden: Uppsala University - Faculty of Social Sciences (Social part)
- Sweden: Växjö University - School of Management and Economics
- Sweden: Växjö University - School of Social Sciences
- UK: Cardiff University - Cardiff Business School
- UK: Cardiff University - School of Social Sciences
- UK: University of Edinburgh - Management School and Economics
- UK: University of Edinburgh - School of Social and Political Studies
- UK: University of East Anglia - School of Management
- UK: University of East Anglia - School of Economic and Social Studies
- Other

**2. Which of the following best describes your current rank at the faculty?**

- Dean
- Professor
- Associate professor
- Assistant professor
- Lecturer
- Researcher
- Ph.D. student
- Other scientific personnel
- Support and administrative staff
- Student assistant
- Other position (please specify)

3. In what year did you start working at the faculty?

4. In what year did you start at the position you currently have at the faculty?

5. How many hours do you formally work per week, excluding any overtime?

6. Please indicate to what extent the following statements apply to your faculty.

	<i>Does not apply at all</i>	<i>Applies very little</i>	<i>Applies to some extent</i>	<i>Applies to a large extent</i>	<i>Applies com- pletely</i>	<i>Don't know</i>
a. The number of study disciplines in the faculty has increased since I started working here	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. The number of enrolments to the faculty has increased since I started working here	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. The faculty is under pressure to compete with similar faculties at other universities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. Explicit measuring standards are the largest part of the quality evaluation in the faculty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. In the faculty, the evaluation of teaching and research is mainly carried out with assessment criteria set by 'the managers', rather than by 'peers'	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. The faculty has increasingly applied private sector management techniques, such as performance management and efficiency controlling	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g. The faculty is under pressure to reduce expenditures	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
h. The faculty's management is characterised by a control orientation rather than a developmental orientation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**7. Please indicate your agreement with the following propositions concerning your job.**

	<i>Totally disagree</i>	<i>Dis-agree</i>	<i>Neu-tral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Totally agree</i>
a. It is important for me to do my work the best I can	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. It is important for me to work hard, even if I do not like the work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I have real opportunities for career development in the faculty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. The work I am doing at the faculty is very challenging	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. I have to do things that should be done in a different way	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. I work under incompatible policies and guidelines	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g. I have divided my working time properly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
h. I know exactly what my responsibilities are	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
i. I know exactly what the faculty expects of me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
j. I have the freedom to do many different things in my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
k. I have the possibility of independent thought in my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
l. I have the freedom to do what I want in my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**8. How would you rate your academic salary?**

- Very inferior to my efforts
- Inferior to my efforts
- In balance with my efforts
- Passes my efforts a bit
- Passes my efforts easily

**9. In the past year, how many days did you undertake the following training and development activities?**

	<i>Days</i>	<i>Not applicable</i>
a. Off-the-job activities such as classes or workshops, away from your immediate work area	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. On-the-job general skills training not directly related to your current job	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. On-the-job general skills training directly related to your current job	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**10. Please indicate the extent to what the following propositions apply to you.**

	<i>Does not apply at all</i>	<i>Applies very little</i>	<i>Applies to some extent</i>	<i>Applies to a large extent</i>	<i>Applies com- pletely</i>
a. I monitor data on my productivity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I determine my work flow (tasks-ordering)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I have the possibility to develop new research and/or teaching programmes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. I take part in faculty decisions about investments in new projects	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. I am given the possibility to participate in decisions that affect my work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. I am satisfied with my possibility to participate in decisions that affect my work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g. There should be more employee involvement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
h. I wish to have more say in decisions about my work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**11. Please indicate your agreement with the following propositions about you and your faculty.**

	<i>Totally disagree</i>	<i>Dis- agree</i>	<i>Neu- tral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Totally agree</i>
a. The faculty does enough to avoid layoffs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I frequently have off-the-job contacts with my colleagues	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I feel a part of my department	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. I feel a part of my faculty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. I am adequately informed about what is going on in the faculty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. I am adequately informed about changes that affect my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**12. Which of the following phrases characterises best the top management at your faculty?**

- Laissez-faire management: no care for the employees and no care for the interest of the organisation
- Management of people's needs: full care for the employees but no care for the interest of the organisation
- Management of efficiency: no care for the employees but full care for the interest of the organisation
- Middle management: little care for the employees and little care for the interest of the organisation
- Ideal management: full care for the employees and full care for the interest of the organisation

**13. On a scale from 1 to 5, towards which of the two styles does the performance appraisal in your faculty tends?**

*A. It is focused on control and emphasises accountability and performance measurement*

*B. It is focused on individual strengths and weaknesses, and emphasises the development of competences*

- A  
 More A than B  
 Neutral/both  
 More B than A  
 B

**14. Please indicate your agreement with the following propositions concerning you and your colleagues.**

	<i>Totally disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Totally agree</i>
a. Working with colleagues is a central part of my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. In my job, I have the possibility to support colleagues	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. In my job, I have the possibility to talk to other employees about other things than 'business'	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. My job is often solitary	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. In my job, I have the possibility to develop close friendships	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. My contribution is important for the larger aims of the faculty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g. The faculty has clear rules and regulations that everyone is expected to follow	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**15. Please indicate your agreement with the following propositions about your attitude towards the faculty.**

	<i>Totally disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Totally agree</i>
a. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career at the faculty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. I enjoy discussing the faculty in a positive sense with people outside it	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. I really feel as if the faculty's problems are my own	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. I easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. I feel like 'part of the family' at the faculty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. The faculty has a great deal of personal meaning for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix A

	<i>Totally disagree</i>	<i>Dis-agree</i>	<i>Neu-tral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Totally agree</i>
g. I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
h. It would be very hard for me to leave the faculty right now	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
i. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave the faculty now	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
j. I could leave the faculty at no cost now	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
k. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving the faculty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
l. I continue to work for the faculty as leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	<i>Totally disagree</i>	<i>Dis-agree</i>	<i>Neu-tral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Totally agree</i>
m. Employees generally move from organisation to organisation too often	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
n. I do not mind at all when employees jump from organisation to organisation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
o. If I got offered a job elsewhere I would feel uncomfortable leaving the faculty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
p. I believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
q. Nowadays, things are better than in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
r. I think that want to be a 'company man/woman' is still sensible	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**16. How do you think your colleagues would rate the quality of your performances?**

	<i>Bottom 10% (0-10)</i>	<i>Lower 15% (10-25)</i>	<i>Middle 50% (25-75)</i>	<i>Upper 15% (75-90)</i>	<i>Highest 10% (90-100)</i>	<i>Not applicable</i>
a. The overall quality of your performances	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. The quality of your research performances	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. The quality of your teaching performances	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. The quality of your management performances	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**17. How many of the following activities have you done since January 1, 2002?**

	<i>Number</i>	<i>Not applicable</i>
a. Number of articles published in refereed professional or trade journals	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b. Number of articles published in non-refereed professional or trade journals	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c. Number of published chapters in edited volumes	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d. Number of textbooks, or other books	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e. Number of research report disseminated internally or to external clients	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. Presentations at conferences and/or workshops	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**18. What is your age?**

**19. What is your sex?**

- Male
- Female

**20. Including yourself, how many people live in your household?**

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5 or more

**21. What is the highest degree of education you have completed?**

- High school (grammar school)
- Some college
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Doctor's degree
- Other (please specify):

**This is the end of the questionnaire. We would appreciate any comments or questions you may have concerning the questionnaire.**

**In addition to this Web survey, we intend to study university employees' commitment in a qualitative way by interviewing university employees all over Europe. If you are willing to further discuss this topic with us, please enter your email address below. We will contact you as soon as possible.**

**Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this questionnaire!**

**If you have any queries about this questionnaire or research, please contact:**

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**APPENDIX B**

*Tables Chapter 5*

**Table 5.4** Standardised direct, indirect, and total effects of HRM practices and organisational commitment on the quality of job performances of all employees ( $n = 1700$ )

	AC <sup>a</sup>	CC <sup>a</sup>	NC <sup>a</sup>	Dependent variables					
				Quality of job performances					
				Direct effect	Indirect effect via <sup>b</sup>			Total indirect effect	Total effect
	AC	CC	NC						
<b>Organisational commitment</b>									
AC				.161*					.161*
CC				-.091*					-.091*
NC				-.022					-.022
<b>HRM practices</b>									
Contacts	.541*	.013	.177*	.100*	.087*	-.001	-.004	.082*	.182*
Decentralisation	.038	-.036	.003	.076*	.006	.003	-.000	.009*	.085*
Compensation	.004	.058*	.051*	-.176*	.000	-.005	-.001	-.006	-.182*
Training/development	-.011	-.034	-.026	-.050*	-.002	.003	.001	.002	-.048*
Employment security	.054*	-.004	-.014	-.031	.009*	.000	.000	.009*	-.021
Participation	-.050*	-.045	-.018	-.030	-.008*	.004	.000	-.004	-.033
Performance appraisal	.087*	-.026	-.023	-.023	.014*	.002	.001	.017*	-.006
Management style	.043*	-.001	-.016	-.014	.007	.000	.000	.007	-.007
<b>(Adjusted) R<sup>2</sup></b>								.100* (.092*)	

<sup>a</sup> AC = affective commitment, CC = continuance commitment, NC = normative commitment.

<sup>b</sup> Coefficient is greater than two times the standard error. The program INDIRECT by Preacher and Hayes (2006) was used to assess the significance of the indirect effects. The standard errors of the indirect effects are obtained by bootstrapping using 5,000 bootstrap samples. The standard errors for the other effects are obtained by OLS. The parameters estimates are controlled for faculty type, age, sex, and organisational tenure.

\*  $p < .05$

**Table 5.5** Unstandardised direct, indirect, and total effects of HRM practices and organisational commitment on the quality of job performances of employees in low-managerialism (upper row;  $n = 495$ ), middle-managerialism (middle row;  $n = 470$ ), and high-managerialism faculties (lower row;  $n = 735$ )

	AC <sup>a</sup>	CC <sup>a</sup>	NC <sup>a</sup>	Dependent variables					
				Direct effect	Quality of job performances			Total indirect effect	Total effect
					AC	CC	NC		
<b>Organisational commitment</b>									
AC				.113					.113
				.152*					.152*
				.226*					.226*
CC				.011					.011
				-.159*					-.159*
				-.106*					-.106*
NC				-.028					-.028
				-.047					-.047
				-.056					-.056
<b>HRM practices</b>									
Decentralisation	.066	-.031	.088	.014	.007	-.000	-.003	.005	.018
	.040	-.065	-.039	.100	.006*	.010*	.002*	.018*	.118
	.015	-.069	-.026	.147*	.003	.007	.002	.012	.159*
Compensation	-.069	.154*	-.016	-.484*	-.008	.002	.001	-.006	-.489*
	.102*	.047	.121*	-.126	.016*	-.008*	-.006*	.002	-.123
	-.064	.103	-.091	-.241*	-.014	-.011	.005	-.020	-.261*
Participation	.035	-.056	.017	-.080	.004	-.001	-.001	.003	.077
	-.128*	-.050	-.119*	-.087	-.020	.008	.006	-.006	-.093
	-.093*	-.035	-.008	.030	-.021*	.004	.001	-.017	.013
Training/development	.067	.001	-.018	-.207*	.008	.000	.001	.008	-.199*
	-.225	-.390*	-.178	-.078	-.034	.062*	.008	.036	-.042
	-.041	-.034	.069	-.037	-.009	.004	.004	-.002	-.038
Employment security	.105*	-.042	.043	-.020	.012	-.001	-.001	.010	-.010
	.073	-.036	-.038	-.061	.011*	.006*	.002*	.019*	-.042
	.039	.046	-.002	-.035	.009	-.005	.000	.004	-.031
Contacts	.554*	.047	.139*	.289*	.062	.001	-.004	.059	.348*
	.631*	.088	.270*	.091	.096*	-.014	-.013	.070*	.160*
	.543*	-.049	.117*	-.007	.123*	.005	-.006	.122*	.115*
Management style	-.090	.004	-.225*	-.045	-.010	.000	.006	-.004	-.048
	.088	-.044	.070	.002	.013	.007	-.003	.017*	.019
	.184*	-.011	.068	-.053	.042*	.001	-.004	.039*	-.014
Performance appraisal	.050	-.100*	-.051	-.035	-.001	-.001	.001	.006	-.029
	.111*	-.056	-.013	-.005	.009	.009	.001	.027*	.022
	.073*	.021	.012	.020	-.002	-.002	-.001	.014	.033
<b>(Adjusted) R<sup>2</sup></b>								.206* (.182*)	
								.105* (.076*)	
								.098* (.079*)	

<sup>a</sup> AC = affective commitment, CC = continuance commitment, NC = normative commitment.

<sup>b</sup> Coefficient is greater than two times the standard error. The program INDIRECT by Preacher and Hayes (2006) was used to assess the significance of the indirect effects. The standard errors of the indirect effects are obtained by bootstrapping using 5000 bootstrap samples. The standard errors for the other effects are obtained by OLS. The parameters estimates are controlled for faculty type, age, sex, and organisational tenure.

\* $p < .05$



**APPENDIX C**

*Table Chapter 6*

**Table 6.2** Unstandardised direct, indirect (mediated by organisational commitment), and total effects of managerialism on the quality of job performances, standard errors in parentheses ( $n = 1868$ )

	AC <sup>a</sup>	CC <sup>a</sup>	NC <sup>a</sup>	Direct effect	Quality of job performances			Total indirect effect	Total effect
					Indirect effect via <sup>c</sup>				
					AC	CC	NC		
<b>Managerialism</b>									
PMA <sup>b</sup>	.007 (.032)	.076 (.031)*	.080 (.028)*	-.011 (.033)	.002 (.008)	-.009 (.005)*	-.004 (.003)	-.012 (.009)	-.022 (.034)
FE <sup>b</sup>	.128 (.035)*	-.011 (.035)	.089 (.031)*	.118 (.037)*	.029 (.009)*	.001 (.005)	-.004 (.003)	.026 (.010)*	.144 (.038)*
<b>Organisational commitment</b>									
AC				.224 (.025)*					
CC				-.123 (.025)*					
NC				-.047 (.029)					
<b>(Adjusted) R<sup>2</sup></b>								.069* (062*)	

<sup>a</sup> AC = affective commitment, CC = continuance commitment, NC = normative commitment.

<sup>b</sup> PMA = private management adoption, FE = faculty expansion.

<sup>c</sup> Coefficient is greater than two times the standard error. The program INDIRECT by Preacher and Hayes (2006) was used to assess the significance of the indirect effects. The standard errors of the indirect effects are obtained by bootstrapping using 5000 bootstrap samples. The standard errors for the other effects are obtained by OLS. The parameters estimates are controlled for faculty type, age, sex, and organisational tenure.

\*  $p < .05$

## SUMMARY

Since the early 1980s, a number of societal developments have taken place in the context of European universities, accompanied by demands for accountability, quality improvement, efficiency, and effectiveness. The changes in the higher education sector have reinforced the trend in most academic institutions towards adopting organisational forms, technologies, management instruments, and values that are commonly found in the private business sector. This wave of university reforms is known as *managerialism*. The rise of managerialism is argued to lead to a conflict between ‘managerial’ organisation values and ‘professional’ employee values. Since this conflict may lead to a lower organisational commitment and, consequently, a lower quality of job performances while at the same time the managerial reforms aim at quality improvement, a *managerialism contradiction* can be discerned. Since affecting organisational commitment and quality of performances appears a suitable option to solve, or at least to reduce, a managerialism contradiction, this research examines which factors affect organisational commitment and the quality of job performances of university employees. In addition, since the levels of managerialism differ among countries, universities, faculties, and even in the perceptions of individual employees, this study particularly focuses on the factors affecting organisational commitment and the quality of job performances among employees in faculties that are characterised by different levels of managerialism.

The context, purpose, and relevance of the research together with an outline of the dissertation are introduced in Chapter 1. In Chapter 2, a conceptual model is built, which guides (in an adapted or limited form) the examinations and analyses in the following chapters. In this model, HRM practices and antecedents affect organisational commitment, which in turn affects the quality of job performances. In addition, HRM practices affect the quality

of job performances directly. Chapter 3 reports on the pilot study of this research. It explores the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment and the quality of job performances among Dutch university employees in two faculties with different levels of managerialism. Chapters 4 and 5 use data from the main survey, which has been conducted among 2,325 university employees in six European countries (Belgium, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United Kingdom). Chapter 4 focuses on the effects of HRM practices and antecedents on organisational commitment among two employee groups: one group of employees who perceive low levels of managerialism in the faculties in which they are employed, and another group of employees who perceive high levels of managerialism in the faculties in which they are employed. Chapter 5 concentrates on the direct effects of HRM practices on the quality of job performances and on the indirect effects of these practices on the quality of job performances via organisational commitment. The effects are examined among university employees in three groups of faculties whose levels of managerialism are based on country levels of managerialism as they are known in literature.

Although the current literature provides sufficient evidence, both theoretical and empirical, for the existence of a managerialism contradiction in contemporary universities, there are also some studies that suggest that an increase of managerialism does not necessarily lead to lower organisational commitment and/or a lower quality of job performances. In Chapter 6, the existence of a managerialism contradiction is explored by examining two lines of reasoning underlying a managerialism contradiction. Finally, Chapter 7 concludes the dissertation by combining the conclusions from the various chapters, discussing the scientific and practical implications of this study, and considering the major conceptual/theoretical and methodological limitations of the study, accompanied by perspectives for further research.

## SUMMARY IN DUTCH

Vanaf het begin van de jaren '80 hebben er in de omgeving van de Europese universiteiten verschillende maatschappelijke ontwikkelingen voorgedaan. Deze ontwikkelingen zijn vergezeld gegaan door eisen van rekenschap, kwaliteitsverbetering, efficiëntie en effectiviteit. Om tegemoet te kunnen komen aan deze veranderingen in de hoger onderwijs sector, hebben veel universiteiten organisatievormen, technologieën, managementinstrumenten en waarden uit de private sector overgenomen. Deze golf van hervormingen is beter bekend als *managerialisme*. Er wordt gezegd dat de opkomst van het managerialisme leidt tot een conflict tussen 'managerialistische' organisatiewaarden en 'professionele' medewerkerwaarden. Omdat een dergelijk conflict tot lagere organisatiebetrokkenheid kan leiden en vervolgens ook tot lagere kwaliteit van prestaties terwijl kwaliteitsverbetering een doel van de managerialistische hervormingen is, is er sprake van een *managerialisme contradictie*. Het beïnvloeden van organisatiebetrokkenheid en kwaliteit van prestaties lijkt een passende optie om een managerialisme contradictie op te lossen of ten minste te reduceren. Dit onderzoek richt zich op de factoren die organisatiebetrokkenheid en kwaliteit van prestaties van universiteitsmedewerkers beïnvloeden. Omdat de niveaus van managerialisme verschillen tussen landen, universiteiten, faculteiten, en zelfs in de percepties van de individuele medewerkers onderzoekt deze studie in het bijzonder welke factoren een invloed hebben op organisatiebetrokkenheid en kwaliteit van prestaties in faculteiten die gekenmerkt worden door verschillende niveaus van managerialisme.

De context, het doel en de relevantie van de studie, geflankeerd door een overzicht van de dissertatie worden geïntroduceerd in Hoofdstuk 1. In Hoofdstuk 2 wordt een conceptueel model gebouwd dat (in aangepaste of beperkte vorm) richting geeft aan het onderzoek en de analyses in de volgende

hoofdstukken. In dit model hebben HRM praktijken en antecedenten een invloed hebben op organisatiebetrokkenheid, dat vervolgens weer invloed heeft op de kwaliteit van prestaties. Daarnaast hebben HRM praktijken ook een directe invloed op de kwaliteit van prestaties. Hoofdstuk 3 rapporteert het pilot-onderzoek van deze studie. Het gaat na welke HRM praktijken en antecedenten een invloed hebben op de organisatiebetrokkenheid en kwaliteit van prestaties van Nederlandse universiteitsmedewerkers in twee faculteiten die elk gekenmerkt worden door een verschillend niveau van managerialisme. In Hoofdstuk 4 en 5 worden de data uit het hoofdonderzoek gebruikt. Dit hoofdonderzoek is uitgevoerd is onder 2.325 universiteitsmedewerkers in zes Europese landen (België, Finland, Duitsland, Nederland, Zweden en Groot-Brittannië). Hoofdstuk 4 richt zich op de effecten van HRM praktijken en antecedenten op organisatiebetrokkenheid in twee groepen medewerkers: een groep met medewerkers die een laag niveau van managerialisme in hun faculteit ervaren, en een groep met medewerkers die een hoog niveau van managerialisme in hun faculteit ervaren. Hoofdstuk 5 kijkt vervolgens naar de directe effecten van HRM praktijken op kwaliteit van prestaties en naar de indirecte effecten van deze praktijken op kwaliteit van prestaties via organisatiebetrokkenheid. De effecten worden onderzocht onder universiteitsmedewerkers in drie groepen faculteiten met verschillende niveaus van managerialisme. Deze faculteitsniveaus worden gebaseerd op de landsniveaus van managerialisme zoals die in andere studies bekend zijn.

Hoewel de bestaande literatuur voldoende theoretisch en empirisch bewijs levert voor het bestaan van een managerialisme contradictie zijn er ook studies die suggereren dat een toename van managerialisme niet noodzakelijkerwijs tot lagere organisatiebetrokkenheid en/of lagere kwaliteit van prestaties leidt. Hoofdstuk 6 onderzoekt het bestaan van een managerialistische contradictie door twee argumentaties die ten grondslag liggen aan een managerialisme contradictie te testen. Hoofdstuk 7 sluit de dissertatie af door de conclusies uit de verschillende hoofdstukken met elkaar in verband te brengen, de wetenschappelijke en praktische implicaties van deze studie te benadrukken en de belangrijkste theoretische/conceptuele en methodologische kwesties te behandelen, vergezeld van perspectieven voor verder onderzoek.

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