A Comparative Investigation of Organizational Commitment in Government, Public, and Private Organizations in Qatar

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By

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Bismillah al Rahman al Raheem

In the Name of Allah the Most Compassionate and the Most Merciful

TO THE TWELVETH IMAM:

BAQIATUL-LAH

AL- HUJEH BIN AL HASSAN AL-MAHDI

(May God hasten his emergence)

Acknowledgements

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the antecedents and consequences of commitment in the developing nation of Qatar. Specifically, the influence of personal variables, job characteristics, organizational characteristics, and facets of job satisfaction of employees were investigated in relation to affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

A survey questionnaire was used to collect data from a random sample of 780 employees from government, public, and private sector companies and completed questionnaires were received from 544 employees representing a response rate of 69.7%. Research data were tested using Pearson's correlation, Analysis of variance, and T-Tests.

Statistically significant relationships were found between affective / normative commitment and almost all of the personal characteristics. However, only two demographic variables were statistically related to continuance commitment. Results indicated that employees with a high level of education, who were male, married with dependents, with long tenure and contract employment, reported higher levels of commitment than others. Interestingly, non Qatari employees showed higher levels of commitment than Qatari employees.

Relationships between job and organizational characteristics and components of organizational commitment were found to be significant, although the relationships were only weak to moderate. Generally, the results indicated that the lack of equity, inefficient personal growth, lack of job security, lack of autonomy, lack of task identity, and insufficient feedback on performance were stated as possible reasons for low commitment in this study. Relationships were also found between job satisfaction variables and affective and normative commitment. However, relationships between continuance commitment and job satisfaction variables were weak. Regarding consequences of OC, the research found that increasing organizational commitment among employees led to lower turnover intentions and more acceptance of organizational changes.

Table of Contents

VII

Chapter 8   Conclusions & Recommendations

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Appendices

Chapter One
Introduction and Background

1.1   Qatar's Location, Population, Economy, & Workforce

The state of Qatar is an independent state in the southern Arabian Gulf surrounded by Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, the United Arab Emirates, and Iran. Its area is approximately 11,437 square kilometres. The population of Qatar as per the 1997 census is 522,023 representing a 41.4% increase from the 1986 census of 369,079 and translating into an average annual increase of 3.7% during 1986-1997. In July 2006 the World Factbook website estimated Qatar's population at about 885,395, based on an annual increase of 2.5% per annum. Qatar's location, close to the fast growing Asian markets, in addition to the Middle East and European markets, provides vast opportunities in various business and investment fields.

The Qatari economy is primarily based on the production and export of crude oil and other hydrocarbons such as liquefied natural gas, condensate, propane, and other natural gas liquids. Oil and gas account for more than 60% of gross domestic product (GDP), roughly 85% of export earnings, and 70% of government revenues. Proven oil reserves of 16 billion barrels should ensure continued output at current levels for 23 years. Qatar's proven reserves of natural gas exceed 25 trillion cubic metres, more than 5% of the world total and third largest in the world. Qatar has permitted substantial foreign investment in the development of its gas fields during the last decade and is expected to become the world's top liquefied natural gas (LNG) exporter by 2007. In recent years, Qatar has consistently posted trade surpluses, largely because of high oil prices and increased natural gas exports, becoming one of the world's fastest growing economies. Qatar's rapid economic growth has seen it attain one of the highest per capita incomes in the world. Qatar's gross domestic product (GDP) totalled $28.07 billion in 2005. In 2003, the GDP per capita reached $30,730, compared to $29,255 in 2002. Qatar's GDP has grown by a phenomenal 57% in the last five years. The growth in annual GDP is expected to average 7.9% up to 2007 (World Factbook, 2006).

Qatar has changed from a poor, very small tribal society to a structured and wealthy state. Many factors have contributed to the vast and rapid social and economic changes that have been ongoing in Qatar for the last few decades. The most prominent of these is the high revenues from oil, especially after the oil price boom in the mid seventies.

1

The state of Qatar is described as a capital rich state suffering from severely limited indigenous human resources. As the development plans of the country are ambitious on the agricultural, financial and industrial fronts, the country has been largely depending on migrant manpower. The country employs large labour forces from the Indian subcontinent, the Far East, and from relatively less rich Arab countries such as Jordan and Egypt, besides its own nationals. The CIA in 2006 estimated the ethnic groups in Qatar as follows: Arab 40%, Pakistani 18%, Indian 18%, Iranian 10%, other 14% (World Factbook, 2006).

By the mid 1970s, faced with the desire to gain national control over vital sectors of the economy, the Qatari government started to develop its own human resources through education and training and by sending young Qataris to study abroad. The Qatari government adopted a policy of what it called Qatarization (a policy of giving first priority to nationals in filling administrative/management positions) to boost the number of nationals in all ministries and reduce reliance on foreigners. This was particularly emphasized in the government sector, where government mandates gave exclusive rights to nationals for these positions. This strategy led to an increase in the number of nationals in the government sector; however, other sectors are still dominated by foreigners. The Qatari government has set a goal of employing more nationals in the public and private sectors by providing training facilities, exclusive rights and benefits for employees working in these sectors. In addition, the Qatari government has forced public sector companies to hire more nationals by decreeing that nationals must constitute a specific percentage of the total number of employees in each company.

To increase productivity, profits, and performance, the Qatar government established a hybrid sector by encouraging foreign companies to work with the government and transforming some of the government ministries to public or semi private companies. In addition, Qatar has sought to diversify its economy through industrialization. Diversifying from dependence on crude oil and the development of Qatar's vast non-associated gas reserves attracted a huge influx of foreign investment. Therefore, many of the industrial sectors comprise large firms of mixed state and foreign private ownership. For example, The Qatar Steel Company is co-owned by the Qatari

government and two Japanese companies, which constructed the plant and took responsibility for production, marketing, and exporting.

Even with the above efforts, planners, policy makers, and human resource managers in Qatar have recognized the dearth of Qatari employees in different industrial sectors, and therefore, have adopted a policy that relies heavily on foreign labour to overcome the shortage in the indigenous workforce for the growing economy. These non-domestic workers provided most of this diverse labour requirement, ranging from the least skilled labourers to managerial and technical skills. According to Taylor (1998) non-domestic manpower forms approximately 83% in Qatar and will continue to do so for a long time. In 2004, the Planning Council confirmed that Qatari nationals held less than 10% of all jobs in the private sector, less than 32% of all jobs in the public sector, and approximately 66% of all jobs in the government sector (The Planning Council in Qatar, 2004).

This has led to a situation where most organizations in the public and private sectors in Qatar often comprise many different nationalities - each individual having his/her own role perception, attitudes toward other nationalities, cultural orientation and educational background. This creates a multicultural work environment, which affects the attitude and the behaviour of the workforce in Qatar. Therefore, the Human Resource Managers in the Qatar work environment will undoubtedly face the challenge of managing a culturally diverse workforce.

There is no doubt that local manpower is in very short supply, as compared to the demand. The harsh reality of the Qatar economy is that the local population, even if fully developed and efficiently utilised, is much too small as compared to the manpower requirement of the country. In order to sustain the economic growth, the country is likely to remain dependent on an expatriate workforce, at least in the short and medium term.

The dependence on multicultural expatriate employees in Qatar will continue for a long time because of the following:

1. The acceleration of growth and structural changes (especially in the public and private sector). This calls for hiring a large number of workers, not only from outside the company sources, but also from the international labour market;

2. The relatively small Qatari population (Qatari nationals constitute less than one-third of Qatar's total population);

3. The lack of skilled and semiskilled labour with the large demand for labour at various skill levels;

4. The small role played by women in the labour force; and,

5. The adoption of a free trade policy and accession to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT).

According to the Planning Council (2004) non-Qatari workers hold more than 55 percent of all jobs in all sectors in Qatar and this number is expected to increase because of accelerated growth and structural changes. This situation has generated a multicultural and workforce-diverse environment. Naturally, such a diverse workforce has diverse values, attitudes and behaviour. For example, a number of researchers have observed that individuals from different cultures exhibit dissimilar levels of organizational commitment (Near, 1989; Al-Meer, 1989, 1995) and job satisfaction (e.g. Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1985; Yavas et al., 1990). Al-Kahtany (1998) added, "The majority of researchers emphasized this issue by arguing that cross-cultural studies are helpful to understand the variations in commitment across countries. Now, cross-national studies are needed to meet the needs of globalization because many nations have become closer than in the past" (p.172). Thus, this in turn has led to the presence of great challenges to managers, one of which is how to achieve a maximum level of commitment and satisfaction with various job facets for such a diverse workforce, in order to maximize performance and productivity.

1.2   Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment (OC) refers to the nature of an individual's attachment to an organization. According to Guest (1995) organizational commitment is at the heart of Human Resource Management and is a central feature that distinguishes HRM from traditional personnel management. Although OC has been the topic of numerous published investigations, and received a great deal of scrutiny over the years,

researchers have not always conceptualised the construct in a similar manner (Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994; Randall, 1993).

OC is closely related to intent to remain and retention, and can be defined as an "individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Crewson, 1997, p.507), and "the strength of a person's attachment to the organization" (Grusky, 1966, p.489). OC has been operationalized as a combination of three distinct factors: a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, eagerness to work hard for the organization, and desire to remain a member of the organization (Grusky, 1966).

The topic of OC has gained wide interest and discussion among academicians and practitioners in all sectors. Nevertheless, according to Moon (2000), many conceptual and methodological questions remain unclear and unanswered. The term organizational commitment is not a unitary and well-defined concept. Angle and Perry (1981), for example, summarized the term commitment with a definition comprehensively based on many previous relevant studies:

> "The term commitment has been used, for example, to describe such diverse phenomena as the willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to social systems; an awareness of the impossibility of choosing a different social identity of a rejecting a particular expectation, under force of penalty; or an affective attachment to an Organization apart from the purely instrumental worth of the relationship. Some commitment like concepts, such as organizational identification or organizational involvement, have also appeared in literature" (p. 1).

The concept of OC has been the subject of many empirical studies, both as a consequence and antecedent of other work-related variables of interest. As a consequence, OC has been linked to several personal variables, role states, and aspects of the work environment ranging from job characteristics to dimensions of organizational structure. As an antecedent, OC has been used to predict employees' absenteeism, performance, turnover, and other variables. In addition, several other variables such as job involvement and job satisfaction have demonstrated a relationship with OC.

Organizational commitment has important implications for both individuals and organizational outcomes, making it central to organizational life, and giving it prominence in management discourse. Researchers such as Gallie and White (1993) found that committed employees are more satisfied and OC plays an essential role in the goal achievement, innovation and stability of an organization. The level of commitment from employees can have a major impact on organizations and society as a whole, because committed employees are more likely to engage in "extra-role" behaviours, such as creativity, that can increase the organization's competitiveness. Thus, high commitment seems to be critical success factor where intellectual contributions to organizations are needed, for instance, from doctors and engineers, and where the behaviours of individuals are inseparable from the success of service delivery.

1.3   Organizational Commitment & State of Qatar

Investigation of organizational commitment is essential in Qatar because:

1. There is a policy in the Qatar government to transform ministries in the government sector and semi-public sector organizations into private or semi-private companies on the assumption that it will increase productivity and performance. In view of this concern with productivity and performance, measuring organizational commitment (attachment, loyalty, and acceptance of organization's goals and values) in Qatari organizations is important because OC has positive effects on the productivity, quality, competitiveness, goal achievement, innovation, and stability of any organization.

2. As mentioned before, the Planning Council in Qatar (2004) reports that Qatari nationals hold only 66 % of all jobs in the government sector, less than 32% of all jobs in the public sector, and less than 10% of all jobs in the private sector. The same report indicates that non-Qatari workers hold more than 55 percent of all jobs in all sectors in Qatar and this number is expected to increase because of accelerated growth and structural changes. Such figures mean that Qatar is a multicultural work environment and this will affect the attitude and the behaviour of all of the individuals working in Qatar's government, private, and public organizations. In addition, the literature reveals that non-domestic (expatriate)

6

employees experience a variety of challenges in the host environment and have difficulties adjusting to the work environment and new organizational demands (Adler, 1991; Black et al., 1992).

3. A number of researchers have observed that individuals from different cultures exhibit dissimilar levels of organizational commitment (Near, 1989; Lok and Crawford, 2001) and job satisfaction (e.g. Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1985; Yavas et al., 1990). Therefore, they may have different levels of commitment to Qatari companies. Given Qatar's multicultural workforce, we would expect that the sort of work setting in Qatar would influence the organizational commitment issues.

4. The increased complexity of work organizations, combined with the significant technological changes, will place more responsibilities on management to increase employees' commitment.

5. Most researchers agree that an increase in employee commitment means lower turnover, less absenteeism, and increased performance levels, all of which would benefit any organization. Therefore, the consequences to an organization of employees with low commitment can be costly and therefore OC deserves the attention of management (Ward and Davis, 1995). Awamleh (1996) and Suliman (2002) added that the management of any organization should try its best to increase employees' levels of commitment through creating an appropriate atmosphere to those ends.

6. Certain governmental conditions in Qatar (as will be explained later) are likely to play a major role in OC. Nationality or citizenship status is likely to play a major role in predicting organizational commitment in Qatar. The argument here concerns the different situations that domestic and non-domestic employees find themselves in, rather than individual differences or personality. For example, to date all Qatari nationals working in the government and some of the public sector companies will receive their full salaries even if they do not attend their jobs or if they are fired, because the Qatari government usually pays them. In this kind of situation, the commitment of Qatari employees to their organization will be adversely affected and these employees will not work hard to keep their jobs

7

because their salaries and most of their benefits will be paid by the government even if they do not work.

1.4   Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this investigation is to investigate the antecedents and consequences of commitment in a developing nation, Qatar. Specifically, it will address the influence of demographic variables, organizational characteristics, job characteristics, and specific facets of job satisfaction of employees working in Qatar's workforce to affective, continuance, and normative commitment. In addition, this research describes and examines the similarities and differences observed in individual employees' levels of organizational commitment. In this way it will expand the limited knowledge of the HRM process in the context of Qatar. It is expected that the outcomes of such a study will be of significance to society in general and to the management of human resources in particular.

In Qatar, there is a need for an empirical study to uncover the factors affecting organizational commitment, and this study will represent one of the first studies in this field. Since there is a dearth of non-American and non-European studies in the area of organizational commitment, it is important to validate previous studies in commitment in different environments and to test the multiple effects of employees' commitment on organizational goals.

Historical literature has shown that many organizations have striven towards maintaining a committed workforce as a necessary step toward achieving their organizational goals. Given this, Dubois and Associates (1997) have argued that the level of OC is the driving force behind an organization's performance.

> "... Our research suggests that at least 80 per cent of an organization's employees at all levels must be committed to it, for it to succeed in its total quality, re-engineering or work reorganization efforts" (p. 1).

This study will examine the OC of workers in three different sectors, government, public, and private sector, since most of the previous work in this area has been limited to the study of OC in one company or in one sector. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) encouraged researchers to conduct studies in many organizations. They argued that:

"A greater number of studies need to be conducted with employees sampled from wide variety of organizations. This is imperative for many research questions. Most studies to date that have investigated such relations have simply sampled employees from a single organization and correlated their perceptions of the organizational features and their organizational commitment levels" (p.191).

By focusing on different sectors, this study would uncover differences between government, public, and private sector and hopefully validate the findings of previous research that suggests that private sector employees hold higher levels of commitment than public sector employees (Odom et al., 1990; Savery, 1991).

Additionally, as expatriates come to Qatar from different countries with different beliefs, different work attitudes, and different work values, their commitment to Qatari organizations may vary, due to differences in their backgrounds. Thus, this study will examine the similarities and differences observed in individual employees' levels of organizational commitment.

Previous streams of research have uncovered several consistently significant determinants of organizational commitment, including several personal factors such as education, age, marital status, gender and some job and organizational related factors such as autonomy, feedback on performance, and equity. According to many researchers (e.g., Steers, 1977; Loscocco, 1989; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; and Meyer & Allen 1997), personal demographics and job-related factors are reliable predictors of employees' commitment to their employing organizations. However, several aspects of personal characteristics would benefit from further research (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Abdulla & Shaw, 1999). For example, although significant effects have been found, few researchers have hypothesized and tested differential associations between personal factors and different dimensions of organizational commitment. This research will explore the relationship between personal, organizational, job related factors, and job satisfaction in relation to the three dimensions of organizational commitment known as the affective, continuance, and normative dimensions of organizational commitment.

1.5 The Previous Theoretical Models

Steers (1977) developed a model that explains the relationship between commitment and its antecedents. The model was designed primarily to test the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment and it proved to be relevant and useful for many studies. To date, many studies have examined the effects of personal demographics and job-related factors on organizational commitment using Steers' (1977) model, as shown in Figure 1.1. Steers (1977) identified and tested three categories of antecedent variables which are important factors in modelling organizational commitment. These three categories, explored in detail by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982), include personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experience. Steers' model is still valid according to the recent reviews of the literature (Cohen & Hudecek, 1993; Crewson, 1997).

Figure 1.1: Hypothesized Antecedents and Outcomes of Organizational Commitment (Source: Steers 1977).

Steers' model consists of two parts: (1) antecedents of commitment and (2) outcomes of commitment. The model therefore explains the relationship between commitment and its consequences (outcomes). The first part of the model suggests that personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences can influence organizational commitment. The second component suggests that organizational commitment can

influence organizational outcomes, which include performance, retention, attendance, and intent to remain in the organization. Steers' model states that employees who are committed to their organization are characterized by the following: (1) a willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of the organization, (2) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership, and (3) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's values and goals.

Personal characteristics are the first category of factors that affect commitment. Personal characteristics include such variables as tenure, gender, education, marital status, and need for achievement. For example, employees with a high need for achievement and those with more time invested in an organization are likely to be more committed than others. The impact of tenure is consistent with Rosow's (1965) prediction that high levels of commitment should be found in those members who have been socialized successfully to accept the organization's values. Steers finds that people who are highly educated have greater expectations and therefore are more difficult to satisfy than those who are less educated. In addition, identification with professional values and goals results in the college-educated worker having a greater commitment to a profession or trade than to the organization.

Job characteristics is the second category of factors that affect commitment. This involves task completion and interaction with others; both are predicted to have a positive influence on commitment. In particular, both Steers (1977) and Hackman & Lawler (1971) found that those who are involved with a task from beginning to end and have favourable interaction with peers will have higher levels of commitment.

The third category proposes that commitment is influenced by an employee's work experiences during his or her tenure with the organization. These work experiences include the extent to which individual expectations compare with those exhibited in the organization, feelings of importance, and the dependability of the organization in its dealings with the employee. Steers (1977) found employees with congruent expectations, high feelings of importance, and a strong sense of trust in the organization to exhibit higher levels of commitment than others.

In addition to Steers' model, another important model of the role of OC in organizations is depicted in Figure 1.2. Mathieu and Zajac (1990), in their meta-analysis of 124 published studies, summarized previous research on the role of OC in organizations in a comprehensive model that divides the contents of OC into three categories: antecedents, correlates, and consequences (outcomes) of commitment. This model places OC as a mediating variable between personal and situational antecedents and behavioural consequences (see Mathieu & Zajac 1990, 174). In this model, antecedents of OC include an individual's personal characteristics and factors related to the organization that influence the development of OC. The primary difference between antecedents and correlates is their temporal development in relation to OC. That is, the development of antecedents is thought to precede the development of OC, while correlates are formed at approximately the same time, or in conjunction with, the development of OC. Once developed through antecedents and/or correlates, OC is then hypothesized to affect behavioural consequences, such as performance, actual employee turnover, and withdrawal behaviour, which are important to the organization.

In addition to the previous models, Cohen & Hudecek (1993), in their study, have highlighted inconclusive results for antecedent variables such as age, marital status, occupational status and tenure, as well as other aspects such as working conditions, job satisfaction, job involvement, turnover, performance, perceptions of organizational climate, and stress. In addition, they concluded that personal factors had a more significant effect on the OC formed by individuals occupying lower or higher status occupations.

Recently, several researchers have criticised previous studies in this topic for applying unidimensional scales to measure commitment, which is now widely viewed as a multidimensional construct. Therefore, a recent research study has summarized previous studies of the role of OC in organizations in a more comprehensive model (see Figure 1.3). Ketchand and Strawser (2001) summarized previous research and divided the contents of OC into four categories (instead of two or three categories): antecedents of OC, correlates, dimensions of OC, and consequences of commitment.

Figure 1.2: Classification of Antecedents, Correlates, and Consequences of Organizational Commitment (Source: Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

| Antecedents | | Correlates | Consequences |

Personal Characteristics — *Job Characteristics* — *Motivation* — *Job Performance*

Personal Characteristics	*Job Characteristics*	*Motivation*	*Job Performance*
Age	Skill Variety	Overall	Others' Ratings
Education level Sex	Task Autonomy	Internal Output-measures	Output Measures
Ability	Challenge	Job-involvement	Intention to -search
Marital Status	Job Scope	Stress	Intention to -leave
Position Tenure	*Group/Leader Relations*	Occupational-Commitment	Lateness Attendance
Organizational Tenure	Group Cohesiveness Task interdependence	Union Commitment	Perceived job-alternatives
Perceived Personal -Competence Job Level	Leader Initiating Structure	*Job Satisfaction*	
		Overall	Turnover
	Leader-Consideration	Intrinsic	
Salary	Leader-Communication	Extrinsic Work Itself	
Protestant Work Ethic	Participative-Leadership	Supervision	
Role States Role Ambiguity	*Organizational Characteristics* Organizational size	Co-Workers Promotion Pay	
Role Overload Role Conflict	Organizational-Centralization		

Organizational Commitment

Figure 1.3: Model of Antecedents, Correlates, Dimensions of OC, and Consequences (Source: Ketchand & Strawser, 2001).

Antecedents to OC	**OC**	**Consequences of OC**

Antecedents to OC

Personal Characteristics
Age, Gender, Education
Salary, Marital Status
Tenure, Ability
Work Ethic
Personal Competence
Job Level / Job Status
Number of Departments
Need for Achievement
Role States
Role Ambiguity/ Clarity
Role Conflict, Role Overload
Job Characteristics/ Work Experiences
Skill variety/ Routinization
Task Autonomy
Challenge/ Difficulty
Task Significance
Job Scope, Resource Adequacy, Work Overload
Group/ Leader Relations
Group Cohesiveness
Task Interdependence
Supervisor Behaviour
Support Leader - Communication
Leader consideration - Behaviour
Leader Initiating Structure- Behaviour
Supervisor Feedback
Co-worker Behaviour
Support Peer Cohesion
Personal Importance
Organizational Characteristics
Size, Dependability
Expected Loyalty
Degree of Centralization
Costs of Departure
Loss of Pension Benefits
Perceived Job Alternatives
Time & Effort in Departing
Social Support
Job Choice Factors
Time Invest in Organization

OC

Affective Commitment
• Identification
• Internalisation

Continuance Commitment
• High Sacrifice
• Low Alternatives

Normative Commitment

Instrumental Commitment

Correlates of OC

Job/ Career Satisfaction
Job Involvement
Stress
Professional/Occupational Commitment
Motivation
Union Commitment
Co-workers' Commitment
Job Security

Consequences of OC

Performance
• Self Evaluation of Job Performance
• Support Evaluation of Performance
• Compliance with Rules & Regulations,
• Neglect
• Extrarole Behaviour,
• Promotability
• Efficiency/ Use of time
Turnover Behaviour
Withdrawal Behaviour
• Turnover Intention
• Attendance
• Tardiness
• Job- Search Behaviour
Other
• Employee Suggestions for Improvement
• Loyalty
• Sense of Obligation
• Professional Activity

14

In their model, Ketchand and Strawser (2001) listed more variables of antecedents, correlates and consequences of OC. In addition, they added a new category focused on research that investigated whether antecedents and correlates of OC are differentially related to the alternative dimensions of organizational commitment. Ketchand and Strawser (2001) divided organizational commitment into four different dimensions. These dimensions are affective, continuance, normative, and instrumental commitment. They argued that each dimension of OC has different relationships with the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of OC.

1.6 The Theoretical Model of this Study

It was believed to be important in designing this study, to examine organizational commitment and its relationship to how employees connect to the organization, in terms of both membership status and quality of membership in the state of Qatar.

Steer's (1977), Mathieu & Zajac's (1990), and Ketchand & Strawser's (2001) commitment models provided the theoretical framework to test the hypotheses (as we will explain later) for this study, but with a focus on four major antecedents of OC (personal characteristics, job satisfaction variables, job and organizational characteristics) and two consequences of OC (intent to leave (turnover intentions) and acceptance of organizational changes).

As shown in Figure 1.4, this study suggests that personal characteristics, job characteristics, organizational characteristics, and job satisfaction variables may influence employees' organizational commitment to some degree in Qatar's workforce. The degree of influence of the antecedents on organizational commitment depends on the degree of the differences in each of the variables in the demographics, organizational, job satisfaction variables, and job characteristics to each of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The second stage involves examining the relationship between each measure of commitment on two consequences of OC (acceptance of organizational changes, and turnover intentions).

Figure 1.4: The Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Commitment in Qatar's Workforce.

Antecedents		Consequences

Personal Characteristics
- Sector
- Nationality
- Educational levels
- Gender of employee
- Marital status
- Number of dependants
- Age of employee
- Length of service
- Type of employment (contract vs. non-contract)

Job and Organizational Characteristics
- Equity on paying salary and fringe benefits
- Perceived personal growth and development
- Job security
- Degree of autonomy
- Skill variety
- Feedback on performance
- Task identity

Organizational commitment:
- Affective commitment
- Continuance commitment
- Normative commitment

Turnover intentions

Acceptance of organizational changes

Job Satisfaction Variables
- Intrinsic job satisfaction
- Working conditions extrinsic satisfaction
- Individual recognition and management behaviour
- Overall job satisfaction

Independent Variables   In/Dependent Variable   Dependent Variable

16

1.7   The Research Questions

Some researchers argue that specifying the research question is more than identifying the research topic. DeVaus (2001) explained that there are plenty of examples of unfocused surveys and case studies that report insignificant information and fail to provoke "why" questions or provide any basis for generalizations. Due to the importance of testing organizational commitment in a multicultural environment, this study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the organizational commitment level among employees working in Qatar's government, public, and private sector? Are employees of one sector more committed to their respective organizations than employees of the other sectors?

2. Are there any differences in the level of commitment between domestic and non-domestic employees in Qatar's three sectors?

3. What is the relationship between each selected variable of personal characteristics of employees working in Qatar and the three dimensions of organizational commitment?

4. To what degree are organizational characteristics (personal growth and development, job security, equity on paying salary and fringe benefits) related to each type of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative)?

5. To what degree are job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback on performance) related to each type of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative)?

6. To what degree are job satisfaction factors related to each component of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative)?

7. To what degree is each organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) related to both turnover intentions and acceptance of organizational changes in Qatar's workforce?

In order to answer these broad research questions, specific research hypotheses have been developed and these are presented in chapter three.

1.8   Significance of the Study

The need for all employees to exhibit behaviours beyond those listed on most job description forms is obvious for all organizations, and particularly so in Qatar. The growing importance in organizations seeking to meet the social goals for reducing

unemployment on the one hand, and increasing competitiveness on the other, calls for cooperative, initiative driven sets of attitudes from all organizational members.

This research aims to contribute to the growing body of literature in the area of organizational commitment in an international context and will try to fill some gaps in the OC literature. As explained before, most studies in OC focused on advanced industrial societies such as Japan, Canada, UK, and the United States. However, the findings of studies in other countries, particularly Western countries, cannot be generalized to Qatar because of cultural differences. Hofstede (1993) believed that the lack of success in economic development of other countries should be sufficient indication of the inappropriateness of Western management theories in non-Western countries. This study will be the first study investigating OC in the state of Qatar, one of the major developing countries in the Middle East. It will target three different sectors, government, public and private sector, and compare differences between domestic and non-domestic employees working in those Qatari sectors. In addition, as suggested by many researchers, this research will apply a multidimensional construct to measure organizational commitment.

The success of an organization depends not only on how the organization makes the most of human competences, but also on how it stimulates commitment to an organization. Researchers show that individuals and organizations are adversely affected when commitment is low (Randall, 1987), and that both benefit when commitment is high. Therefore, employee commitment, together with a competent workforce, seems to be of decisive importance for an organization to be able to remain competitive. This research on organizational commitment sets out to achieve the following significant points:

1. The findings and the recommendations of the first studies on OC in a developing nation, Qatar, will hopefully establish a better understanding of OC among workers within Qatar and foster better superior-subordinate relationships by identifying factors that influence employees' commitment, which is generally considered an attractive means of goal achievement, development, and part of the stability of any organization. In addition, this study will further our understanding in Qatar by identifying and testing a moderator of this relationship, nationality, in

a unique international setting. Many researchers emphasized that cross-cultural studies are helpful to understand the variations in commitment across countries. Now, cross-national studies are needed to meet the needs of globalization because many nations have become closer than in the past (Al-Kahtany, 1998).

2. By focusing on different sectors in Qatar, this study will uncover differences between government, public, and private sectors. Additionally, findings will also be used to validate some of the previous studies (i.e. private sector employees have often been reported to hold higher commitment than public sector employees (Rainey, 1997; Odom et al., 1990; and Savery, 1991)).

3. The study extends most of the previous research by studying the relationships between three different dimensions of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) with four sets of antecedent variables by using a multidimensional construct. Several researchers have criticised previous studies on this topic for applying unidimensional scales to measure commitment, which is now widely viewed as a multidimensional construct. For example, Suliman and Iles (1999) argued,

"Despite the wide theoretical agreement on the mediation role of commitment, few studies have attempted to explore the reality of this role, especially as a multidimensional construct. Therefore, to date, the nature of the relationships between commitment on one hand and its antecedents, consequences and correlates on the other hand remain unclear".

In addition, Iles et al., (1996) stated,

"Work on organizational commitment has been criticised for adopting a too simplistic model of commitment. On the one hand, there is a need to differentiate among the various facets or targets of commitment ... in addition, it also makes more sense to speak of organizational commitments ... Commitment itself is a more complex construct than it first appears (p. 19)".

4. The research will highlight the influence of organizational commitment on the organization's objectives and provide management with assistance in selecting

approaches for motivating both domestic and non-domestic employees (i.e. linking reward systems to the levels of organizational commitment).

5. This research will develop a better understanding of demographic composition and the implications of social and economic issues resulting from the existence of large number of workers from different nationalities in Qatar's labour market. The literature reveals that non-native employees experience a variety of challenges in the host environment and have difficulties adjusting to the work environment and new organizational demands (Black, 1992). As employee diversity in organizations increases throughout the world, a more complete understanding of nationality dynamics and workplace attitudes is needed (Arthur and Bennett, 1995).

6. Outcomes of the study will provide assistance to planners of organizational strategic management in properly allocating highly committed employees. Commitment may be helpful for building effective organizational recruitment on the basis of the level of commitment of both domestic and non-domestic employees in Qatar. Outcomes will also provide human resources departments with further information on how to recruit the right employees for organizations.

Chapter Two
Review of Literature on Organizational
Commitment

2.1   Introduction

This study will try to serve as a point of departure for future studies of the personal characteristics, job characteristics, job satisfaction and organizational commitment in Qatar and other Middle-Eastern countries. Chapter two and chapter three provide a review of research on organizational commitment, job satisfaction as well as selected demographic, job, and organizational characteristics among employees.

In this chapter, the literature review on organizational commitment topic is organized as follows: a general description of different definitions of organizational commitment is followed by the main approaches to OC as mentioned in the literature. Next, as many theorists have begun to consider commitment as a multidimensional construct, this chapter will discuss the multidimensional frameworks that have been offered. Moreover, three dimensions of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative commitment) will be explained, since their antecedents and consequences are likely to be quite different. Furthermore, this research will highlight some of the selected studies in organizational commitment in the Middle Eastern studies on organizational commitment, the public and private sector distinction, and studies in antecedents & consequences of organizational commitment. Finally, the major instruments and scales used in organizational commitment studies will be discussed.

2.2   Definitions and Development of Organizational Commitment

OC has been given considerable attention in management research over the past twenty-five years and has also been a popular concept with practitioners. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnysky's meta- analysis (2002) identified 70 published articles, dissertations, and other empirical research dealing with the concept of organizational commitment from 1985 to 2000.

Organizational commitment (OC) has emerged as one of the most important variables in the study of management and organizational behaviour. Morris et al. (1993) stated that "it is commonly noted that consensus over the definition of commitment does not exist". Suliman and Iles (2000) added that despite the plethora of studies of organizational commitment, and its nature, antecedents, consequences, and correlates, the issue remains ill defined and ill-conceptualised.

Although there are many definitions of OC and many ways to measure it, the most widely recognized definition comes from Porter and his colleagues in 1974 and a classic text on the subject by Mowday et al. (1982). It has been defined as "the relative strength of an 'individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Porter et al., 1974, p.27; Crewson. 1997, p.507), and 'the strength of a person's attachment to the organization' (Grusky, 1966, p. 489; Mowday et al. 1982; Steers, 1977, p.46). Therefore, Mowday et al. (1982) and Crewson (1997) summarized that organizational commitment has been operationalized as a combination of three common components:

1. A strong desire to remain a member of the organization (loyalty).
2. Willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organization (involvement).
3. A strong belief and acceptance of the organization's values and goals (identification).

The first two components can be related to employee motivation to produce or perform and the third component can be related to employee motivation to participate (March and Simon, 1958). These three characteristics show that commitment is not only an attitude, but also behaviour.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) provided a set of definitions taken from the work commitment literature. They mentioned different definitions related to commitment in general, organizational commitment, occupational career commitment, job commitment, goal commitment, commitment to organizational change, and commitment to a strategy. Examples of organizational commitment definitions as found in the organizational commitment literature are: "... the totality of normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests" (Wiener, 1982, p. 421), and "...the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization" (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986, p.493).

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) added that most studies on commitment focus on the organization as a whole. However, in some cases a distinction is made between organizational commitment and task commitment (Peeters and Meijer, 1995).

Gallie and White (1993) use the term "organizational commitment" to refer to acceptance of organizational values and to the willingness to stay in the organization. Farrell and Rusbult (1981) defined organizational commitment as the likelihood that individuals remain with the job and feel attached to it, whether or not it is satisfying.

Grusky (1966); Porter el al., (1974); Steers (1977); and Mowday et al. (1979), in their extensive work on organizational commitment, suggest that commitment is basically loyalty to the organization. Balay (2000, p.18) defines this term as one's own investments in an organization and inclining to attitudes resulting in social qualities.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) stated that "OC has been defined and measured in several different fashions. The various definitions and measures share a common theme in that OC is considered to be a bond linking of the individual to the organization. The definitions differ in terms of how this bond is considered to have developed" (p171).

One definition of commitment characterizes a committed worker as one who "stays with the organization through thick and thin" (Meyer and Allen, 1997, p.3).

It is clear from the above that no single definition of commitment in the literature has been universally adopted. However, definitions of OC have focused on these major issues: (1) exertion of extra effort beyond that expected from employees, (2) pride in the organization, (3) desire to stay in the organization, (4) internalisation of the values and goals of the organization, (5) willingness to accept any job in the organization in order to keep its membership, (6) loyalty to the organization, and (7) considering the organization the best of all organizations. Accordingly, OC refers to the nature of an individual's relationship to an organization and refers to a wide range of feelings, attitudes, values, practices and it is also reflected in the degree of attachment and dedication of an employee to his or her organization.

Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) identified three stages in the development of organizational commitment: (1) pre-entry or pre-employment, called the anticipation period; (2) early employment, called the initiation period; and (3) middle-and late-career employment, called the entrenchment period. The first period is characterized by employees' anticipation of certain things from the employing organization. That means that different goals, values and expectations of new employees can influence their initial commitment to the organization. The second stage or the early employment is characterized by personal influences, which include the demographics and expectations of employees. Mowday and McDade (1980) found first-day commitment to be related to commitment after one month. Finally, post-employment, or the entrenchment stage, is characterized by the increase in organization tenure, or length of service. The greater the length of service, the more likely it is that the employee will stay with the organization. Becker's (1960) side-bet theory indicates that commitment increases as the size and number of side bets increase. Side bets refer to an employee's personal investment in the organization, which includes efforts, friendships, promotion, pay, time, position and tenure.

2.3   The Main Approaches to Organizational Commitment

An important issue to address in this section is the nature of the targets to which employees become committed. A potential point of confusion in the commitment literature stems from the question of whether employees commit to a course of action or to an entity. Many researchers have defined OC as either attitudinal or behavioural (Becker, 1960; Mowday, et al, 1982; Salancik, 1977). Other researchers focused on normative approach or multidimensional approaches. In the next sections, different approaches will be discussed.

2.3.1   The Attitudinal Approach

This is the best-known approach for conceptualising organizational commitment. The attitudinal approach was initiated by Porter et al. (1974). Attitudinal OC is defined as: "The relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Conceptually, it can be characterized by at least three factors: a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization' goals and values; b) a

25

willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization" (Mowday et al., 1982, p.27).

The attitudinal approach views commitment as an attitude regarding the relationship between an employee and his/her workplace (Oliver, 1990; Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979; Lee et al., 1992; and Somers, 1995). These views of organizational commitment focused on affective and evaluative reaction toward the organization. Putti et al. (1990) commented that attitudinal commitment has a psychological bond between the individual and the employing organization. The attitudes of employees are reflected in tendencies to be involved in their employing organization, either favourably or unfavourably (Knoop, 1995). Attitudinal commitment is where individuals attach themselves to the organization in return for certain rewards/outcomes from the organization (March & Simon, 1958). Randall's (1993) review of cross-national studies on organizational commitment between 1977 and 1993 showed that twenty-two out of twenty-seven studies used the attitudinal approach to commitment. Attitudes of employees about their organization result from their beliefs about it. The importance of the focus on the attitudinal commitment has been explained by Reichers (1985), and Mottaz (1987), who strongly believed that attitudinal commitment, which is influenced by personal characteristics, can predict behavioural commitment. Furthermore, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) argued that researchers can predict the behaviours of individuals from their attitudes toward the object or event and that the measure of attitudes corresponds to the measure of behaviours. The view of attitudes as seen by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) is accompanied by general agreement among researchers that attitudes, no matter how we assess them, are among the many factors that influence the behaviours of individuals.

From the above, the attitudinal approach of commitment includes:
(1) Identification with the organization, such as acceptance of its goals;
(2) Involvement in organizational activities; and
(3) Loyalty to the organization.

To measure attitudinal commitment or affective commitment (as we will explain later) researchers have most frequently used the organizational commitment

questionnaire developed by Porter and his colleagues (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Mowday et al., 1982), the original or modified affective commitment scale items from Meyer and Allen (1984; 1993), or the British organizational commitment scale developed by Cook and Wall (1980).

2.3.2   The Behavioural Approach

The second most popular form of OC studied has been referred to as calculated or behavioural commitment. Built upon the work of Becker (1960), this approach is defined as "a structural phenomenon, which occurs as a result of individual-organizational transactions and alterations in side-bets or investment over time" (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972, p.556).

Behavioural commitment focuses on the influence of the individual's behaviours on attitudes to shape his or her commitment to the organization. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) observed that organizationally committed individuals were more likely to exhibit organization-serving behaviours. These behaviours are those that directly or indirectly benefit the organization, the work unit, or some other worker. This approach emphasises the view that an employee's investments (e.g. time, friendships, and pension) in the organization bind him or her to be loyal to the organization. Kanter (1968, p. 504) defined organizational commitment from this point of view as "profit associated with continued participation and a 'cost' associated with leaving". Researchers on this approach, such as Wiener & Gechman (1977) defined organizational commitment as socially accepted behaviours that exceed formal and/or normative expectations relevant to the object of commitment. Meyer & Allen (1984) have labelled this view of commitment as "continuance commitment" (i.e., commitment to continue a certain line of action).

From the above, the behavioural intention variables include:

(1) A willingness to exert effort and

(2) A desire to remain in the organization (Ferris & Aranya, 1983).

To measure this form of OC, researchers have most frequently used a scale developed by Hrebiniak & Alutto (1972) and the Continuance Commitment Scale developed by Meyer & Allen (1984) and Allen & Meyer (1990).

In summary, the attitudinal commitment approach is based upon acceptance of and belief in the goals of an organization or group, while the behavioural commitment approach is based upon binding behaviours or focuses on the influence of the individual's behaviours on attitudes to shape his or her commitment to the organization. Mowday et al. (1982) explained these two types of commitment as follows:

"Attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization. In many ways it can be thought of as a mind set in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organization. Behavioural commitment, on the other hand, is related to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with the problem" (p.26).

2.3.3   The Normative Approach

In addition to attitudinal and behavioural commitment, a third type of commitment, referred to as normative, has emerged from the organizational commitment literature. Normative commitment is based on the employee's moral obligation to reciprocate for benefits received from the organization. Marsh and Mannari (1977) discussed the notion of normative commitment as follows: "The committed employee considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him or her over the years" (p. 59).

To measure this form of OC (as we will explain later) researchers have most frequently used the original normative commitment scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) or the revised one developed by Meyer et al. (1993).

2.3.4   Commitment as a Multidimensional Construct

Some researchers argued that attitudinal and behavioural commitment are not entirely distinguishable concepts, because the measurement of each contains elements of the other (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Thus, some researchers have also suggested the integration of the approaches. For example, Kalleberg and Berg (1987) viewed commitment as the degree to which an employee identifies with the goals and values

of the organization and is willing to exert effort to help it succeed. Therefore, the investment of effort in the organization involves attitudes and intentional behaviours that lead to the achievement of organizational goals.

Kuruvilla & Fiorito (1994) argued that attitudinal commitment of employees toward their organization leads to behavioural intentions, but that behavioural intentions also are influenced by subjective norms. Thus, employees who often complain about their organization are more likely to leave it for another one when the opportunity arises. Their expressed feelings, beliefs, and intentions may give information that they will actually leave the organization.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) in their review of the workplace commitment literature suggest that individuals can commit to both entities and behaviours. They added that we read and speak about commitment to organizations, occupations, and unions (i.e., entities), as well as of commitment to work toward the attainment of goals and the implementation of policies (behaviours).

Thus, we can conclude that many theorists have begun to consider commitment as a multidimensional construct. However, there are clearly differences among the multidimensional frameworks that have been offered. Nevertheless, there are also important similarities.

Some researchers argued that organizational commitment does not develop simply through emotional attachment, perceived costs or moral obligation, but through the interplay of all these three components. Some valuable studies have contributed to the birth of this conceptualisation. Kelman (1958) put forward the basic principles underlying this approach in his study entitled: "Compliance, identification, and internalisation: three processes of attitudinal change". According to Kelman, "the underlying process in which an individual engages when he adopts induced behaviour may be different, even though the resulting overt behaviour may appear the same" (Kelman, 1958, p. 53).

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) also called for consideration of organizational commitment as a multidimensional construct. They brought Kelman's three processes

approach again to the forefront by adopting it in their study as a basis for conceptualising organizational commitment. Since that time the multidimensional approach has been gaining support year after year. Researchers such as Allen & Meyer (1996); Brown (1996); Benkhoff (1997); and Jaros (1997) suggest that it could bring an end to the disappointing and inconsistent results often reported for organizational commitment research. Reichers (1985) also offered three different organizational commitment definitions, based on side-bets, attributions and individual/organizational goal congruence. Reichers argued that researchers must ignore the global view of organizational commitment and focus on specific commitments to various entities within the organization.

In the next sections, some of the important models that appeared in the literature will be explained in detail.

2.3.4.1 Meyer and Allen's Model of Organizational Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed their three-component model based on the observation that there were both similarities and differences in existing unidimensional conceptualisations of organizational commitment. They argued that commitment binds an individual to an organization, and thereby reduces the likelihood of turnover. They provided three distinguishable dimensions: affective attachment to the organization, perceived cost of leaving, and obligation to remain. Meyer and Allen argued that commitment might be accompanied by one or more of these topics and therefore incorporated all three into their model. To distinguish among commitments characterized by these topics, they labelled them affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Meyer & Allen regard affective, continuance, and normative commitment as components of commitment rather than as types of commitment. They thus argue that an employee's relationship with an organization might reflect varying degree of affective, continuance, and normative commitments.

In 1996, in their review of their model, Meyer and Allen concluded that the evidence generally supports their hypotheses concerning the dimensionality of the construct. However, there is some disagreement about whether affective and normative

commitment are truly distinguishable forms of commitment, and whether continuance commitment is a unidimensional construct.

2.3.4.2 O'Reilly and Chatman's Model

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) developed their multidimensional framework based on the assumption that commitment represents an attitude toward the organization, and that there are various mechanisms through which attitudes can develop. Therefore, based on Kelman's (1958) work on attitude and behaviour change, O'Reilly and Chatman argued that commitment could take three distinct forms, which they labelled compliance (similar to continuance commitment), identification (similar to normative commitment), and internalisation (similar to affective commitment).

"Compliance attitudes and behaviours stem not from shared beliefs but simply to gain rewards. Identification occurs when an individual respects values and achievements of other without accepting them as his/her own. Internalisation occurs when the values of the individual and organization are the same" (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986, p.493).

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) provided support for the three-dimensional structure of their commitment measure. In subsequent research, however, investigators such as Vandenberg, Self, and Seo (1994) had some difficulty in distinguishing identification and internalisation; the measures tended to correlate highly with one another and showed similar patterns of correlations with measures of other variables. Thus, in their research, O'Reilly & his colleagues combined the identification and internalisation items to form what they called normative commitment.

Compliance is clearly distinct from identification and internalisation. It differs not only in terms of the basis for acceptance of influence, but also in its relation to turnover. For example, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) found that compliance is correlated positively rather than negatively with turnover. Given that organizational commitment is generally considered to reduce the likelihood of turnover, this finding has raised some question about whether compliance can be considered a form of organizational commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Examination of the items used to measure compliance, however, suggests another possible interpretation. The items address employees' motivation to comply with day-to-day pressures for performance,

31

not with pressures to remain in the organization. Thus, rather than measuring commitment to remain, O'Reilly and Chatman's compliance measure might assess commitment to perform. If so, compliance is similar in some respects to continuance commitment in Meyer & Allen's model, but with a different behavioural focus.

2.3.4.3 Other Multidimensional Conceptualisations

Kanter (1968) suggested three forms of commitment: continuance, cohesion, and control, and that an employee would be subject to all three, although one form may dominate. Continuance commitment comes from the accumulated sacrifices and involvements made by employees who come to feel that they have too much to lose by quitting. Cohesion (similar to affective commitment) commitment stems from attachment to social groups in the organization. Control commitment (similar to normative commitment) arises when employees believe that the norms and values of an organization represent a suitable model to follow to guide their own actions and work.

Angle & Perry (1981) distinguished between value commitment and commitment to stay based on the results of a factor analysis of items from the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ: Mowday and Porter). Although it is generally considered a unidimensional measure, Angle & Perry's analysis revealed two factors underlying the OCQ — one defined by items assessing willingness to remain (commitment to stay) and the other by items assessing support for organizational goals (value commitment). Based on these findings, as well as the results of their own research using a refined measure developed by Schechter (1985), Meyer and Schoorman (1992) also suggested that organizational commitment has two dimensions, which they labelled continuance commitment (desire to remain) and value commitment (willingness to exert effort).

Although there is some similarity between the dimensions of organizational commitment identified by Angle & Perry (1981) and Mayer & Schoorman (1992) and those identified by Allen and Meyer (1990), there is an important difference. According to Meyer and Allen, the three components of commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) differ primarily in terms of the mind-set that binds the individual to the organization.

Jaros et al. (1993) suggested a multidimensional conceptualisation of commitment that also appears similar to that of Allen and Meyer (1990). Specifically, they distinguished between affective, continuance, and moral commitment. Again, however, there are important differences. First, although both view affective commitment as reflecting a feeling of emotional attachment to the organization, Jaros et al. (1993) placed considerably more emphasis on the actual affect experienced by employees than did Meyer & Allen. Indeed, the measure used by Jaros et al. consists of an affect adjective checklist. Moreover, Jaros et al.'s definition of moral commitment (internalisation of goals and values) corresponds more closely to Meyer & Allen's definition of affective commitment than to their definition of normative commitment. Only in the case of continuance commitment do their conceptual definitions correspond.

2.4   Notable Studies of Organizational Commitment

As mentioned before, the concept of organizational commitment has received a great deal of empirical study, both as a consequence and an antecedent of other work-related variables of interest. This is because of the growing evidence that there is a relationship between certain antecedent variables and commitment and between commitment and certain outcome variables.

Although many studies have investigated the role of OC in mediating the relationships between its antecedent and consequences variables, those of Mowday et al. (1982) and Mathieu & Zajac (1990) are the most widely recognised studies in this field. Mowday et al.'s (1982) meta-analysis defined four groups of antecedents and five groups of consequences; however, Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta-analysis of the antecedents and consequences of commitment reported five antecedents and only one outcome. These studies do clearly reveal, however, that commitment mediates relationships between antecedents and consequences. In other words, the antecedents predict commitment, and commitment in turn predicts the consequences.

The following sub-sections will highlight some of the selected studies in organizational commitment in: (1) public employees in comparison with private employees, (2) cross cultural studies of organizational commitment, (3) Middle

Eastern studies on organizational commitment, and (4) studies of the consequences of organizational commitment.

2.4.1 Organizational Commitment & Sector Distinctions

Organizational commitment is an important variable, especially when there are increasing needs for retaining quality employees in the public and government sectors as well as in the private sector. Differences between government, public and private organizations and organizational factors and contextual characteristics have been examined and have been widely discussed regarding organizational culture, structure, environment, motivation, commitment, and job satisfaction. Because differences influence individual commitment and behaviour, many studies (e.g., Buchanan, 1974a, 1974b; Chubb & Moe, 1990; Rainey, 1983, 1997; Steinhaus & Perry, 1996) have explored organizational commitment to find the differences between different sectors and OC.

Researchers such as Pierce & Furo (1990) and Wetzel & Gallagher (1990) suggested that the type of organizational ownership could affect organizational commitment. Other researchers have uncovered a substantial effect of "publicness" on individual attachment to the organization and suggest that individual demographic and job characteristic variables are not particularly salient correlates of commitment in comparison with the nature of the ownership of the organization (Oliver, 1990; Wetzel & Gallagher, 1990).

Scholars (e.g. Angle & Perry, 1981; Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Steinhaus & Perry, 1996) have therefore extended their research to examine distinctive characteristics of organizational commitment of public employees in comparison with that of private employees. Comparison of public and private employees on their levels of organizational commitment, with each of its antecedent structures, is important because studies often describe public organizations as having more "public" and diffuse goals compared to their counterparts in many private firms. These differences influence individual commitment and behaviour. Many studies have a stereotypical assertion that public employees have lower levels of organizational commitment than their counterparts in private firms (Rainey, 1997; Odom et al., 1990; Savery, 1991). In

that regard, Buchanan (1974a, 1974b) found that public managers have a lower level of organizational commitment than private managers.

The following paragraphs provide details on selected studies in commitment and sectors.

Balfour and Wechsler (1990) found that public organizations are likely to have a higher level of internalisation commitment but a lower level of identification commitment than private organizations. They added that the strength of an individual's attachment to the organization is a function of several dimensions of organizational experience that can be inconsistent in their effects. Public employees, in particular, may be simultaneously repelled by and attracted to the organization. Their desires to serve important values may be undercut by low or negative feelings of affiliation.

Wittmer (1991) found that there are significant differences between the public and private sector in managers' values and rewards preferences. Private managers are more likely to be motivated by monetary rewards than public managers, whereas other organizational motivation factors (promotion, prestige, co-worker friendship, and opportunities for public service) are not significantly different between sectors.

Balfour and Wechsler (1991) found that public managers' organizational commitment (e.g., identification and internalisation commitment) tends to have a positive association with their desire to stay at a job but not necessarily with their willingness to put forth extra effort for an organization.

Steinhaus and Perry (1996) found that the type of industry has a more significant contextual effect on organizational commitment than sector.

Crewson (1997) found that there is a consistent difference in the reward motivation between public and private employees, based on the results obtained from multiple hierarchical regression models.

Cho and Lee (2001) in their article, "Another look at Public-Private distinction and organizational commitment", argued that most studies commonly agree on a number of differences between the two sectors: (1) Public agencies have greater diversity and multiplicity of objectives and criteria and greater conflict among objectives and products (Banfield, 1975; Rainey, Backoff, & Levine, 1976). (2) Public agencies have less decision-making autonomy and flexibility, and more constraints on procedures, spheres of operations, and have greater tendencies to proliferation of formal specifications and controls (Rainey, Backoff, & Levine, 1976; Rainey, 1997). (3) Public employees score higher on concentration of authority at the top, where personal procedures are highly centralized or externally controlled (Downs, 1967; Pugh, Hickson, & Hinings, 1969). (4) Public employees have lower valuation of pecuniary incentives than private sector employees (Banfield, 1975; Rainey, Backoff, & Levine, 1976; Cacioppe & Mock, 1984). (5) Public organizations tend to have lower organizational commitment and job satisfaction than private organizations (Buchanan, 1974a, 1974b; Chubb & Moe, 1990). (6) Public employees are lower on their prestige and social status (Jurkiewicz, Massey, & Brown, 1998).

2.4.2   Cross Cultural Studies of Organizational Commitment

A number of studies have been undertaken in separate national cultures. Research on organizational commitment conducted in separate national cultures has shown that the meaning of the commitment and predictors of commitment differ (Near, 1989; Knoop, 1994; Sommer et al., 1996; Pearson and Chong, 1997; Bae & Chung, 1997; Williams et al., 1998). For example, in a study of Malaysian nurses, Pearson and Chong (1997) noted that "harmony, non-aggressiveness, and a strong preference for a relationship-based orientation" (1997, p.370) were key to Malaysian values and that these values predicted affective commitment. Similarly, in a sample of Korean workers, a warm, supportive climate positively predicted (affective) commitment (Sommer et al., 1996). Later, Bae and Chung (1997) asserted that among Korean workers, commitment means loyalty and devotion. Chang's (1999) study showed that Korean subjects were unable to operationalize continuance commitment. In Knoop's study of Canadian nurses, pride was found to be the most meaningful predictor of affective commitment.

Parnell & Crandall (2003) provided support for the argument that management behaviour is deeply embedded in culture. More specifically, their results suggest that management behaviours seen positively in one culture are not always viewed as such in another. Near (1989) found that freedom was positively correlated with commitment for Americans, but not Japanese. For Japanese, seniority was positively related to commitment. Glazer et al. (2004) stated that several values, such as freedom and achievement, might be important predictors of commitment in individualistic societies, whereas other values, such as respect, tradition and seniority, might be important predictors of commitment in communal societies. They added that the lack of agreement across these studies may be due to the cultures within which these studies were conducted.

The organization becomes like a family unit; when maintaining relationships becomes important, people become more aware of and want to fulfil the expectations of others. Thus, social pressures might influence committed behaviours (Abrams et al, 1998).

2.4.3   Organizational Commitment & Middle Eastern Studies

The literature indicates that there are a large number of studies about attitudes, perceptions, and behaviours of culturally diverse workforce. In addition, a relatively large number of OC studies have been undertaken in western societies where management science and literature were born and have quickly grown and developed. However, organizational behaviour research in a Middle Eastern context, particularly organizational commitment, has received little attention by scholars. Thus, there are only a handful studies conducted in the Arabian context as a whole. Additionally, commitment studies have been limited to traditional variables such as age, education, and tenure. There is a belief, however, that commitment is an important issue for work organizations in a Middle Eastern context and that it "... fosters better superior-subordinate relationships and improves organizational climate development, growth and survival" (Awamleh, 1996, p. 65). This section provides details on the more meaningful selected Middle East studies in commitment and other related issues.

- Al-Qattan (1987) examined the relationship between commitment and performance in Saudi Arabia. His study analysed the relationship between organizational commitment and each of several personal characteristics. It was a

37

field and comparative study including a sample of 270 Asian, Arabian, Saudi and Western workers employed by Saudi institutions. It revealed that Arabian and Asian workers displayed greater commitment than did Western and Saudi workers included in the sample. It also revealed that there was a positive relationship between organizational commitment on the one hand and age, length of service, education and job performance on the other.

- Al-Meer (1989) examined the levels of organizational commitment of Saudis, Asians, and Westerners on a limited number of personal variables such as age, tenure, and education. Al-Meer's study did not investigate the levels of organizational commitment of other Arab nationalities in Saudi organizations, but it suggested exploring the commitment of Arab nationalities in future research.

- Building on the works of Gibson & Teasely (1973), a study conducted in the context of the public sector of Saudi Arabia reported that job environment, especially supervision, promotion practices and job mobility are of substantial importance in predicting job satisfaction (Al Rahimi, 1990). The analysis of the study also indicates that individual attributes also influence job satisfaction through affecting perceptions of the work situation.

- Al-Outaibi (1992) found that the Kuwaiti workers in the public sector were less satisfied and committed than non-Kuwaiti workforce employed in the same and similar organizations.

- A replication of Holland's Self-Directed Search (SDS) as a measure of vocational interest in Arab culture tested in Kuwait did not reveal any significant relationship with either overall job satisfaction or intrinsic or extrinsic components of satisfaction (Hassan, 1993).

- Al Rasheed (1994) has reported that Jordanian bank managers' pattern of motivation and job satisfaction and their interpretation of the higher goals of the jobs are similar to those of Western managers. His study covered 266 bank managers working in as many as 21 different banks in Jordan.

- Awamleh (1996) investigated the organizational commitment of civil service managers in Jordan. He employed descriptive, analytical and field survey methodologies. Awamleh's study revealed a weak yet negative relationship between managers' commitment and sex, age, education, and length of service and a weak yet positive relationship between managers' commitment and organizational level.

- Bhuian and Islam (1996) studied continuance commitment in Saudi Arabia. They called for the development of hiring, training, and incentive programmes to increase the level of employees' continuance commitment. They concluded that: "... when employees perceive higher job security and greater satisfaction with jobs in general, the level of their continuance commitment will be higher. This can be useful because enhancing job security and creating a positive work environment could be economical decisions of firms in terms of reducing costs associated with losing employees (Bhuian & Islam, 1996, p. 7)."

- Yousef (1998) studied satisfaction, job security, organizational commitment and job performance in the United Arab Emirates. Yousef found "...a positive correlation, although not very strong, between satisfaction with job security and organizational commitment, as well as between satisfaction with job security and performance" (p.192).

- Al-Kahtany (1998) made a cross-national comparison between Arab and non-Arab employees in Saudi Petrochemical Companies. He measured different personal demographics and job related factors to investigate if there is a difference in the level of employees' commitment between Arab and non-Arab ethnicities. His findings indicated that differences in employees' demographics and job based variables influence the levels of their OC. Thus, the greater the differences in employees' demographics and job based factors, the greater the differences in the levels of their commitment to their employing organization. Additionally, he found that Arab employees had higher levels of organizational commitment than non-Arab employees.

- Abdulla and Shaw (1999) investigated the relationship between personal factors and continuance and affective organizational commitment. Data were collected from a sample of 147 employees from the Ministry of Health in the United Arab Emirates. The data were analyzed using zero-order and partial correlations and hierarchical multiple regression analysis. The results showed that personal factors are differently related to the two types of commitment and provide partial support for the moderating role of nationality between other personal factors and organizational commitment.

- Suliman and Iles (2000) examined the multidimensionality nature of commitment in a non-western context (Jordan). They suggested that continuance commitment is a positive organizational phenomenon, and that organizations should encourage it rather than discouraging its development in the workplace.

- Bhuian et al. (2001) investigated the influence of job satisfaction, job autonomy, job variety, task identity, feedback, and employee demographics on organizational commitment among self-initiated expatriates in Saudi Arabia. The results revealed that only job satisfaction and job variety are related to organizational commitment.

- Suliman (2002) explored the mediating role of organizational commitment when he examined the relationship between perceived work climate and performance with using a self-administered questionnaire in Jordan. The results revealed that OC and its two dimensions (normative and continuance) play different roles in mediating the relationship between perceived work climate and performance.

2.4.4   Studies of the Consequences of Organizational Commitment

A large number of studies have been undertaken on the consequences of organizational commitment in different countries. Many of these studies have argued that organizational commitment is a better measurement of human behaviour in organizations than some other related measures including job satisfaction and job involvement (Steers and Porter, 1983; Crewson, 1997).

The following are details of some of the selected studies on the consequences (or outcomes) of organizational commitment.

- Organizational commitment has been at the centre of the studies into individual and organizational performance for several decades. However, there have been mixed results on the relationship between organizational commitment and performance. While some researchers have found a significant positive relationship between employees' affective commitment scores and their supervisors' ratings of their overall performance of in-role behaviour (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Meyer et al, 1989; Somers, 1995; Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; and Geurtz et al., 1999) others have found weak links or no relationship of significance (Angle and Perry, 1981; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990, Cohen, 1991). Some have even found a negative relationship between commitment and performance, especially when individuals feel a significant extrinsic investment (time, pension, pay scale) in the organization (Meyer et al, 1989; Shore & Wayne, 1993).

- A variety of studies have examined the relationship between the different kinds of commitment and absenteeism. According to Steers (1977), Angle & Perry (1981) Cotton & Turtle (1986), Cohen (1991), Somers (1995), and Geurtz et al. (1999) higher levels of organizational commitment are linked to lower absenteeism. Meyer (1997) found that affective commitment has the strongest relation with absence behaviour. However, continuance commitment has not found strong support in the absenteeism literature (Mayer & Schoorman, 1992). Meyer et al., (1993) reported significant, albeit modest, negative correlations between self-reports of voluntary absenteeism and both affective and normative commitment while Somers (1995) found no relationship between normative commitment and absenteeism.

- Many studies have examined the relationship between the different facets of commitment and turnover. According to Mowday et al. (1982) voluntary turnover is one of the most widely reported consequences of low commitment. Examining

the outcomes of the three types of commitment and turnover, researchers found that they have different relationships with turnover intentions. For example, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found larger negative relationships between OC and turnover intentions than actual turnover behaviour (corrected r =-0.46 and -0.28, respectively). They also found that affective commitment was more negatively related to turnover intentions (corrected r = -0.52) than was continuance commitment (corrected r =-0.22). The results indicate that employees are less likely to leave their organizations when they identify with the organization (Iverson, 1996; Somers, 1995; Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). Other researchers also show that affective and continuance commitment correlate negatively with turnover, but that the two types of commitment are related to work outcomes, other than turnover, in different ways (Stanley et al., 1999). Some researchers found that employees exhibiting normative commitment display a lower propensity to leave the organization (Hackett et al., 1994; Jaros et al., 1993; Somers, 1995).

- Some studies have examined the relationship between the different kinds of commitment and attendance. Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta analysis concluded that OC has a positive, yet relatively small relationship with attendance (corrected r =0.10). Steers (1977) indicated that employees who were highly committed to an organization "should be more likely to have a strong desire to come to work and contribute toward goal attainment" (p.48). Other researchers such as Gellatly (1995) and Organ & Ryan (1995) found that affective commitment correlates positively with attendance and with organizational citizenship behaviour, while continuance commitment has been shown to be negatively or only weakly related to these same criteria (Stanley et al., 1999).

- According to Angle and Perry (1981), some parallels can be drawn between the elements of organizational commitment and motivation. A committed employee who has a definite desire to maintain organizational membership will most likely be highly motivated to participate in the organization. In other words, an employee who is willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and who believes in and accepts the organizational goals, in combination, is

motivated to produce for the organization. Angle and Perry regarded employees' commitment to their organization as one of the major determinants of organizational effectiveness.

- A further benefit of commitment to organizations is that it is closely associated with job satisfaction (Vandenberg and Lance, 1992; Simmons, 2005; and Cetin, 2006). Commitment is also linked to the way employees respond to dissatisfaction at work. For example, Meyer et al., (1993) examined three such responses: voice, loyalty, and neglect. Both affective and normative commitment were positively related to willingness to suggest improvements (voice) and to accept things as they were (loyalty) and negatively related to passive withdrawal from the dissatisfying situation (neglect).

- Some studies have examined the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational productivity. Steers (1977) offered the assumption that "committed employees would expend greater effort on the job" (p.48). Balfour and Wechsler (1996) pointed out that overall organizational commitment is an appropriate and significant question for those who are interested in organizational productivity and performance. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) indicated that employees who are committed would be more likely to engage in more creative and innovative behaviours which would enhance their performance and keep the organization competitive.

2.5   The Three Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been expanded to a more comprehensive view than the measure developed by Mowday and his colleagues (1979). Several forms of organizational commitment have been identified in the literature. As mentioned before, some researchers have defined commitment as *behavioural* commitment (Salanick, 1977) or *attitudinal* commitment (Mowday et al., 1982). Others offered a multi-dimensional model of commitment. Thus, many specialists in the field of organizational commitment have now agreed that there are at least two complementary dimensions, which compose the construct: the affective dimension

and the continuance dimension (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Angle and Lawson, 1993).

Organizational commitment may have several different psychological bases. For that reason, researchers have tested OC in multi-dimensional ways. Among these, the most common one that has been widely used in this field is Meyer and Allen Classifications. Meyer and Allen (1991) assert that organization commitment comprises affective, continuance, and normative dimensions. They stated that when all these three types of commitment are taken into consideration, an individual's relationship with his/her organization can be understood better. When these commitment types increase, an individual's desire to stay in his organization rises as well.

Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that employees with high affective commitment continue because they want to, those with high normative commitment because they think they should, and those with high continuance commitment because they need to. In these circumstances, desire appears to be the first priority, necessity the second priority and obligation the third priority. Meyer and Allen (1997, p.13) advise that the three components should not be seen as mutually exclusive types of commitment, but as components that can variously co-exist; that is, a person's commitment can be based upon one, two, or all three reasons.

The three components of organizational commitment will be explained in detail in the next sections. Each of the three aspects of commitment is thought to contribute to a psychological state which characterizes an employee's relationship with the organization, and has implications for their continuing membership, and may be affected by different antecedents or have potentially different consequences with regard to absenteeism, job performance, citizenship, and other topics (Reichers, 1985; Meyer and Allen, 1991, 1993).

2.5.1 Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is the employee's attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to (Meyer and Allen,

1997). Mowday et al. (1979, 1982) characterized affective commitment in their definition of organizational commitment as entailing "a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization". Affective commitment refers to feelings of belonging and sense of attachment to the organization. Affective commitment has also been referred to as value commitment (Angle and Perry, 1981; Meyer and Schoorman, 1992) or identification commitment (Bar-Hayim and Berman, 1992). The affective commitment dimension has been related to personal characteristics, organizational structures, and work experiences (pay, supervision, role clarity, and skill variety).

Affective commitment happens when the employee has an emotional or psychological commitment and wants to stay with the company. Individuals whose OC is based on affective commitment continue employment with the organization because of their desire to do so; this desire is based on the individual's degree of identification with the organization and his or her willingness to assist the organization in pursuing its goals (Hackett et al. 1994). Akhtar and Tan (1994) suggested that organizations enhance affective commitment by "improving welfare measures, developing trust between superiors and subordinates, creating conditions for collegial relations in the work place, and other activities that promote feelings of belongingness in the organization" (p.1388).

2.5.2   Continuance Commitment

This is related to a person's experience that has been given to an organization, difficulty in giving it up, the cost incurred if he leaves the organization or having few or no alternatives when he leaves the organization. Meyer et al., (1993) stated that skill and education are not easily transferred to other organizations, so they increase workers' commitment to their own organizations. Those who stay within their organizations with strong continuance commitment are in their organization because they need it (Meyer et al., 1993, p.539).

Continuance commitment relates to perceived costs of leaving, both financial and non-financial (Becker, 1960) and perceived lack of alternatives (McGee & Ford 1987; Allen and Meyer 1990). When an employee feels continuance commitment, he or she

perceives the cost of leaving the organization as too high (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Some of the potential costs of leaving include lost effort if skills or systems are non-transferable; disruption associated with changes in family arrangements; and loss of valued, future opportunities. Meyer & Allen added that potential side-bets that may result in high levels of continuance commitment include the time and effort spent acquiring non-transferable skills and the loss of attractive benefits or seniority-based privileges.

Continuance commitment increases when an individual invests in an organization or gets benefits from the organization because they will be lost when he or she leaves the organization. Where there is a lack of alternatives, this type of commitment is developed. Akhtar and Tan (1994) indicated that continuance commitment could be increased through "the appropriate use of rewards, job redesign, goal setting, career planning, and organizational goals" (p.1388). Shouksmith (1994) suggested that one of the ways to enhance the probability of continuance commitment would be to increase the possibility for promotion within the organization.

2.5.3 Normative Commitment

According to the normative approach, congruency between an employee's goals and values and organizational aims makes him or her feel obligated to the organization.

Normative commitment reflects an individual's feelings of obligation to stay within an organization, not for personal advantage, but because an individual thinks such behaviour is ethical and right. The commitment, which develops as a result of socialization, shows an individual's loyalty to his or her employer. Those who have a strong normative commitment stay in their organizations just because they feel obliged to do so (Meyer et al., 1993, p.539). This sense of obligation is based on what Wiener (1982) described as generalized cultural expectations that "a man" should not change his job too often or "he" may be labelled untrustworthy and erratic.

Normative commitment can increase when people feel loyal to their employer or responsible to work for the benefits that they gets from the organization (e.g.; training of skills, payment of study costs, and consideration of special needs (forgiveness for missed deadlines due to family commitments)) as a result of the desire to compensate

the favours received from the institution (Meyer et al., 1993). Normative commitment may last only until the "debt" is perceived to be paid and hence is subject to rationalization if other circumstances change (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Akhtar and Tan (1994) suggested that normative commitment could be promoted through "proper selection of employees, job previews, induction training, and organizational socialization" (p.1388). This could help to match organizational and employee expectations as well as facilitate the entry of new employees.

2.6   Organizational Commitment Scales

Interest in organizational commitment as an explanation of behaviours such as employees' performance led to the development of several scales for measuring OC. In addition to the debates about definitions of commitment and attitudinal and behavioural bases of commitment, measurement of OC is another area of debate between researchers. The best known organizational commitment scales are:

1. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Porter et al. (1974) (which was later refined by Mowday et al., 1979 and 1982);

2. The British Organizational Commitment Scale (BOCS) developed by Cook & Wall (1980); and,

3. The Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed and revised by Allen & Meyer (Allen & Meyer, 1990 and 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1991, 1993, 1997).

Each of the above instruments will be explained in detail.

2.6.1   The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

As mentioned before, Porter et al. (1974) concluded that OC is characterized by: (1) a belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values; (2) the willingness to exert individual effort toward the accomplishment of organizational goals; and, (3) a strong desire to maintain organizational membership. To measure OC, Porter et al. (1974) developed an instrument referred to as the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, or OCQ.

47

The OCQ used by Mowday et al. (1979) represents the most popular measure of the construct and was used in 103 of the 174 studies reviewed by Mathieu and Zajac (1990). In addition, Randall's (1993) cross-national studies on organizational commitment between 1977 and 1993 showed that nineteen out of twenty-seven studies used the OCQ developed by Porter el al. (1974). This instrument has demonstrated good psychometric properties and has been used in many studies (e.g., Angle & Perry, 1981; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Mathieu & Farr, 1991; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994).

The OCQ can be used in two ways, according to its authors: in its 15-item form or in its reduced 9-item form (items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 13, and 14). The 15-item questionnaire was designed to measure the degree to which subjects feel committed to the employing organization. The items in the instrument measured the global organizational commitment of employees across nations. These items included in OCQ are: (1) extra organizational involvement, (2) pride in the organization, (3) loyalty to the organization, (4) desire to stay with the organization, (5) intent to stay with the organization, (6) care about the organization, (7) inspiration by the organization, (8) match of goals and values, (9) seeking alternative employment, (10) right employment choice, (11) best job performance, (12) difficulty to agree with policies regarding employees, (13) a definite mistake regarding the joining of this organization, (14) a great organization to work for, and (15) compliance with organizational policies (see appendix A).

All items represent statements to which the subject responds on 7-point Likert-type scales, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Mathieu & Zajac (1990) support the unidimensional nature of this scale and along with Morrow (1993) and McElroy et al. (1995), recommend using the short version of the OCQ (modified OCQ) to measure organizational commitment. Examples of OCQ are: "I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful," and, "I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for."

The relatively high internal reliability indices found by previous researchers for the OCQ (average proportional to =0.88 and proportional to =0.86) for the 15 and 9 item

versions of the OCQ encouraged researchers of organizational commitment to adhere to Porter et al.'s (1974) definition, which views commitment as an affective construct, and to use the Porter et al. scale as it was initially designed, which means calculating an overall commitment score.

The uni-dimensional OCQ came under criticism as being too simplistic and failing to recognize the multiple dimensions of commitment (Reichers, 1985). Other researchers have criticized OCQ for lack of homogeneity (Benkhoff, 1997).

Dunham et al. (1994), Iverson & Buttigieg (1999), Ketchad & Strawser (2001), and Suliman (2002) have identified the existence of multiple dimensions of OC and found different relationships between these dimensions and organizational commitment components. Dunham et al. (1994) conclude that previous research using the OCQ is only able to examine the affective component of organizational commitment and the failure to consider multiple dimensions of organizational commitment may prevent firms from identifying methods of increasing the commitment held by their employees. Others argued that the OCQ appears to be much more closely related to affective commitment (scale correlations (r's) ranging from 0.71 to 0.87) than continuance commitment (r's ranging from -0.01 to -0.23) (Dunham et al. 1994; Hackett et al. 1994). Hackett et al. (1994) added that a multidimensional approach to organizational commitment provides a more accurate understanding of an individual's involvement with his/her organization and multiple dimensions of organizational commitment have different relationships to turnover intentions and other work-related behaviours.

2.6.2 British Organizational Commitment Scale (BOCS)

Cook and Wall (1980) developed the British Organizational Commitment Scale (BOCS) with particular reference to manual workers. BOCS measures three subscales of commitment: identification with the organization, involvement, and loyalty to the organization (the three subscales are shown in the Appendix B). According to Cook and Wall (1980), the internal reliability of this scale is between alpha 0.80 and 0.87.

Cook and Wall's (1980) scale consists of 9 items. Examples of items included in the identification subscale are: "I am quite proud to be able to tell people that I work for

organization" and "I feel myself to be part of organization". An example of items included in the involvement subscale is: "I am not willing to put myself out just to help the organization (Revised)". Finally, an example of items included in the loyalty subscale is: "Even if the organization were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer".

Cook and Wall's scale does not appear to have been used by many researchers, compared to other OC scales such as the OCQ or scales developed by Meyer and Allen. Some researchers such as Peccei & Guest, 1993; Fletcher & Williams, 1996; and Simmons, 2005 used this scale. Peccei and Guest (1993) extensively reviewed BOCS. They found that there is a gap between Cook and Wall's definition of commitment and the way it was operationalized, in particular goal and value internalisation. Peccei & Guest (1993) also argued that both BOCS and the OCQ can be criticised for failing to differentiate sufficiently between commitment as a psychological state and some of its presumed consequences.

2.6.3 Meyer & Allen's Organizational Commitment Scales (OCS)

In the beginning, Meyer and Allen (1984) developed an eight-item scale to measure affective commitment (known as the Affective Commitment Scale) in lieu of, or in conjunction with, the OCQ. Previous research has found that the affective commitment scale correlates highly with OCQ, with r ranging from 0.77 to 0.84 (Dunham et al. 1994; Meyer & Allen 1984). Meyer and Allen (1984) then developed an eight-item continuance commitment scale and found it (1) did not correlate with the affective commitment scale and (2) differentially related to important variables such as age and tenure, theoretically related to OC. These findings support the discriminant validity of the continuance commitment scale and the existence of a separate dimension of OC. In 1990, the affective and continuance commitment subscales (Meyer & Allen, 1984) were supplemented by the normative subscale to form the three-component concept of organizational commitment.

Each of the above aspects of commitment is thought to contribute to a psychological state which characterizes an employee's relationship with the organization, and has implications for their continuing membership, and may be affected by different antecedents or have potentially different consequences with regard to absenteeism,

job performance, and citizenship (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Reichers, 1985). Hackett et al. (1994) contend that a multidimensional approach to organizational commitment provides a more accurate understanding of an individual's involvement with his/her organization and multiple dimensions of organizational commitment have different relations to turnover intentions and other work-related behaviours.

Allen and Meyer's (1990) scale consists of 24 items. Examples of items included in the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) include: "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization", "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own". Examples of the items included in the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) include: "Too much in my life would be disrupted, if I decided that I wanted to leave my organization now", "It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted". Examples of items included in the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) include: "I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it", "I owe a great deal to my organization". The three dimension items comprising the ACS, CCS, NCS are shown in Appendix C.

Evidence to support the three-component conceptualization was found where acceptable internal consistency reliabilities were demonstrated (Allen and Meyer, 1990; McGee and Ford, 1987; Suliman and Iles, 2000). Kuehn and Al-Busaidy (2002) also examined the original instrument of the organizational commitment components. They found the organizational commitment instrument's internal consistency reliability to be .75. Morrow (1993) in her work on commitment found the reliability values for the three components of OC as follows: ACS =.79, CCS =.73 and NCS = .52. Luchak and Gellatly (2001) found the reliability (coefficient alpha) of the affective and continuance commitment scales to be .81 and .76, respectively. Exploratory factor analysis supported the existence of three distinct facets of the multi-dimensional model (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Dunham, Graube, and Castaneda, 1994).

Although the 24-item organizational commitment scale developed by Allen & Meyer (1990) has been shown to be robust regarding its internal consistency and construct validity in most previous studies, there is research evidence to suggest that some scale

items may reflect different constructs than originally envisioned by Allen and Meyer. McGee and Ford (1987) found, by conducting an exploratory analysis on the 24-item multi dimensional scale, that two scale items from the continuance commitment scale reflected a non interpretable factor. Hackett et al. (1994) also found the same two scale items from the continuance commitment scale contained unacceptably high non-commitment variance in their sample and suggested dropping those items from the commitment scale. These studies have suggested that continuance commitment may occur through one of two separate phenomena: (1) the lack of viable job alternatives (low alternatives commitment) and (2) the high personal sacrifice associated with leaving the organization (high sacrifice commitment) (Hackett et al., 1994; McGee and Ford 1987). Evidence relating to the separate existence of these subscales of continuance commitment is somewhat mixed and unclear. For example, Hackett et al. (1994) found that subdividing continuance commitment into the two components produced a slightly better data fit; however, the low alternatives and high sacrifice subscales were found to be highly correlated (average $r = 0.59$ across their sub samples) and not differentially related to other variables.

Many researchers argued that the reliability of the original Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) seems to be questionable. For example, Morrow (1993) and Suliman (2000), in their studies, found the overall alpha value for the normative commitment scale $=0.48$ and 0.52 respectively, which is poor, and less reliable than the affective and continuance commitment scales for both studies. In addition, Kuehn and Al-Busaidi (2002) found the Cronbach alphas for the three components of OC as follows: ACS $=0.74$, CCS $=0.75$, and NCS $=0.49$. They, too, found the alpha value of the original Normative Commitment Scale to be low, indicating questionable reliability. In addition, Dunham et al. (1994) found that two items reflected loyalty norms more than the other six items, which were more synonymous with moral obligation.

To improve some of the above concerns and especially the psychometric issues raised by reports that some survey questions did not load sufficiently along the defined factors for each of the commitment scales from the 24-item multi-dimensional organizational commitment instrument, a revision of the three scales was undertaken by Meyer et al., (1993) resulting in an 18-item instrument. As expected, the most extensive revision was undertaken in the case of normative commitment. The three

dimension original and revised items comprising the ACS, CCS, NCS are shown in Appendix B. Furthermore, the psychometric properties of the revised Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS), and Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) have been extensively evaluated (Allen and Meyer, 1996).

2.6.3.1 Critical Views of the Three Subscales of Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1984, 1991, 1997) offered a three-component model of commitment: affective commitment was defined as an affective attachment to an organization, continuance commitment was defined as the perceived cost associated with leaving an organization, and normative commitment was defined as an obligation to remain with an organization. According to Hartmann and Bambacas (2000) although the Meyer and Allen commitment scale shows promise in their measurement of organizational commitment, the form of commitment expressed by factors and the independence of the constructs are not clear. Some other researchers argued that they have found little connection between measures of OC and its presumed outcomes. Swailes (2002) stated that researchers have measured, for the most part, the reasons for commitment and not commitment itself. Other researchers argued that not all types of commitment may be beneficial for organizations (Konovsky and Cropanzano, 1991; Somers, 1995). In the next sections, the three OC components and some of the critical views of researchers (especially for continuance and normative commitment) will be considered in detail.

Despite differences in conceptualization and the increasing consensus that organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct, much of the empirical research has focused on the affective perspective. The emphasis on affective commitment has been mostly due to evidence that affective commitment has the strongest and most consistent relationship with desirable outcomes (Triandis, 1995). According to many researchers, the affective dimension of commitment is the best known of the three. Randall & O'Driscoll (1997) and Meyer & Allen (1991) argued that studies of the three distinct dimensions of commitment to the organization have shown that affective commitment is the most desirable. "Loyal employees who exhibit affective commitment are more likely to stay with their employers, recommend their companies as good place to work, go the extra mile, help maintain profitable customer relationships and be advocates for the company" (Meyer & Allen,

1991, p. 69). Additionally, Angle and Lawson (1994) argued that affective commitment is correlated with better attendance and positive work behaviours, whereas continuance commitment is not as likely to produce the same levels of sustained positive results.

Regarding continuance commitment, as mentioned before, some studies (e.g. McGee and Ford 1987; Hackett al. 1994) have suggested that continuance commitment may occur through one of two separate phenomena: (1) the lack of viable job alternatives (low alternatives commitment) and (2) the high personal sacrifice associated with leaving the organization (high sacrifice commitment). Evidence relating to the separate existence of these subscales of continuance commitment is somewhat mixed. Dunham et al. (1994) found high sacrifice commitment and low alternatives commitment to have different relationships with important antecedents and consequences of OC. Hackett et al. (1994) found that subdividing continuance commitment into the two components produces a slightly better data fit; however, the low alternatives and high sacrifice subscales are highly correlated (average r =0.59 across their sub samples) and are not differentially related from other variables. These findings call into question the separate existence of the subcomponents of continuance commitment. Hartmann and Bambacas (2000), therefore, suggested that researchers should follow the advice of Meyer & Allen and treat the two subscales of continuance commitment as one. These findings, combined with evidence that the internal consistency of the full Continuance Commitment Scale is acceptable (Allen and Meyer, 1996), suggest that little may be gained by further development of the subscales.

According to Pittinsky and Shih (2004) even when a worker's staying in an organization is treated as one of several forms of commitment, assumptions about commitment and mobility often leak into the other forms of commitment, too. For example, in Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997; Meyer et al., 1993) typology, continuance commitment is often discussed as the form of commitment most concerned with whether a worker stays in an organization. Yet the operationalizations of their other two forms of commitment, affective and normative commitment, similarly presume a direct relationship between OC and intent to remain in the organization. Affective commitment, for example, is measured by such items as "I

would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization," and "I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one" (reverse scored). Normative commitment is measured with "I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer". Pittinsky and Shih (2004) added that "Our concern is not that commitment should not have a continuance component, but rather that the continuance component of commitment is often the major and defining component, and one that appears in the operationalizations of the different forms of commitment. When operationalized this way, different forms of commitment simply become different reasons why a worker stays in or leaves an organization" (p. 295-296).

Swailes (2002, p. 169), on the other hand, stated that all six items of Continuance Commitment Scale assess barriers to exit from the organization, for example, the item based on high sacrifice, "It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now even if I wanted to." These items say nothing about the way that the commitment they represent is revealed or displayed. People who score highly on this scale are deemed to have high continuance commitment because they cannot easily leave the organization. Swailes (2002), therefore, suggested that this scale would be more meaningfully called "perceived exit barriers".

Regarding normative commitment, this component of commitment has generated little research interest since the model's inception. Hacket et al. (1994) and Schneider (2003) stated that although previous research has demonstrated that the commitment constructs are psychometrically independent of each other, studies have revealed stronger than expected correlations between affective and normative commitment. Thus, they suggest that feelings of attachment and sense of obligation to an organization may not be independent of each other. Additionally, Meyer et al. (1993) and Somers (1995) found some overlapping of the constructs, normative commitment, and affective commitment. Other researchers do not support this dimension (Morrow, 1993). Swailes (2002, p.169) stated that the normative commitment scale assesses a person's feelings of support, duty, and obligation which are most likely the result of upbringing or past socialization. For instance, the scale contains the items, "I owe a great deal to my organization" and "This organization deserves my loyalty". He added that these items convey nothing about what the beliefs they refer to mean for the

organization, and a high score on the normative scale seems unlikely to represent commitment as managers would seek to judge it in employees. True, people may well feel a sense of duty and obligation, but the nature of the commitment that is produced remains unclear. Swailes (2002) suggested that this scale would be more meaningfully called "loyalty" or "allegiance", as it simply captures a person's felt level of allegiance to an organization.

2.6.3.2 Reliability, Validity, and Factor Analysis of the Revised OC Scale

It is important to make sure that the instrument used to measure organizational commitment accurately measures the variable, and that it measures the concept that we set out to measure. Reliability and validity are central in all scientific measurement. Both are salient in social research because constructs in social theory are always diffuse, ambiguous, and not directly observable. In the following section, reliability, validity, and factor analysis of the organizational commitment scale will be explored in detail.

Reliability of OCS

According to Sekaran (2000) the reliability of a measure indicates the extent to which the measure is without bias (error free) and hence offers consistent measurement across time and across the various items in the instrument. Kerlinger (1986) defined reliability as the consistency, predictability, precision, dependability, and stability of the instrument to yield the same score when repeated on the same set of subjects. Reliability could be proven if different researchers made similar observations on different occasions.

Researchers have tested the reliability of the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) and Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) in Western countries. Luchak and Gellatly (2001), for example, found that the reliability (coefficient alpha) of the affective and continuance commitment scales was 0.81 and 0.76, respectively. Irving and Coleman (2003) used Meyer, Allen and Smith's (1993) measures of affective and continuance organizational commitment. They found that coefficient alphas for the affective and continuance commitment scales were 0.82 and 0.73, respectively. Stephens et al. (2004) found an acceptable level of reliability of the

normative commitment (alpha = .75). In other research, the organizational commitment components were found to have high reliability also (Gallie and White, 1993; Ward and Davis 1995; Iles et al., 1996; Benkhoff, 1997; Ketchand and Strawser, 1998; Schneider, 2003; Pittinsky and Shin, 2004; and Ferk, 2005).

Researchers have also tested the reliability of ACS, CCS, and NCS instruments in some of the non-Western countries. For example, Hartmann and Bambacas (2000) examined the multi-dimensional nature of organizational commitment in Australia. They showed acceptable levels of reliability for the affective commitment scale alpha = 0.82 and for the continuance commitment scale alpha = 0.80. Wasti (2003) examined the multi-dimensional nature of organizational commitment in Turkey. Wasti found the reliabilities of the Meyer et al. (1993) versions of the affective commitment scale and the normative commitment scale were 0.79 and 0.75 respectively. Recently, Cetin (2006) used Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) measures of affective, continuance, and normative commitment in Turkey. The reliability coefficients of the scales were 0.82, 0.74, and 0.83 respectively.

Validity of OCS

Validity means the ability to produce findings that are in agreement with theoretical or conceptual values, in other words to produce accurate results and to measure what is supposed to be measured. Validity could be shown if the knowledge and the meanings reported were recognised as correct by the informants of the study.

Researchers such as Whitener and Walz (1993), Konovsky & Cropanzano (1991), and Bycio et al. (1995) provided evidence for the construct validity of the measure. The findings are also discussed in a major study by Allen and Meyer (1996) that examined the different types of validity of the measurement of the three commitment measures. The study summarized data from over 40 employee samples representing more than 160,000 employees from a wide variety of organizations and occupations. The findings from the study using coefficient alpha found median reliabilities across all studies of .85 for affective commitment, .79 for continuance commitment, and .73 for normative commitment.

Ketchand and Strawser's findings (1998) provided evidence of the convergent and discriminant validity of the ACS and CCS. In addition, Wasti (2003) provided evidence of the convergent and discriminant validity of the ACS and NCS.

Some researchers have compared the instrument developed by Meyer and Allen with the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Porter et al., (1974), and found that the Affective Commitment Scale correlates highly with OCQ, with r's ranging from 0.77 to 0.84 (Dunham et al. 1994). In addition, the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS), developed by Meyer et al. was found to be (1) uncorrelated with the Affective Commitment Scale and (2) differentially related to important variables (age and tenure) theoretically related to Organizational Commitment. These findings support the discriminant validity of the Continuance Commitment Scale and the existence of a separate dimension of OC (Ko et al., 1997; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Allen and Meyer (1996) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis on each of the organizational commitment scales and found evidence that each factor loading was independent of each other. Culpepper (2000) examined the construct validity of both 24-item and 18-item organizational commitment scales. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to determine whether a statistically significant improvement was found comparing the 24 and 18 item scales. The findings from the study found that the 18-item scale or revised scale appeared to do a better job at discriminating between affective and normative commitment than the 24-item, or original, scale. In addition, the CFA using the revised scale fit the data substantially better than the original scales.

From the above and based on the research findings where psychometric improvements were found in the use of the revised 18-item organizational commitment scale over the original 24-item scale, this study measured OC by using the revised three dimension scales of OC developed by Meyer et al. (1993).

In summary, despite the uncertainty that remains about definitions of commitment and the best known organizational commitment scales, this study measured organizational

commitment in Qatar by using the revised three dimension scales of organizational commitment developed by Meyer et al. (1993).

Chapter Three

Review of Literature on Antecedents and

Consequences of OC and Development of

Research Hypotheses

3.1 Introduction

As mentioned in the previous chapter, employees with strong affective commitment remain in their organizations because they feel they want to, those with strong normative commitment remain because they feel they ought to, and those with strong continuance commitment remain because they feel they need to. As a consequence of the differences in motives, these forms of commitment should have distinctive outcomes. That is, not all types of commitment may be beneficial for organizations (Konovsky and Cropanzano, 1991; Somers, 1995). Therefore, a greater understanding of the types of commitment with respect to their antecedents and organizational outcomes is required.

In this study the three components of commitment, as operationalized by Meyer et al. (1993), are employed. The aim is two-fold: first, to examine the antecedents of the various measures of commitment; and second to explore the notion that different types of commitment may be associated with disparate outcomes (turnover intentions and acceptance of organizational changes).

In this chapter, the antecedents of organizational commitment will be explained first based on a review of appropriate literature. These variables are personal characteristics, organizational characteristics, job related characteristics, and job satisfaction variables. The relationships between these variables and OC (or the three dimensions of OC) will be explored and the main effect hypotheses will be developed for this study. The second section discusses research on selected consequences of organizational commitment. Two consequences of OC will be explained (acceptance of organizational changes and turnover intentions) and then the main effect hypotheses will be developed in the light of the reviewed literature.

3.2 Organizational Commitment & Employees' Sectors

In general, little theoretical work has been devoted to the relationship between employees' sectors and organizational commitment in Qatar and in the Middle East countries.

Differences between government, public and private organizations and organizational factors and contextual characteristics have been examined and have been widely

discussed regarding organizational culture, structure, environment, motivation, commitment, and job satisfaction. The results from Moon (2000) indicated that there is a significant sectoral difference in perceived organizational commitment. Scholars (e.g. Buchanan, 1974a, 1974b; Angle and Perry, 1981; Chubb and Moe, 1990; Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Steinhaus and Perry, 1996; Rainey, 1983, 1997; Cho and Lee, 2001) have therefore extended their research to examine distinctive characteristics of organizational commitment of public employees in comparison with that of private and government employees.

Comparison of government, public, and private employees on their levels of organizational commitment, with each of its antecedent structures, is important because studies often describe government and some of the public organizations as having more "public" and diffuse goals compared to their counterparts in many private companies. These differences influence individual commitment and behaviour. Many studies have a stereotypical assertion that public employees have lower levels of organizational commitment than their counterparts in private companies (Chubb and Moe, 1990, Rainey, 1997). In that regard, Moon (2000) and Buchanan (1974a, 1974b) found that public managers have a lower level of organizational commitment than private managers. However, Steinhaus and Perry (1996) found that the type of industry has a more significant contextual effect on OC than sector.

In Qatar, as mentioned before, there is a government policy of transforming ministries in the government sector and semi-public sector organizations into private or semi-private companies on the assumption that it will increase productivity and performance. In view of this concern with productivity and performance, measuring organizational commitment (attachment, loyalty, and acceptance of organization's goals and values) in Qatari organizations is important because OC has positive effects on the productivity, quality, competitiveness, goal achievement, innovation, and stability of any organization.

This study will examine the organizational commitment of employees in three different sectors, government, public, and private sector, since most of the previous work in this area has been limited to the study of OC in one company or in one sector

(Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). By focusing on different sectors with several companies, this study will be able to uncover differences between government, public, and private sector and it is hoped, validate the findings of previous research, which suggests that private sector employees hold higher levels of commitment than public sector employees in Qatar.

The researcher could not find any previous studies in the Middle East that measured the relationship between employees' sectors and OC components. Therefore, in this study exploratory interactions between this variable and affective, continuance and normative commitment are analysed. It is expected that there will be significant differences in the levels of OC between employees working in the three selected sectors in Qatar. Private sector employees are likely to produce higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than other employees working in the government and public sectors.

Based on the major trend of previous research in the Europe and Western countries (e.g. Steinhaus & Perry, 1996; Rainey, 1997; Balfour & Wechsler, 1996) the following propositions can be expected in Qatar:

Hypothesis 1 (A): There will be significant differences in the levels of organizational commitment between employees working in public, private, and government organizations.

Hypothesis 1 (B): Private sector employees are likely to produce higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than other employees working in the government and public sectors.

3.3   Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Many studies have examined the factors that could be expected to be antecedents to organizational commitment. Mowday et al. (1982) suggest four frequently mentioned categories of variables affecting commitment: personal characteristics (demographics), job characteristics, work experience, and organizational characteristics. Cho and Lee (2001) suggest five types of variables affecting commitment: (1) personal investment variables, such as employee age, tenure, and

educational level; (2) organization and job related variables; (3) employee-perceived general job satisfaction; (4) employee-perceived reward inequity; and (5) organizational culture variables, such as employee-perceived prestige of his or her organization in the society. In other studies, different categories are used.

Although there is an extensive literature on the determinants of attitudinal (affective) commitment, there have been relatively few empirical investigations examining the antecedents of normative and continuance commitment (Dunham et al., 1994; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999). Given this, it has been chosen to take an exploratory approach by testing a fully selected model. That is, the same exogenous variables have been incorporated for the three endogenous commitment majors, in order to test for differences. This is not to suggest that particular relationships are not hypothesized in the thesis, but rather that is of interest to control for similar variables when predicting each major of commitment. Variables that have been included in the model have been drawn from the literature and contextual factors within the organization.

Several studies have produced mixed findings related to the above variables because of the use of different instruments for measurement of commitment and other inconsistent measurements (Liou and Nyhan, 1994; Liou, 1995). Therefore, further research is needed to examine the relationship between these variables and organizational commitment in a different culture, Qatar. In this study, four types of variables affecting commitment will be measured. These variables are personal characteristics, job characteristics, and selected organizational and job satisfaction variables. It is believed, as will be explained in the following sections, that personal characteristics (e.g., education level, tenure, gender, marital status, and nationality), organizational characteristics (job security, equity on paying salary & fringe benefits, personal growth and development), job characteristics (variety, autonomy, task identity, feedback on performance), and job satisfaction variables (e.g., intrinsic job satisfaction, working conditions, and overall job satisfaction) might influence the level of perceived organizational commitment (e.g. Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982; Porter et al., 1974; Banai and Reisel, 1993; Folger and Konovsky, 1989; King and King, 1999; Allen and Meyer, 1996; Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Dooley, Rook, and Catalano, 1987; Ko, 1996; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Therefore, this research will examine the relationships between personal characteristics, job related

characteristics, organizational characteristics, and job satisfaction variables with organizational commitment components. In the next sections, the relationships between these characteristics and OC dimensions will be discussed.

3.3.1 Personal Characteristics & the Three Dimensions of OC

Individuals are likely to be affected by different variables to different extents and at different times, depending upon the weighting given by the individual to the variables in operation.

Personal characteristics refer to characteristics that identify one person from another, which employees bring with them to the employing organization. These different characteristics are more attached to the person than to the job. Steers (1977), in his investigation of antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment, concluded that personal characteristics include those variables that define the individual demographically.

A great number of the empirical studies examining the antecedents of work commitment considered the influence of demographic characteristics. In studies that focused on commitment, Porter et al. (1974), and Sager (1991) found that characteristics of employees, including personal demographics, played a significant role in their levels of commitment to their organizations. Also, researchers such as Putti et al. (1989) and Banai & Reisel (1993) argued that personal demographics of employees are better predictors of their organisational commitment than organizational characteristics. However, other researchers such as Morris et al. (1993) said that personal characteristics do not appear to play a large role in determining commitment, while others argued that demographic characteristics tend to be used as descriptive statistics rather than explanatory variables (Kacmar et al., 1999; Schneider 2003).

Steers (1977) strongly argued that the ability to replicate the findings across other studies suggests that these variables may represent relatively stable antecedents of organizational commitment. Steers' findings showed that commitment is positively and significantly associated with some of the demographic variables, while it is negatively and significantly associated with others.

Ferris and Aranya (1983) argued that the findings of most major studies support the significant relationship between some of the personal demographics variables and organizational commitment. Furthermore, Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly (1992) believed that studies on commitment have focused on the effects of simple demographic variables because of their relevance, meaningfulness, and relationship with employees' commitment. Their findings showed that a low level of organizational attachment is one of many possible outcomes of demographic heterogeneity. Waldman & Bruce (1986), Steinhaus & Perry (1996) and Crewson (1997) agreed that demographic characteristic such as age, education, and race have been related to work-related outcomes such as performance, which is influenced by commitment.

Researchers have investigated and still continue to investigate OC based on personal characteristics. According to Steinhaus & Perry (1996) and Crewson (1997), many personal characteristics (e.g., education level, length of service, age, marital status, and gender) influence the level of perceived organizational commitment. Abdulla and Shaw (1999) argued that although significant direct effects have been found in the literature, few studies have hypothesized and tested differential predictions between personal factors and different dimensions of OC (especially normative and continuance commitment). Furthermore, despite the relatively large body of research exploring OC issues, little is known about how personal characteristics interact in determining OC. Abdulla and Shaw (1999) added that the relationships and the magnitude of those relationships, between common personal characteristics and organizational commitment have not been adequately explored.

Regarding the organizational commitment scales, early commitment studies linked personal characteristics to the continuance dimension of organizational commitment by evoking ideas from Becker's side bet theory. For example, Ritzer and Trice (1969) reported that side-bets accumulate over time and therefore age (or organizational tenure) should be the best single indicator of an individual's non-transferable stake in the organization. Recently, empirical work has supported the idea that personal characteristics may be associated more with affective commitment levels than continuance commitment. For example, Meyer and Allen (1984) argued that older

employees may be more satisfied with their jobs and more likely to be in better positions in the hierarchy and thus may report higher levels of affective commitment.

From the above, it is believed that some of the personal demographics can influence individuals' attitudes toward their employing organizations positively or negatively. However, previous studies suggest that there are, at best, mixed conclusions regarding the relationships between some of the personal characteristics and OC. In the following sub-sections, the relationships, and the magnitude of those relationships, between personal characteristics and affective, continuance, and normative dimensions of OC will be explored and main effect hypotheses will be developed.

3.3.1.1   Nationality of Employee

Nationality refers to the citizenship of a particular country an employee may hold. Near (1989) indicated the importance of nationality and emphasized that the use of a cross-national comparison allows comparison of differences and similarities of nationality. The difference in employees' nationalities can influence their levels of commitment to their employing organization. In general, it is believed that people are usually shaped by their environment (country) and the cultural values that are held by all members of a particular society. Employees' cultures and nationality have an impact on their attachment and loyalty to the society and to their companies (Al-Kahtany, 1998). Hofstede (1983) believed that nationality is important to management for at least three reasons: (1) nations are political units; (2) nationality has a symbolic meaning to nationals; and (3) nationality is important for psychological reasons.

Many significant relationships between nationality and organizational commitment have been observed in several studies (Al-Outibi, 1992; Al-Qattan, 1987; and Abdulla & Shaw, 1999). However, Al-Kahtany (1998), in his study of employees' commitment in Saudi petrochemical companies, did not find any significant relationship between organizational commitment and nationality.

As mentioned before, there are certain environmental conditions in Qatar which suggest that Qatari employees and non-Qatari employees will have different levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment, because of the following:

1. Qatari employees can easily find other jobs or transfer from one organization to another in almost all of the government and public sector companies. However, non-Qatari employees are normally hired in their home countries by a Qatari sponsor to work only for that organization and it is difficult for non-Qatari employees to transfer to other companies; work visas are often revoked when they quit or attempt to change jobs. This climate suggests that non-Qatari employees face more ruined costs with the organization than Qatari; that is, the price of losing or changing jobs is extremely high for non-domestic workforce. Thus, this will lead to higher levels of continuance commitment for non-Qatari employees.

2. Usually, Qatari employees receive higher salaries and more fringe benefits in the government, public, and private sector than non-Qatari employees, even if they have the same jobs. Non-Qatari employees do not have similar job opportunities compared to with less educated Qatari employees. This will lead to higher levels of affective and normative commitment for Qatari employees compared to non-Qatari employees.

3. Management in Qatar, like many other developing countries, is highly dependent on government allocations of resources. Hence, Qatari management practice is difficult to investigate or expect, since it cannot be explained solely in terms of individual firm conduct, but must also include the role of the nation-state. Because the management environment in Qatar differs markedly from that in the Europe and Western countries, non-Qatari employees, especially in the government and public sector, face more uncertainty in their jobs. For example, many ministries may send away non-Qatari employees as a result of any new strategy of reducing expenses, organizational restructuring, and job cuts in the government agencies.

Based on national differences discussed above, it can be asserted that certain environmental conditions in Qatar suggest that nationality or citizenship status is likely to play a major role in predicting organizational commitment. The argument here concerns the different situations that domestic nationals and non-domestic employees find themselves in, rather than an individual difference or personality argument.

The following proposition can therefore be suggested:

Hypothesis 2: There will be difference in the levels of organizational commitment between Qatari and non-Qatari employees, and it is expected that Qatari employees will have higher levels of affective and normative commitment and lower levels of continuance commitment than non-Qatari employees.

3.3.1.2 Education Level of Employee

Education level is the amount of an individual's formal schooling. It is one of the most commonly studied personal characteristics in the organizational commitment literature. Level of education typically has a non-significant or negative association with OC. Researchers (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Baldwin, 1990; Steinhaus & Perry, 1996; Crewson, 1997; Al-Kahtany, 1998; Abdulla & Shaw, 1999; Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999, Schneider, 2003) have studied the relationship between education level and organizational commitment.

A negative relationship between level of education and organizational commitment has been observed in several studies (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981; Mowday et al., 1982; Angle & Perry, 1983; Mottaz, 1989; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; and Wahn, 1998) except those of Abdulla & Shaw (1999) and Schneider (2003), where educational level was found to be not significantly related to affective, continuance, and normative commitment. These studies proposed that highly educated individuals might have developed assumptions and expectations about their employing organization that it may not be able to meet adequately. Furthermore, highly educated individuals may have less commitment out of necessity, since they may have many more opportunities for employment, and may feel less implanted in a given position. O'Reilly & Caldwell (1981) provided a logical explanation for the negative relationship between the level of education and employee commitment. They believed that employees with a low level of education have fewer opportunities outside their organizations. Therefore, they tend to stay with their current organizations, and eventually their levels of commitment increase. In other words and from a continuance perspective, less educated employees have much more to lose than highly educated employees, from leaving the organization.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990), in their meta-analysis, found that education level of employee was more strongly related to affective commitment than continuance

commitment, although relationships with both dimensions were statistically significant. They added that individuals' levels of OC decrease with higher levels of education because educated employees have more job options and are less likely to become established in a particular job or company. Wahn (1998) added that higher education level has been found related to lower continuance commitment, presumably because the returns to education are not generally confined to a specific organization.

Based on the major trend of previous research in the Western countries, in Qatar, it is expected that less educated employees have much more to lose than highly educated employees; thus they will have higher continuance commitment levels. In addition, less educated employees will be more attached to their organization and mindful of its goals and benefits (higher levels of affective commitment) because they do not have other alternative options to think about like highly educated employees.

This pattern of previous studies leads to the following proposition:

Hypothesis 3: Employees with higher levels of education will exhibit lower levels of the three components of commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) than employees with lower levels of education.

3.3.1.3 Gender of Employee

Gender similarities and differences continue to be of interest as more women enter the workforce (Russ & McNeilly, 1995). A simple pattern does not appear from the literature concerning the relationship between organizational commitment and gender of employees. Some authors suggest that male employees are more committed to their employer than are female employees (Rosenthal, 1982; Schwartz, 1989). Other authors suggest that when gender differences are found, women generally express higher organizational commitment than men (Mowday et al., 1982; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Wahn, 1998). More recent studies, however, found no relationship between gender and OC (Chusmir, 1986; Aven, Parker, & McEvoy, 1993; Kacmar et al., 1999; Van der Velde, Bossink, & Jansen, 2003; and Schneider, 2003).

Schwartz (1989), in a Harvard Business Review article, provides formulated evidence that women are more costly to employ than men because of their higher rates of

turnover. Schwartz suggests that this occurs because one subset of women (career and family) has lower commitment to their organizations and careers than another subset (career primary) because of their higher commitment to their families. Schwartz (1989) also implies that men only fall into the latter subset of career primary. The implicit assumption of the above article has met with considerable criticism because Schwartz provides only limited anecdotal evidence to support her thesis (Wahn, 1993).

Regarding affective commitment, Grusky (1966) suggested that women would experience more affective commitment to the organization since it was more difficult for them to gain access to and membership in organizations. In addition, the results of a study by Wahn (1993) combined with the meta-analysis findings of Mathieu & Zajac (1990) suggest somewhat greater affective commitment of female employees. However, Aven et al. (1993) in a meta-analysis found no sex differences in affective commitment, shedding doubt on assumptions that organizational commitment is greater among women. Additionally, Abdulla & Shaw (1999) in their study of employees' commitment in the Health Ministry of the UAE did not find any significant relationship between affective commitment and gender.

Regarding continuance commitment, Wahn (1998) found that women displayed a higher continuance commitment than men. The study used the continuance commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1984). Abdulla & Shaw (1999), on the other hand, found that male employees exhibited higher levels of continuance commitment than female employees. The study used the continuance commitment scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990).

Regarding normative commitment, the researcher could not find any previous studies in the Western studies or in the Middle East that measured the relationship between gender and normative commitment.

In Qatar, like many Middle-Eastern countries, many employment and cultural barriers still exist for women. The culture of the region is such that women are not generally encouraged to seek outside employment (especially outside the government ministries, local government agencies, and national banks) unless necessary. Thus

women are expected to exhibit higher levels of continuance commitment than men and tentatively, based on Grusky's (1966) and Wahn's (1998) hypotheses, it is predicted that women will exhibit higher levels of affective commitment than men.

Based on the major trend of previous research, the following proposition can be expected in Qatar:

Hypothesis 4: Male employees will exhibit lower levels of affective and continuance commitment than female employees.

3.3.1.4 Marital Status of Employee

In general, little theoretical work has been devoted to the relationship between marital status and organizational commitment. This variable has been used in previous commitment studies as a control variable (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Spousal characteristics have been found related to commitment perceptions. It is found that unmarried employees have lower commitment levels and higher labour turnover rates than their married counterparts. According to Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972, p.559) married employees evaluate leaving the organization as more costly than the ones who are single. In addition, unmarried or single employees may have more freedom to change their jobs than married employees. Arnold and Feldman (1982) found in their study that marital status was positively correlated with turnover. In other words, employees were more likely to leave if they were unmarried.

Kacmar et al. (1999) reported higher levels of organizational commitment for married employees than unmarried employees. However, Abdullah & Shaw (1999) argued that married employees may be less affectively committed than unmarried employees because spousal relationships may limit the extent of involvement people are willing to make in their work environment. These same variables may lead to higher levels of continuance commitment because of the higher adjustment costs married persons face when deciding to change jobs. Thus, married individuals may report higher levels of continuance commitment since married people, in general, have greater financial burdens. This may be especially relevant in countries, like Qatar, where large numbers of children and large extended families are not uncommon.

Recently, Cetin (2006) investigated marital status in relation to organizational commitment components. The results revealed that the levels of continuance and normative commitment to the organization of married employees are higher than those of single ones. This might be interpreted in terms of responsibilities attributed to individuals at different periods of their career.

Based on Abdulla and Shaw's (1999) and Cetin's (2006) hypotheses, the following proposition can be offered in Qatar:

Hypothesis 5: Married employees will display higher levels of continuance and normative commitment and lower levels of affective commitment than non-married employees.

3.3.1.5 Kinship Responsibilities (Number of Dependants)

In general, little theoretical work has been devoted to the relationship between kinship responsibilities and organizational commitment.

Kinship responsibilities refers to the number of dependants of employees. A simple pattern does not appear from the literature concerning the relationship between organizational commitment and this variable. Diver et al. (2004), for example, found that having children and dependents was more related to affective commitment. Abdullah and Shaw (1999), on the other hand, argued that employees with more dependants may be less affectively committed because dependant relationships may limit the extent of involvement people are willing to make in their work environment. These same variables may lead to higher levels of continuance commitment because of the higher adjustment costs persons with dependants face when deciding to change jobs.

Other researchers (such as Hackett et al., 1994; Iverson, 1992; Iverson and Buttigiec, 1999) found evidence that employees with greater kinship responsibilities are more reliant on the organization to fulfil their financial needs. This should lead to greater affective commitment, normative commitment (due to the need to reciprocate to the organization) and continuance commitment (due to the low alternative employment opportunities or high costs of leaving).

The main pattern of the previous studies leads to the following proposition in Qatar:

Hypothesis 6: Employees with more dependants will display higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than employees without dependants.

3.3.1.6 Age of Employee

Age of employee is one of the most commonly studied personal characteristics in the organizational commitment literature. It is clear from the literature that difference in age may influence the difference in the levels of organizational commitment of old and young employees.

Researchers (e.g. Angle & Perry, 1981; Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987; Cohen & Gattiker, 1992; Cohen, 1993; Abdulla & Shaw, 1999; Baysal & Paksoy, 1999; Balay, 2000; Lok & Crawford, 2001) found commitment to an organization increases with workers' age. This may be due to a variety of reasons, including greater job satisfaction, promotions, and advancement (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Becker (1960) added that when employees grow older, they have investment in their organizations, so their commitment becomes calculative based on evaluation of the costs and benefits associated with leaving or staying with the organization. Therefore, age may be positively related to affective, normative, and continuance commitment.

Abdulla and Shaw (1999) found in their study that age was more related to affective commitment and the relationship between age and continuance commitment was not significant. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found from their meta-analysis research that age and affective commitment are significantly, albeit weakly, related. Meyer et al. (1993) concluded that those who are older have a strong affective commitment towards their organizations because they are more mature and have longer experience in their organizations.

Morris et al. (1993), however, suggested that younger employees are more committed than older employees because they are highly motivated to start a career and able to cope with changes. Morris et al. (1993) added that older employees are less committed to their organization because they are often disappointed. In addition,

Cohen (1993) found that the strength of correlations was stronger for younger employees and for those with long tenure. Recently, Schneider (2003) found from his research in the United States that the relationships between age and each of affective, continuance, and normative commitment were not statistically significant.

In Qatar, it is expected that older employees, usually, have worked many years for the organization, and so will have a stronger attachment and obligation to the organization (higher levels of affective and normative commitment) than younger employees because they receive higher salaries and benefits and they are used to working for the organization. In addition, it is expected that older employees will report higher levels of continuance commitment, since older employees are usually married with a number of children or dependents and so will have greater financial burdens.

Based on the major trend of previous research in Western countries (e.g. Becker, 1960; Balay, 2000; Lok and Crawford, 2001), the following proposition can be suggested:

Hypothesis 7: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between age of employee and the three organizational commitment components. Older employees are expected to experience higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than younger employees.

3.3.1.7 Length of Service

Length of Service (tenure) is the length of time an employee has been with the company when he or she completed the survey. Numerous studies have reported a significant linkage between tenure and commitment. Researchers such as Arnold & Feldman (1982); Mowday et al. (1982); Allen and Meyer (1990); Igbaria & Guimaraes (1993); Hackett et al. (1994); Wahn (1998); Kacmar et al. (1999); and Lok & Crawford (2001) showed that organizational tenure is a reliable predictor of the organizational commitment of employees. Further, the result of Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly's (1992) study showed that difference in tenure is associated with attachment variables. The longer the tenure, the more the individual becomes psychologically committed to his or her organization.

It is possible to say that when the length of service in the organization increases, commitment will rise as well. As Buchanan (1974a) stated, the first year in an organization has an important place in one's working life as during this time the individual begins to understand whether the organization will meet his needs or not. Between the second and fourth years, people try to develop their careers and they have some fears about failure in the organization. After the fifth year, the maturity stage approaches and in this period, commitment is more intensive. In addition, Rousseau (1989) argued that the longer the relationship endures, the deeper the relationship the employee perceives and the broader the dimensions of contributions and attractive rewards that might be involved. Long-term employment helps both employees and employers to develop mutual obligations of loyalty and commitment. This requires employees to work hard in the interest of the employer, and it obligates the employer to keep employees wherever possible.

According to Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1979), the length of employment with the organization builds "employee investment" and increases the cost to the employee of deciding to leave. Mottaz (1987) and Bedian et al. (1991) added that individuals attach themselves to an organization in order to receive rewards. Therefore, the greater the length of time individuals remain in a company, the more likely they are to accumulate substantial investments in the form of retirement benefit. Meyer & Allen (1984), in studying organizational commitment of employees, drew the conclusion that the longer a person's tenure in an organization, the higher their level of OC.

The relationships between different components of OC and length of service have also been examined by different researchers. For example, Cohen (1993) showed a positive relationship between organizational tenure and affective commitment. Stephens et al. (2004) added that greater tenure not only has a positive effect on affective commitment, but also on self-reported performance. Mathieu and Zajac (1990), in their meta-analysis, showed modest positive relationships between tenure and both affective and continuance commitment (r = 0.15 and 0.20, respectively). Wahn (1998) conducted a study to assess the relationship of continuance commitment and tenure. He found a positive relationship between tenure and continuance commitment. Hackett et al. (1994) further assert that the number of years spent in the

76

organization also increases employees' internalization of norms. Allen and Meyer (1996) added that when employee age was removed from the relationship between tenure and affective commitment, correlations are reduced considerably. Abdulla & Shaw (1999), in their study, found tenure related more to affective commitment, but not significantly related to continuance commitment.

In Qatar, it is expected that an individual who has spent a substantial number of years with a particular organization is likely to have accumulated a number of non-transferable investments (e.g., pensions, unused sick or vacation leave) resulting in a calculative organizational commitment. Therefore, these benefits from the job should lead to higher levels of continuance commitment. Longer tenured individuals may also show increases in both affective and normative commitment, to the extent that tenure reflects greater firm-specific experience to do the job, thus adding to employment security and reinforcing the long-term employment relationship.

In respect of this variable, the conclusions of previous studies lead to the following proposition:

Hypothesis 8: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between length of service and organizational commitment. Employees with a long duration of service will have higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative components of commitment than other employees with a shorter length of service.

3.3.1.8   Type of Employment (Contract vs. Non Contract)

The type of employment in this research refers to contract vs. non-contract employment. Generally, an employment contract includes employment duration, which is the length of employment an employee may stay with the employer. Violation of the contract by the employer may cause employees to reduce the quantity and/or quality of their performance and they may leave the employing organization (Robinson and Rousseau, 1994).

In this study, non-contract employment means lifetime employment (permanent), or employees with contracts but without limit of time. Contracts, on the other hand, as defined by Rousseau (1989), are obligating promises made in exchange for some

compensation and are enforced and recognized in law. Rousseau added that such relationship-based agreements commit the parties involved to maintaining the relationship and provide for some exchange. This exchange may be in the form of performance and/or commitment to one's employing organization.

Rousseau (1989) argued that commitment does not explicitly address the issues of obligations and reciprocity, but it simultaneously involves the acceptance and internalization of the organization's values that need to be part of the psychological contract. The basis for employee acceptance of the contract is the individual's expectations of the company and the willingness for continued participation in the relationship.

Researchers such as Steers (1977) and King & King (1999) suggest that employees who believe their organization to be dependable in carrying out their commitment to helping them meet their career expectations (e.g. fulfilling the terms of the "contract" related to job security and advancement opportunities) are, in turn, more committed to their organization.

Non-contract employees may show a high level of commitment to their organizations. Researchers such as Lober, Kirk, Kirschner, and Handorf (1984) believed that lifetime employment creates the public image of a stable employer. In addition, a study by Luthans, McCaul, and Dodd (1985) showed that lifetime Japanese and Korean employees reported a higher level of commitment than did American employees with contracts. Lifetime employees, according to Williamson (1975), have greater moral involvement and a sense of moral obligation to the organization than do contract employees whose involvement tends to be calculative.

In Qatar, most private sector companies undertake ongoing assessments of all of Qatari and non-Qatari employees' performance. However, almost all Qatari employees become permanent employees after a successful trial period in Qatar's government and public sector companies. Thus, there is no time limit or expiration date of employment after the trial period. Therefore, Qatari employees can be expected to have good involvement and a sense of moral obligation to their organizations. In addition, according to Meyer and Allen (1984) the longer an

employee has been with an organization, the greater the accumulated value of his or her side-bets. With higher side bets for Qatari employees (tangible or intangible), leaving an organization becomes more costly and therefore continuance commitment increases.

Based on the major trend of previous research in Western countries, the following hypothesis is put forward in relation to Qatar:

Hypothesis 9: Non-Contract employees (or those on contract without time limit) would have higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than contract employees.

3.3.2   Organizational Characteristics & the Three Dimensions of OC

Organizational characteristics are based on factors directly related to the organization and work context. In the following sub-sections, the relationships, and the magnitude of those relationships, between different dimensions of organizational commitment and each variable of organizational characteristics (equity on paying salary and fringe benefits, perceived personal growth & development, and job security) will be explored and main effect hypotheses will be developed.

3.3.2.1   Equity on Paying Salary & Fringe Benefits (Organizational Justice)

Many researchers agree that difference in employees' pay is associated with a difference in the levels of their organizational commitment. A simple pattern does not appear from the literature concerning the relationship between organizational commitment and pay. According to Becker's (1960) side-bet theory, pay is viewed as personal investment by an employee; thus, high pay employees may have a higher level of intention to stay with their organizations than low pay employees. In addition, Salancik (1977) and Angle & Perry (1983) argued in their study that employees will increase their commitment according to the payments received from their organization. Sager (1991) and Cohen & Gattiker (1994) found that pay is a predictor of employees' commitment. However, researchers such as Morris et al. (1993) found that a good salary has only a small positive influence on commitment.

79

Equity in pay has long been recognized as one of the important factors for organization effectiveness (Cropanzano and Folger, 1991). Equity in paying salary and fringe benefits describes the perception of individual or group towards fairness treatment received from the organization and their responses to such perception (James, 1993). This variable means that an individual will become more committed to an organization to the extent that it provides fair salary and fringe benefits compared to those receiving by other employees working in the same or a different company. Greenberg and Cropanzano (2001) argued that unfairly treated individuals tends to exhibit more negative attitudes and behaviours than those who are treated fairly. Thus, perception of fairness of distribution (salaries and fringe benefits) may lead to emotional feelings and emotional behaviours.

There are two forms of organizational justice: distributive and procedural justice. Distributive justice (not investigated in this study) is related to fairness of allocation of resources. Procedural justice (which will be investigated in this study) suggests that the way a pay decision is made may be as important to employees as the results of the decision (Milkovich and Newman, 2005). Procedural justice therefore, focuses on employees' perceptions of how the procedures of making decisions are carried out. Procedural justice would result in stronger attachment to the organization, particularly for those who experience being respected by a group or organization (Tremblay and Alkin, 2000). This finding indicates that there is a relationship between procedural justice and organizational commitment. Accordingly, if employees can be guaranteed fair procedural treatment, they may be loyal as a sign of organizational commitment (Linda and Ping, 1996).

Pay equity was found to be one of the main sources of commitment in the literature. (Dubinsky and Levy, 1989). According to Folger and Konovsky (1989) employees who perceive they are not being treated fairly due to unfair interpersonal treatment or unfair procedures develop low job satisfaction and commitment and may seek alternative employment with another organization in pursuit of equity. The findings of previous studies implied that feelings of commitment are likely to occur when there is a belief that the rewards employees receive are equitable in comparison to others (Martin, 1981). These findings were consistent with Rivai's (2005) study and Samad's

(2005) study, which reported that both procedural and distributive justice had a positive and significant relationship with organizational commitment.

The research of Adams (1965) and Meyer et al., (1989) has shown that employees who have the perception that they are treated positively by the organization are more likely to have a higher level of affective commitment towards the organization. The continuance committed employee is interested in the return on investment, a calculative commitment based on the rewards, inducements (side bets) offered by the organization (Morrow, 1993). Therefore, continuance committed employees' actions and decisions are based on the premise of a calculative exchange relationship. Therefore, if the employee believes that the distribution of outcomes such as pay and promotional opportunities are fair, then the employee will be committed to the organization based on the continuance of the specific personal outcomes (Greenberg and Gillespie, 2005).

In Qatar, remuneration policies and fringe benefits, in most of the public companies and in the government sector, are different for Qataris and other nationalities, which may create tension in employees who are underpaid. Qatari employees receive higher salaries (higher pay and more government benefits) than non-Qatari employees, even if they have the same jobs. In addition, salaries for non-domestic employees usually remain fixed and are not subject to large differences based on job level. However, some non-Qatari employees are provided with certain benefits such as family accommodation, free education for their children, and travel benefits.

It is assumed that individuals with high salaries and benefits have been rewarded in some manner by the organization, which may be associated with higher levels of affective commitment, which in turn, may increase their normative commitment. Additionally, continuance commitment may also be positively related to salary levels, since at low salary levels, employees may not be losing a great deal by separating from the organization. As salary levels increase, it may be difficult for employees to find alternative employment offering the same level of financial rewards. Furthermore, paying wages above competitive levels can generate affective commitment to the extent that such wages are tied to employee inputs into the job.

Such wages should also increase continuance commitment, as employees will not want to give up their wages by terminating employment.

Whilst there have been no previous studies attempting to measure this variable in relation to the three OC components, the preceding argument does lead this study to the following proposition:

Hypothesis 10: There are significant positive relationships between equity on paying salary and fringe benefits and each of affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

3.3.2.2   Perceived Personal Growth & Development

Perceived personal growth and development is one of the important variables in the organizational commitment literature. This variable means that individuals will become more committed to an organization to the extent that it provides for growth and achievement needs.

According to Steers (1977), Rousseau (1995), Tsui et al. (1997) and King & King (1999), employees will be more committed to the organization when they feel that the organization is living up to its end of the employment contract by being supportive of the employees' growth by providing and fulfilling terms of advancement opportunities. Researchers added that the effective use of human resources involves understanding individual and organization needs and matching them in such a way that each employee feels that his or her personal growth is possible with organizational growth. An organization that does not ensure personal growth of its employee ultimately fails to achieve organizational growth. Therefore, if employees find that their personal growth is not forthcoming, they will, given a choice, leave for better jobs.

"No matter what business you are in, to survive and prosper in the 21st century you will need to pay attention to the personal fulfilment of your employees. You will need to do this for two reasons: to attract and retain the best people, and to release the deepest levels of creativity and highest levels of productivity from your staff. In a situation of increasing global competition and tight job markets, human creativity and

personal productivity are becoming new frontiers of competitive advantage" (Barrett, 1999, p.1).

Perceived personal competence and growth of employee exhibited a strong positive correlation with commitment across different studies (e.g., Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Allen and Meyer, 1990; Baird, Zelin & Marxen, 1998; and O'Driscoll & Randall, 1999). Pfeffer (1998) argued that employees might only be willing to contribute their specialized skills and knowledge when the organization signals a similar level of commitment. Perceived personal competence of employee is a well-established predictor of affective commitment, with more satisfied employees likely to view their work settings as more attractive places to perform their job, which in turn, may increase their normative commitment. In addition, an employee with high perceived personal competence and growth might find it more personally costly to leave the organization, leading to higher levels of continuance commitment.

Shouksmith (1994) conducted a study to isolate variables of commitment of employees within an organization. He concluded in his study that organizational commitment of all three forms is strongly related to the opportunity the work organization provides for employees to feel motivated towards growth and achieve some self-actualization.

The above findings lead this study to the following proposition:

Hypothesis 11 (A): Employees with higher amounts of personal growth and development are more likely to have higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than other employees.

Researchers such as Rainey (1997), and Cho & Lee (2001) argued that private sector employees have more motivational factors and higher organizational commitment levels than other employees. Additionally, Zeffane (1994) found that employees working in the private and public sectors have more motivational factors (compensation, growth and development, reward, and involvement) than other employees working in the government sector.

From previous information, another hypothesis can be expected about employees' working sectors and this variable in Qatar:

Hypothesis 11 (B): Employees working in the public and private sector will perceive higher amounts of personal growth and development than other employees working in the government sector.

3.3.2.3   Job Security

Job security has attracted a great deal of research interest in recent years. Meltz (1989, p.150) defines job security as when "an individual remains employed with the same organization with no diminution of seniority, pay, pension rights, etc." Similarly, Herzberg (1968) defines job security as the extent to which an organization provides stable employment for employees.

Researchers (Morris et al., 1993; Bhuian & Islam, 1996; Iverson, 1996; Ko, 1996; Yousef, 1998) indicate that satisfaction with job security is positively correlated with organizational commitment. Abegglen (1958) maintained that the level of high commitment of Japanese workers is due to a strong sense of job security, which originates from Japanese employment arrangements, such as lifetime employment and the seniority system. Iverson (1996) reported that increases in job security lead to greater organizational commitment. Morris et al. (1993) also reached a similar conclusion. Rosenblatt and Ruvio (1996) studied the effect of job insecurity on work attitudes. Their results indicated that job insecurity had an adverse effect on organizational commitment and perceived performance. In addition, Ashford et al. (1989) examined the impact of job insecurity on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance. They reported that job insecurity leads to reduced commitment (correlation was equal -0.47) and reduced satisfaction, but it has no impact on job performance. Another study done by Baker and Abou-Ismail (1993) argued that for employees, pay and job security are the most important considerations in deciding to accept a job.

Dooley, Rook and Catalano (1987) found that perceived job insecurity was one of the most important predictors of psychological states such as depression and stress-related states. Job insecurity becomes a more salient issue for persons who have previously

lost a job (Fineman, 1983) and downsizing has been linked to reductions in commitment (Brockner, Grover, Reed, DeWitt and O'Malley, 1987).

Researchers argued that satisfaction with job security varies with the variations in personal variables. Yousef (1998), therefore, examined the relationships between some of the personal characteristics and job security in the UAE. He found that satisfaction with job security increases with increase in age, tenure in present organization, monthly income and job level. Furthermore, he found that married individuals are more satisfied with job security than single ones and employees who do not hold university degrees are more satisfied with job security than those who hold graduate or postgraduate degrees.

Ko (1996) indicated that job security is an important determinant of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. He added that when employees consider they have stable employment, they are more likely to demonstrate emotional attachment, identification with and involvement in the organization, and at the same time view the cost of leaving as high (continuance commitment). Regarding normative commitment, when employees consider they have stable employment (usually have high job security, pay, and promotional opportunities), they would feel an increased sense of moral obligation to reciprocate to the organization.

Based on Ko's (1996) and Morris et al's (1993) findings, the following proposition can be offered in relation to employees working in Qatar:

Hypothesis 12 (A): Employees with greater job security will show significantly higher affective, continuance, and normative commitment than other employees with lower job security.

Several studies argued that the relationship between job security and organizational commitment vary across national cultures and nationality. For example, in Saudi Arabia, Bhuian & Islam (1996) examined the extent to which foreign expatriate employees are satisfied with the security of their jobs and the relationship between satisfaction with job security and commitment. Bhuian & Islam (1996) found that expatriate employees in Saudi Arabia do not strongly express that they are satisfied

with their job security like Saudi employees. Furthermore, expatriate employees' satisfaction with job security is significantly correlated with organizational commitment.

Based on previous findings, another hypothesis can be expected in Qatar regarding job security variable and employees' nationality:

Hypothesis 12 (B): Qatari employees will be more satisfied with job security than non-Qatari employees.

3.3.3 Job Characteristics & the Three Dimensions of OC

Many researchers argued that organizational commitment is not a function of personal characteristics; rather it is a function of job-related variables (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Moon, 2000). In addition, studies concluded that job characteristics are the most important to predict commitment (e.g., Gallie & White, 1993; Peeters & Meijer, 1995). Hackman and Lawler (1971) argue that intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, and commitment increase when two elements are present: (1) higher order need strength is salient and (2) employee experience a high degree of skill variety, task identity, task significance, and autonomy.

Past research provides significant support for job characteristics' predictive effects on organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Flynn and Tannenbaum, 1993; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Heywood, 2003). Hrebiniak & Alutto (1972), Hunt et al. (1985), Chelte & Tausky (1986), Igbaria et al. (1994), Leong et al. (1994), Fang (2001), and Bhuian et al. (2001) also emphasized that job characteristics have a great influence on organizational commitment. Jobs high in skill variety, task identity, autonomy, and feedback on performance may lead to higher organizational commitment.

According to Schneider (2003), however, some of the job characteristics variables (skill variety, task identity, dealing with others, and autonomy) were found to have non-significant relationships with affective commitment. Other job characteristics variables were found to have positive and significant relationships with affective commitment such as task significance and feedback from agents. For continuance

commitment, a negative and slightly significant relationship was found for autonomy, and a positive and slightly significant relationship was found for feedback from the job. The other job characteristics variables (skill variety, task identity, dealing with others, and task significance) were not found to be statistically significant. The only significant relationship between normative commitment and job characteristics variables was for feedback from agents, showing a weak relationship of r = .305 (p < .01).

Despite decades of research on job characteristics, there is a lack of generalizability of research findings concerning their application to organizational commitment in the management research literature. Since employees differ in pay, status, and job conditions, it is likely that they would be committed and satisfied uniquely in an organization. Following this argument, an employee's degree of organizational commitment and job characteristics should vary across different organizations.

In research examining the relationship between job characteristics and organizational commitment, investigators have turned their attention to the notion that the congruence between characteristics of the individual and characteristics of the organization itself can have an impact on attitudes and behaviours (Chatman, 1989). Research examining job characteristics and OC has also referred to the congruence between the individual and the organization as the "person-organization fit". Researchers within the person-job fit tradition have argued that an experience that is congruent with individual's values or meets their needs will be rewarding to them and, thus, will influence organizational commitment (Heywood, 2003). Other mixed results between job characteristics and organizational commitment were found by other researchers (Johnson et al., 1987; Edwards, 1994; Finegan, 2000; Bhuian et al., 2001; and Fang, 2001).

The Four Core Dimensions of Job Characteristics

Job characteristics have been important to different areas of management research. Perhaps the most widely known job characteristics are those developed by Turner & Lawrence (1965). Hackman and Lawler (1971, p.267) reviewed job characteristics and classified the six dimensions of job characteristics into two categories. The first four dimensions were labelled "core dimensions" because they postulated, "...

individuals will be able to obtain meaningful personal satisfaction when they perform well on jobs which they experience as high on variety, autonomy, task identity, and feed back". The last two dimensions are dealing with others and friendship opportunities.

In this study, the four "core dimensions" variables of job characteristics will be investigated coherent with some of the previous research (drawing on Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Becherer, Morgan, & Richard, 1982; Mathieu & Zajac 1990; Bhuian & Menguc, 2002; and Schneider, 2003).

Several empirical studies have supported the positive effect of the job characteristics-organizational commitment link. Hunt et al. (1985) found that the four "core dimensions" variables of job characteristics (autonomy, variety, task-identity and feedback) influence the level of an employee's organizational commitment. Likewise, other researchers support the notion that jobs influence strong commitment when they involve a high degree of autonomy, job challenge, and a variety of skills (Steers, 1977; Ramaswami et al., 1993; Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; and Heywood, 2003). Other researchers argued that favourable organizational characteristics will induce employees to become committed to the organization through reciprocity. According to Strauss (1977) and Tyagi & Wotruba (1993), when an organization attempts to enrich jobs by providing autonomy, variety, task-identity and feedback in jobs, employees reciprocate by identifying themselves more closely with the organization.

Flynn and Tannenbaum (1993) found that job characteristics demonstrated a strong impact on commitment among private sector managers versus public sector managers. Their explanation is that the common concepts of public sector bureaucracies make public sector managers more tolerant of low autonomy and challenge.

In addition to the positive relationships between job characteristics and OC, some studies theoretically support direct relationships between job characteristics and both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. For instance, Ilgen & Hollenbeck (1991) and Singh (1998) argued that high levels of autonomy, variety, and task-identity in a job can enhance the level of intrinsic motivation by increasing the

employee's feeling of accomplishment and self-actualization in performing their work.

Some researchers argue that job characteristics can serve as positive motivational forces that stimulate employees to increase their efforts in better performing their tasks. According to O'Reilly et al., (1980) employees who identify with the organizational goals, value their organizational membership, and intend to work hard to achieve the overall organizational mission (employees with a high level of organizational commitment) will perceive the job characteristics of autonomy, variety, task-identity and feedback as highly motivational and stimulating to their task performance. They added that highly committed employees perceive job characteristics as more stimulating and experience greater job satisfaction, whereas less committed employees view job characteristics as less stimulating and are less satisfied with their jobs.

In the next sections, the four "core dimensions" variables of job characteristics will be explained.

3.3.3.1 Task Variety

Task variety is defined as the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, which involve the use of a number of different skills and talents of employees (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)

Much of the literature relevant to task variety is found in discussions of "routinization". Both variety and routinization are concerned with the degree of repetitive work roles. Variety is a nature of work variable in organizations and suggests that certain members within the organization have more (fewer) opportunities to do more of different things in their work than other members. It is assumed that employees will value task variety rather than high routinization as an attractive outcome to be offered by the organization. Porter and Steers (1973) indicate that "..... pressures of increased production or efficiency may result in increased fractionation or routinization of certain jobs. This repetitiveness of task may then contribute, ... to increasing costs through increases in absenteeism and turnover" (p. 162).

Several studies (such as Porter and Steers, 1973; Price & Mueller, 1981; Hunt, Chonko, & Wood, 1985; Mathieu & Zajac 1990; Ramaswami et al., 1993; Bhuian & Menguc, 2002) supported the positive relationship between task variety and organizational commitment and the negative relationship between task variety and turnover.

3.3.3.2 Degree of Autonomy

"Autonomy is the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion for the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedure to be used in carrying it out" (Hackman & Oldham, 1975: 5).

It is believed from several studies that a high degree of autonomy is a positive outcome for members of an organization. In addition, it is assumed that individuals will negatively evaluate controls in the form of orders and rules imposed on them by the organization. Therefore, if an organization is characterized by a high degree of autonomy, its members have opportunity for scheduling their work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out and so on. This will positively reflect on the employees' attitude toward their organizations, which, in turn, may increase their commitment and reduce their intention to leave their jobs (Hunt, Chonko, & Wood, 1985; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Ramaswami et al., 1993; Eby et al., 1999; Bhuian & Menguc, 2002; and Heywood, 2003).

3.3.3.3 Feedback on Performance

Feedback on performance is defined as "the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the employee obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance" (Hackman and Oldham, 1975: 5). In other words, it is the degree to which employees receive information as they are working that reveals how well they are performing on the job (Arnold and House, 1980).

Muchinsky and Morrow (1980) reported that the findings of some previous studies had shown that employees are less likely to quit their jobs if they receive feedback

and recognition for their work. Allen and Meyer (1990) identified significant relationships between OC and work feedback with correlation equal to 0.36. Therefore, it is believed that feedback on performance (the clear information employees receive from the supervisors regarding the evaluation of their performance) helps employees to improve their skills and their present and future performance, which will lead to high commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Eby et al., 1999; Fang, 2001; and Bhuian & Menguc, 2002).

Dunham et al. (1994) found that when supervisors provided feedback about performance and allowed employees to participate in decision-making, employee levels of affective commitment was stronger than both continuance and normative commitment. However, Schneider (2003) found this variable to have significant relationships with affective and normative commitment. For continuance commitment, a non-significant relationship was found for feedback on performance.

3.3.3.4 Task Identity

Task identity is considered to be the extent to which employees do an entire or whole piece of work, and can identify with the results of their efforts (Arnold & House, 1980). Several items can be used to measure this variable, such as "how often you see projects or jobs through to completion", "the degree to which the work you're involved with is handled from beginning to end by you", and "the opportunity to complete work you start".

Researchers such as Strauss (1977), Hackman & Oldham (1976), Hunt, Chonko, and Wood (1985), Tyagi & Wotruba (1993), and Bhuian & Menguc (2002) agreed that employees' high task identity will be reflected in their attitudes toward their organizations, which, in turn, may increase their affective commitment to their organizations, which, in turn, may increase their normative commitment also. Thus, employees with higher task identity are likely to have higher levels of commitment to their organizations than other employees.

In Qatar, if employees perceive their needs (e.g. pay, security, variety, and task-identity) to have been fulfilled, they are likely to be committed to their organizations. Likewise, these Qatari and non-Qatari employees' positive appraisals of their jobs and

job experience would depend on their perceptions of autonomy, variety, task-identity, feedback and other facts of their jobs, which in turn, could indicate employee organizational commitment.

As mentioned in the previous studies, it is expected in Qatar that employees with jobs that require them to perform a wide range of operations and use a variety of equipment and procedures will find their job more attractive and will show higher attachment to the organization, than those whose jobs are less varied. Furthermore, employees' high task identity will be reflected in their attitudes toward their organizations, which, in turn, may increase their affective commitment to their organizations, which, in turn, may increase their normative commitment also (Bhuian and Menguc, 2002). Additionally, based on Dunham et al. (1994) findings, in Qatar, it is expected that employees who receive a higher amount of feedback on performance (receive clear information about the effectiveness of their performance and recognition for their work) are likely to produce higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than other employees.

Hunt et al. (1985) found the four "core dimensions" variables of job characteristics positively influence the level of an employee's organizational commitment. Ramaswami et al. (1993) and Naumann (1993) provided similar support for the direct influence of autonomy, variety and feedback on organizational commitment. Additionally, according to Heywood (2003), all of the four "core dimensions" variables of job characteristics (degree of autonomy, skill variety, task identity and feedback on performance) were found to have significant relationships with affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

Based on previous discussions and especially Heywood's findings, the following proposition can be expected for the previous four "core dimensions" variables of job characteristics:

Hypothesis 13: Employees with higher amounts of task variety, autonomy, task identity, and feedback on performance are likely to have higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than other employees.

92

3.3.4   Job Satisfaction & the Three Dimensions of OC

Many studies examined organizational commitment, along with other constructs such as job satisfaction. Since OC is commonly treated as a critical outcome variable in organizations, the literature has advanced ample evidence supporting the main effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment and vice versa.

Job satisfaction is defined as the degree to which employees have a positive affective orientation toward employment by the organization (Price and Mueller, 1986). Thus, employees who evaluate their job positively, display approach behaviour towards the job. On the other hand, employees who have negative feelings about the job display avoidance behaviour. Other researchers stated that job satisfaction is a contribution of cognitive and affective reactions to the differential perceptions of what an employee wants to receive, compared with what he or she actually receives (Cranny et al., 1992). Job satisfaction could be defined also in a variety of ways, such as intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction. Intrinsic satisfaction is related to the actual work performed and experiencing self-actualization and feelings of accomplishment such as freedom in job and task identity (Bhuian and Al-Jabri, 1996). Meanwhile, extrinsic satisfaction could be derived from rewards given to individuals by the organization. Likewise, general job satisfaction is an aggregation of satisfaction with various job facets or an aggregation of a few measures of general satisfaction (Levin and Stokes, 1989). Therefore, job satisfaction is measured by several approaches and determined by certain indicators. Some authors measure job satisfaction based on facets that cover aspects such as co-workers, pay, job conditions, supervision, nature of work and benefits.

Job satisfaction has been viewed according to Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) as an affective outcome or attitude referring to dimensions of satisfaction with both the job situation and work experiences. As such, it encompasses dimensions of satisfaction with work itself, pay, working conditions, co-workers, organizational practices, and opportunities for advancement.

It is found from the previous studies that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are distinct concepts (Porter et al., 1974). Mowday et al. (1979) made the following statement in an attempt to distinguish between organizational commitment

and job satisfaction: "As an attitude, commitment differs from the concepts of job satisfaction in several ways. To begin with, commitment is more global, reflecting a general affective response to the organization as a whole. Job satisfaction, on the other hand, reflects one's responses either to one's job or to certain aspects of one's job. Hence, commitment emphasizes attachment to the employing organization, including its goals and values, while satisfaction emphasises the specific task environment where an employee performs his or her duties" (p.226).

Researchers such as Vandenberg & Lance (1992) and Balay (2000) stated that although job satisfaction and occupational commitment are closely related, while a person can have positive commitment tendencies to his organization, he can be dissatisfied with a certain job or experience. In addition, the meta-analysis of Mathieu and Zajac (1990) identified significant relationships between OC and five correlates. The strongest and most consistent relationship noted by previous researchers is a significant, positive relationship between OC and job satisfaction. They found an average corrected correlation between OC and job satisfaction of 0.53. They reported that the strength of the relationship between OC and job satisfaction is unequivocal.

A large body of research has investigated the linkages between organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Bluedorn, 1982; Mathieu & Hamel, 1989; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morrison, 1994; Baugh & Roberts, 1994; Russ & McNeilly, 1995; Wong et al., 1995; Baird, Zelin & Marxen, 1998; O'Driscoll & Randall, 1999; Balay, 2000; Lok & Crawford, 2001; Schneider, 2003; Simmons, 2005; and Cetin, 2006). Many of the above studies have found a strong and positive relationship between OC and job satisfaction. However, it appears from previous studies that some question remains about whether job satisfaction is an antecedent, correlate, or consequence of commitment in management settings.

There is a controversy concerning the causal nature of the relationship between OC and job satisfaction. The widely held position is that job satisfaction leads to commitment. For example, Steers (1977); Bluedorn (1982); Reichers (1985); Mathieu & Zajac (1990); Baird, Zelin & Marxen (1998); O'Driscoll & Randall (1999); Schneider (2003), and Simmons (2005) argued that job satisfaction is a well-established predictor of organizational commitment. However, Bateman & Strasser

(1984), Vandenberg & Lance (1992), and Kacmar, Carlson & Brymer (1999) proposed that commitment leads to satisfaction. Still others argue that the relationship between OC and job satisfaction might be reciprocal (Price & Mueller, 1981). In this research, the widely held position which states that job satisfaction leads to organizational commitment and it is an antecedent of OC will be adopted.

Overall job satisfaction is significantly related to subscales of organizational commitment. According to Baird, Zelin & Marxen (1998) and O'Driscoll & Randall (1999) job satisfaction is a well-established predictor of affective commitment (more satisfied employees might view their work settings as more attractive places to perform their jobs). In addition, the results of a meta-analysis of 43 studies (Mathieu & Zajac 1990) suggest that job satisfaction is positively related to affective commitment and negatively related to continuance commitment. Studies conducted following Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta-analysis have consistently observed significant positive relationships between affective commitment and job satisfaction and negative relationships between continuance commitment and job satisfaction (Ketchand & Strawser, 1998; Hackett et al., 1994; Dunham et al., 1994). Additionally, Meyer et al. (1993), Morrison (1994), and Schneider (2003) observed positive relationships between both affective and normative commitment and job satisfaction. However, their findings related to continuance commitment and job satisfaction are less clear; while consistent negative relationships have been found, the magnitude of the correlations was lower than that for affective commitment and their statistical significance was mixed. According to Ketchand and Strawser (2001) these contrasting relationships may be explained by two phenomena. First, individuals who are satisfied with their jobs (high job satisfaction) may develop emotional attachment to the organization (high affective commitment) and not feel "bound" to the organization by a lack of alternatives or the existence of organization investments (low continuance commitment). In contrast, individuals who do feel bound to the organization (high continuance commitment) may be relatively dissatisfied with their jobs (low job satisfaction) and remain with the organization only because of a lack of alternatives or the existence of organizational investments.

In Qatar, the relationship between the first and third dimensions of commitment and overall job satisfaction is expected to be consistent with previous research (Morrison,

1994; Schneider, 2003; Cetin, 2006) indicating a positive and significant correlation between affective and normative commitment and overall job satisfaction. Thus, employees with a strong sense of affective commitment would be more satisfied with the nature of their work, and exhibit a high degree of work effort. In addition, employees with a strong sense of obligation to the organization would display positive affect in the way of job satisfaction. Finally, a significant negative correlation is expected between continuance commitment and the job satisfaction variables. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed regarding the relationship between OC and overall job satisfaction:

Hypothesis 14 (A): Overall job satisfaction is expected to show a positive relationship with affective and normative commitment, and overall job satisfaction will have a negative relationship with continuance commitment.

3.3.4.1 Job Satisfaction Variables & Organizational Commitment Components

Unlike most of the earlier studies in the Middle-Eastern context, this study is focusing on employees, which contributes to its importance. It should be noted here that, since the use of overall job satisfaction offers little diagnostic value regarding what aspects of the job are contributing to organizational commitment components, it is worthwhile discussing in this section the various variables of satisfaction, such as the work itself, pay, working conditions, co-workers and supervision, in the sense of their relationships with commitment.

Job satisfaction has been treated both as a global concept referring to overall job satisfaction, and as a facet-specific concept referring to various aspects of work (Cook et al., 1981). The job itself seldom serves as a unitary attitude object. Rather, job satisfaction is associated with the degree of satisfaction with various facets of the job. For example, the Job Descriptive Index seeks to assess an employee's satisfaction with various facets of his job, which include work, pay, promotion, co-workers and supervision (Smith, Kendall & Hulins, 1969). Some researchers have identified as many as twenty different dimensions underlying job satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967).

Studies attempting to discover possible dimensions of job satisfaction have concluded that although there are many specific and diverse job dimensions, which are related to

job satisfaction, there is a set of dimensions common to most jobs that are sufficient to describe most of the predictable variance in job satisfaction. Locke (1976) presented a summary of job dimensions, which have been consistently found to contribute significantly to employees' satisfaction. These include the work itself, work environment, rewards, the context of work, and so on. It may be emphasised here that the different job dimensions may not be equally important to all employees in determining the overall job satisfaction. Some employees may consider their pay very important and working conditions less important, while for others the opposite might hold true.

As regards work itself as a determinant of job satisfaction, most workers show a tendency to prefer work that is mentally challenging, varied, and interesting. However, jobs that are too stressful or exhausting are often found to be negatively associated with job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

Similarly, a positive and comfortable work environment, which facilitates the work objectives, is likely to result in a higher level of job satisfaction and then commitment. As against this, the work environment that is negative, uncomfortable is likely to lead to lower job satisfaction levels (Herzberg, 1968; Maslow, 1973; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Locke, 1976).

There are also work characteristics that are typically used to assess job satisfaction. For example, regarding the work setting, the most important factor appears to be the reward system – how the organization distributes rewards such as pay and promotion and certain procedures and policies (Maslow, 1973; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Locke, 1976). Job satisfaction is enhanced by reward systems that employees view as fair and reasonable, but it is reduced by those they see as unfair and unreasonable.

Another factor that appears important to employees is the perceived quality of supervision. When employees approve of the style adopted by their supervisors, and perceive these people as fair and believe they have the ability to help them with their jobs or the organization generally, then job satisfaction tends to be high. In contrast, if employees dislike or disapprove of their supervisors' approach to management and

view them as incompetent, then satisfaction tends to be low (Trempe, Rigny and Haccoun, 1985).

Correspondingly, job satisfaction is increased by policies that allow employees to participate in decisions that involve them, and which spread responsibilities and authority throughout the organization, rather than concentrating it in a few positions.

The areas of focus in this study are: intrinsic job satisfaction, working conditions (extrinsic satisfaction), and satisfaction with individual recognition and management behaviour. It is expected that these areas will be important to investigate in the Qatari organizations and have significant relationships with OC components.

The preceding discussion leads to the following proposition:

Hypothesis 14 (B): Employees with higher amounts of intrinsic job satisfaction, working conditions, and individual recognition & management behaviour are likely to produce higher levels of positive affective and normative commitment than continuance commitment.

3.4   Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that disparate outcomes or behaviours are associated with the different factors motivating employees to remain within organizations. In this study two consequences of OC will be measured in the State of Qatar. These variables are acceptance of organizational changes in organization and intent to leave (turnover intentions). The two variables will be explained next.

3.4.1 Acceptance of Organizational Changes

In general, little theoretical work has been devoted to the relationship between acceptance of organizational changes and organizational commitment components.

According to some researchers, without commitment from employees, organizations will be unable to maximize the impact of strategically important initiatives such as the management of change and the achievement of competitive advantage (Cheng and Kalleberg, 1996; Guest, 1998). Iverson (1996) added that high commitment level is

thought to be an important factor in the successful conclusion of organizational change programmes.

According to Meyer et al. (1989) a person who is affectively committed (i.e., has a strong desire to remain in the organization) might be more likely than someone who is not attached to keep up with developments in the organization, to join and participate in relevant associations, and so on. The same might be true of individuals who have a strong normative commitment (i.e., a sense of obligation to remain).

This study hypothesizes that affective commitment would have a positive effect on acceptance of organizational changes. Employees high in affective commitment demonstrate emotional attachment, identification with and involvement in the organization. This would explain why these employees are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviour and more willing to accept changes (Meyer and Allen, 1997 and Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). Normative commitment is also expected to have similar consequences to affective commitment. This type of commitment focuses on moral obligation which derives in part from the socialization practices of organizations. Employees have an obligation to reciprocate to the organization and therefore, are more receptive of change (Hackett et al., 1994; Somers, 1995; Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999). The third form of commitment, continuance, is anticipated to exhibit a negative impact on acceptance of organizational changes. As employees feel a sense of being "locked" into the organization due to the high costs of leaving (Jaros et al., 1993) they would be less likely to accept changes. Additionally, the possibility of losing their investments (e.g. specificity of skills) would decrease their acceptance of organizational change (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999)

Based on the preceding discussion, it is expected that the relationships between OC components and acceptance of organizational decisions and changes in Qatar will be as follows:

Hypothesis 15: Employees with higher levels of affective and normative commitment and with lower levels of continuance commitment are likely to display higher levels of acceptance of organizational decisions and changes.

3.4.2 Turnover Intentions (Intent to Leave)

Employees may exit an organization either voluntarily or involuntarily. For the purpose of this research, "turnover intention" is defined as an employee's decision to leave an organization voluntarily (Dougherty, Bluedorn, and Keon, 1985). Employees leave for a number of reasons, some to escape negative work environments, some to find work more in alignment with their career goals, and some to pursue opportunities that are more financially attractive. Involuntary turnover is usually employer initiated, where the organization wishes to terminate the relationship due to incompatibilities in matching its requirements. Involuntary turnover can also include death, mandatory retirements, and ill health (Mobley, 1977).

Measuring this variable is very important these days because changes affecting management and the flattening of organizational hierarchies have resulted in employees having increasingly more responsibility for decision making and for managing their own day-to-day activities with fewer staff. As a result, employees may become less satisfied with their job and less committed to the organization, which can have an impact on turnover intentions.

Turnover is referred as an individual's estimated probability that they will stay in an employing organization (Cotton and Tuttle, 1986). Several studies have reported that turnover intentions can reduce the overall effectiveness of an organization (Smith and Brough, 2003). There are two costs of turnover. Direct costs include separation costs, recruiting and attracting costs, selection costs, and hiring costs and indirect costs result from reduced quality cased by a shortage of manpower, lower mastery of skills, and lower morale (Boles, Ross, & Johnson, 1995). Therefore, the identification of factors that influence turnover intentions is considered as important and likely to be effective in reducing actual turnover. Thus, many studies investigate this variable and report a significant positive relationship between leaving intentions and actual leaving behaviour (Mobley et al., 1978; Price & Mueller, 1981; Bluedorn, 1982a; Maertz & Campion, 1998). In each case, it was found that employees indicating an intention to leave had higher rates of turnover compared to those employees who expressed an intention to stay.

Being a serious managerial problem, turnover has been widely studied. The focus of past research has been to identify the driving forces of turnover. Job satisfaction has been a popular explanation of turnover. However, Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) suggested that organizational commitment might be a better predictor of turnover than job satisfaction.

The notion of organizational commitment serving as a turnover determinant is supported by literature. Existing research suggests that OC is negatively related to both turnover (Price & Mueller, 1981; Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999) and intent to leave (Ferris & Aranya, 1983; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Becker & Billings, 1993; DeConinck & Bachmann, 1994; Allen and Meyer, 1996; Stallworth, 2004).

Steers (1977), in a study involving two diverse samples of employees in separate organizations, found that commitment was inversely related to employee turnover. Strong support was also found for the proposition that commitment is associated with increase in employee's desire and intent to remain. Steers hypothesizes that high commitment probably produces high intention to continue with the organization as well as high performance. Therefore, it could be inferred that higher levels of commitment and satisfaction would contribute to high levels of intent to remain, whereas, low commitment and satisfaction would contribute to high levels of turnover intentions.

Several reviews revealed consistent negative correlations between organizational commitment and turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Schneider, 2003). The association between affective commitment and turnover has been well established in previous research (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999; Mowday, Porters & Steers, 1982). The meta-analysis of Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner (2000) draws the inference that affective commitment is one of the best predictors of voluntary turnover. The research of Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, and Sincich, (1993) has found a negative relationship between continuance commitment and turnover intentions. Other studies have reported that the correlations are stronger for affective commitment and turnover; and significant relationships have been found for all three components of commitment (Katerberg & Blau, 1993; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Samad, 2006). Additionally, Mathieu and Zajac

(1990) found that affective commitment was more negatively related to turnover intentions (corrected r = -0.52) than was continuance commitment (corrected r = -0.22). Dunham et al. (1994) also found stronger relationships between affective commitment and turnover intentions than between continuance commitment and turnover intentions. Further, the results of Meyer et al. (1993) and Allen and Meyer (1996) suggest a significant negative relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions and mixed relationships between continuance commitment and turnover intentions.

Employees high in affective commitment demonstrate emotional attachment, identification with and involvement in the organization. This would explain why theses employees are less likely to engage in withdrawal behaviour (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; and Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999). The second form of commitment, continuance, is anticipated to exhibit a similar relationship to affective commitment, as employees feel a sense of being "locked" into the organization, due to the high costs of leaving they would be less likely leave the organization. Finally, normative commitment is also expected to have similar consequences to affective and continuance commitment. This type of commitment focuses on moral obligation which derives in part from the socialization practices of organizations. Employees have an obligation to reciprocate to the organization and therefore, are less likely to leave and more receptive of change (Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer et al., 1993; Somers, 1995; Schneider, 2003).

Researchers such as Mathieu & Zajac (1990), Ketchand & Strawser (1998), Stallworth (2004), and Samad (2006) investigating the relationships between the various dimensions of OC and turnover intentions, found that affective commitment is the most influential of the dimensions.

Currently, no systematic studies regarding the relationship and influence of OC on turnover intentions have been carried out among government, public, and private sector employees working in Qatar. Thus, it is expected that the relationships between various dimensions of OC and turnover intentions will be as they have been in the Western studies discussed above. The following hypothesis is therefore put forward:

Hypothesis 16: Employees with higher organizational commitment components are likely to express lower levels of turnover intentions. Furthermore, affective component of commitment is expected to be more negatively related to turnover intentions than other commitment components.

3.5   Chapter Summary

High commitment from employees is assumed to be good for organizations, supporting a platform of strategies for organizational survival. Thus, much of the early work on commitment has been overtaken by concerns about how to create and maintain high commitment among employees.

The review of the literature reveals some facts about organizational commitment and its predictors. First, regarding personal characteristics, it is believed that employees bring their demographic differences with them to the workplace. Many of the previous studies have found that commitment increases with personal characteristics such as age and tenure, whereas education levels have been found to be negatively related to commitment. Further, employees in top managerial positions have been found more satisfied with permanent contracts and paying salaries and fringe benefits than other employees.

Second, the review of the literature also reveals that organizational characteristics, job characteristics, and job satisfaction variables of employees can influence their attitudes toward their employing organizations positively or negatively. For example, employees with better working conditions have been found to be more satisfied and committed to their organizations than other employees.

Third, regarding the consequences of OC, several studies have found that commitment leads to lower turnover intentions (higher intent to remain in the organization) and higher acceptance of organizational changes and decisions.

Finally, after summarizing many of the previous studies in each part of the selected variables, the basic hypotheses for each variable were then formulated for this study. In the next chapter, the study design and research methodology will be considered in more detail.

Chapter Four

Research Design & Methodology

4.1   Introduction

This chapter discusses the data collection methods and the procedures that were adopted in order to collect data for the purpose of analysis, testing of hypotheses, and answering the research questions. The research design, selection of participants, companies, and appropriate sample sizes from domestic and non-domestic employees working in Qatari organizations are explained. In addition, this chapter focuses on the measures used, which include the three dimensions of organizational commitment as dependent variables and personal demographics, organizational characteristics, job characteristics, and job satisfaction variables as predictors of organizational commitment. The development of the data collection instrument, including its translation and back translation, validity, and reliability of the instrument, are explained. Finally, data collection procedures, scaling, and the techniques that were used to analyse the data are discussed.

4.2   Research Strategy

Because the research environment of Arabia in general and Qatar in particular is significantly different from other parts of the world, the choice of research strategy and design, in order to be effective, will have to be based on the ground realities of the environment in which the research is being conducted. It is important to take account of the unique socio-cultural setting in which the present study was undertaken so as enable the reader to appreciate the choice of research strategy for the present study. For a country with a small population of no more than 900 thousands, it is a matter of concern that not only is more than 60% of its population composed of non-nationals, but the number of expatriates is on a continuous rise. It is perhaps obvious from the first section in Chapter One (Qatar's Location, Population, Economy, & Workforce) that the present study was conducted in a special cultural setting.

The study can be classified as largely exploratory, as it seeks to establish the relationships between organizational commitment, job satisfaction aspects, and other examined work and non-work variables. Part of this study that deals with demographic aspects can be considered largely descriptive, intended to help in obtaining a better understanding of this research.

Some researchers argued that the key to good research might be to design a research strategy to fit a particular context. The methods become then only a means to an end. The key to good research lies not in choosing the right method but rather in asking the right question and picking the most powerful method for answering that particular question (Bouchard, 1976). Methods then become neither good nor bad, but rather more or less useful for answering particular questions at a particular time or place.

There is still long-standing debate in the social sciences about the most appropriate philosophical position from which methods should be derived. It is widely agreed that the phenomenological and the positivist are among the most fundamental approaches to research methodology. The first approach, the phenomenological approach, focuses on the meanings and the context of the conducted study focus, as they make sense to the human actor who inhabits that practical social word (Saunders et al., 1997). On the other hand, in the second approach the emphasis is on formulating a hypothesis, expressing it in operational terms, testing it, and subsequently modifying the theory in the light of the study findings. Aiken (1956) argued that the view that positivism provides the best way of investigating human and social behaviour originated as a reaction to metaphysical speculation. This approach can be redone to become cyclical, and the findings should form a coherent whole.

In practice, however, many researchers from one position produce ideas or combine methods, which belong more neatly to those of the other position. Burrell and Morgan (1979) argue that in practice the researchers involved do not hold scrupulously to one or the other approach. Therefore, there is a move amongst management researchers to develop methods and approaches that provide a middle ground, and some bridging between the two extreme viewpoints.

Researchers such as Easterby, Thorpe, & Lowe (1997, p.23) argued that each of these positions has to some extent been perceived stereotypically, often by opposing sides. The characteristics of positivist research are:
- Independence: the observer is independent of what is being observed.
- Value freedom: the choice of what to study, and how to study can be determined by objective criteria rather than by human belief and interests.

106

- Hypothetico-deductive: science proceeds through a process of hypothesising fundamental laws and then deducing what kind of observations will demonstrate the truth or falsity of these hypotheses.

- Operationalisation: concepts need to be operationalised in a way which enables facts to be measured quantitatively.

- Generalisation: in order to be able to generalise about regularities in human and social behaviour, it is necessary to select samples of sufficient size.

- Cross-sectional analysis: regularities can most easily be identified by making comparisons of variations across samples.

This research falls in the tradition of positivism, as the study seeks to establish, albeit in a limited sense, the cause and effect relationships between some of the important factors influencing the phenomenon. This is done with a view to obtaining a better grasp of what is happening, why it happening, and also to establish its impact. To this end, empirical data were collected from the field, and a number of statistical tests conducted to find meaningful relationships between the dependent and independent variables. Such types of research use a highly structured methodology to facilitate replication (Gill and Johnson, 1991), and aim at explaining causal relationships between variables. Such studies largely rely on quantitative data and employ controls to allow the testing of hypotheses (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991).

In summary, this research was positivist in nature, as it such an approach was thought to be conductive to better understanding of the organizational commitment issue for employees working in Qatar. Since it is difficult to investigate OC issues with small samples or focus on meanings and try to understand what is happening, the researcher remained distanced from the material that was being researched and independent from respondents of the questionnaires. The researcher focused on facts and hard data rather than opinions, looked for regularities in the data obtained, and tested hypotheses by using large samples from different organizations in Qatar.

4.3   Research Design

Research design, as explained by Kerlinger (1986), is the plan and structure of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions. In general,

research designs are about organising research activity, including the collection of data, in ways that are most likely to achieve the research aims. According to Black and Champion (1976) research design serves many functions: it provides the researcher with a blueprint for studying social questions; dictates the boundaries of research activity and enables the investigator to channel his or her energies in specific directions; and it enables the researcher to anticipate potential problems during the implementation stage.

Research design covers a variety of areas such as where the research is going to be conducted, what type of investigations will take place, what the sample is going to be, and how the data will be collected and analysed. According to Sekaran (2000), the selection of a particular research design depends on the sensitivity of the question to be answered and the hypothesis to be tested. Schwenck (1982) argued that the appropriateness of a particular research methodology is determined not only by the overall development of a field or laboratory setting but by the particular research question asked and the purpose of the research problem.

There are two major research designs in the literature, experimental and non-experimental designs. Both of them seek to explain human behaviour, but they differ critically in the degree of control they have over the data.

An experimental research design manipulates variables suspected to produce an effect, whereas a non-experimental research design observes such variables and seeks their explanation (Beck, 1993). Despite its use in social and management research and its obvious advantages, the experimental research design calls for extreme caution when applied to social and management research. Such research exposes one group of individuals to the experiment, leaving others out, and this raises a number of ethical issues (Blaxter et al., 1996).

The non-experimental research design broadly includes survey, case study and focus group interviews. The case study or and focus group interviews are flexible methods, as they use a mixture of methods, including personal observation, use of informants for current and historical data, straightforward interviewing, and documentary research based on archival data (Cosley and Lury, 1987). Although the case study

method or focus group interviews are ideally suited to the needs and resources of the small-scale researcher, as they allow the researcher to focus just on one or two examples, this approach requires full support and access to information from the organization under study. Despite its obvious ease and advantage to the researcher, the case study or focus group interview method was not appropriate for the present study, which measures a range of variables in three different sectors, as it was difficult to focus on a small group of employees for each sector and then compare between them. A survey approach was more appropriate.

Surveys are usually regarded as a research approach with the idea of asking groups of people questions (Blaxter et al., 1996) that would lead to a better understanding of the phenomenon under study. The survey method is a popular and common strategy in business and management research. It allows the collection of a large amount of data from a sizeable population in an economical manner. In addition, use of survey methods provides better control over the research process (Saunders et al., 1997). Surveys may be of two types – descriptive and analytical. Descriptive surveys aim at accuracy in portraying the characteristics of particular individuals, groups or situations. Analytical surveys are mainly concerned with hypothesis testing, and establishing causal relationships between variables in order to understand and explain a particular social and managerial phenomenon (Bulmer, 1984).

Some researchers, such as Punch (1986) and Bulmer (1988), argued that when it comes to the use of quantitative or qualitative methods and the issues of research design, the distinction breaks down. Fielding and Fielding (1986) advocate the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods to collect data because using different methods to collect data will benefit employees and management.

This research uses quantitative methods in order to establish the relationships between different examined variables. Thus, almost all sections in the questionnaire are designed to elicit quantitative data, although there is one question in the questionnaire to obtain qualitative information from the target respondents.

This study used a cross sectional survey design where a survey was administered once to a given sample. According to Babbie (1990), the following supports a rationale for using a cross sectional research design:

> "Data are collected at one point in time from a sample selected to describe some larger population at that time. Such a survey can be used not only for purposes of description but also for determination of relationship between variables at the time of study". (p.56)

In this study, a single-time survey collection method was used.

In conclusion, the present study used mainly quantitative methods in order to establish the relationships between different examined variables. Only a small part of this study falls in the qualitative category.

4.3.1   Data Collection Methods

Data collection methods are an integral part of any research design. According to Sekaran (2000) data collection methods include *interviews* (face to face interviews, telephone interviews, computer-assistant interviews, and through the electronic media); *questionnaires* (personally administered, sent through the mail, or electronically administered); *observation* of individuals and events; and finally a variety of other *motivational techniques*. Therefore, data can be collected in a variety of ways, in different settings, and from different resources.

Sekaran (2000) argued that the choice of data collection methods depends on the facilities available, the degree of accuracy required, the expertise of the researcher, the time span of the study, and other costs and resources associated with and available for data gathering.

Collecting data in a developing country, like Qatar, is always expensive, not necessarily in terms of money but in terms of time and convenience. The major difficulty arises on account of the fact that some of the documents, reports, and statistics available in the government agencies are simply not made available to individuals, on the pretext of confidentiality. This situation forces individuals to collect data from primary sources using tools of data collection.

Podsakoff and Organ (1986) stressed that social desirability, the consistency motive, and common method variance are major problems associated with self-report, which many researchers use to gather data in organizational research. To reduce the problems associated with self-report, Widaman (1985), Sekaran (2000) and other researchers suggested the use of multiple sources to gather the data necessary for the problem at hand. This approach was adopted in this study by using questionnaires and an open question for managers, supervisors, and personnel who have relevant data about employees' commitment and work-related issues. In the following, both methods will be discussed.

Mail Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a preformulated written set of questions to which respondents record their answers, usually from among rather closely defined alternatives (Sekaran, 2000). A questionnaire was used in this study as a main source of information in order to collect quantitative data. It served as the tool for getting large-scale data to test the main issue of this study.

According to Oppenheim and Naftali (1992), if the research is particularly concerned with attitudes, opinions, and organizational behaviour, the questionnaire enables a researcher to identify and describe the variability in different phenomena. The use of a questionnaire was decided upon because of its utility. The main advantages of using a mail questionnaire are the wide geographical area that can be covered in the survey and that respondents can complete their questionnaires at their own convenience, in their homes, and at their own pace. Mason and Bramble (1978) state that a questionnaire has the advantage of increasing the generalizability of the data, and making respondents more confident in providing truthful answers. Kidder and Judd (1986) added that a mail questionnaire allows for anonymity in situations that involve sensitive issues and helps employees to reveal any true negative feelings they may have about their employing organizations, without fear of retaliation by management. In addition, the questionnaire will provide large-scale numerical data that can easily be statistically analysed. As pointed out by many researchers such as Clover & Balsley (1979) and Saunders et al., (1997), prospective respondents can be reached at

a relatively low cost through the use of questionnaire and a quick turnaround time can usually be expected.

One of the major limitations of a questionnaire can be remedied by carefully drawing the sample, but there would still be a few that need careful attention (Oppenheim and Naftali, 1992). For example, some people may be so emotional that their feelings might dominate their answers. They may try to give answers to questions that they think will please the researcher, or to agree with his/her views. As a result, they are likely to say what they consider would keep them safe, and their bosses happy and satisfied.

Another limitation of the questionnaire is that the return rates of mail questionnaires are typically low and that means in some cases it is difficult to establish the representativeness of the sample, because those responding to the survey may be totally different from the population they are supposed to represent. Another disadvantage of the mail questionnaire is that any doubts the respondents might have cannot be clarified.

In this research, it was felt that there are almost no reliable investigations and very little information about organizational commitment topic in Qatar. Consequently, it became evident that the questionnaire technique is easier to analyse across all respondents, since the researcher can obtain the same data for all. In addition, questionnaires can permit a large number of people to be included in an investigation at a relatively low cost. As a result of these advantages, a survey research based on questionnaire was adopted for the present research.

To solve the aforementioned limitations of the questionnaire, the researcher of this study increased the return rate by asking some of his friends and relatives to distribute questionnaire copies to their friends and colleagues in their companies and collect them later, instead of doing so himself, to be sure that respondents would fill and return questionnaires. In addition, the researcher made the questionnaire brief, simple, and ensured that it was free from ambiguity, and that each item of the questionnaire was expressed clearly in terms which could be understood easily, by the respondents.

The content of the questionnaire is another important area in the research. Every effort was made to cover all aspects of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and other important variables in this research. In this research, the questionnaire consisted of several parts. Each set of questions or statements was intended to measure a particular variable. Most of the items used here have been borrowed partly or wholly from other research instruments, which have demonstrated reliability and validity.

An Open-Ended Question

At the end of survey instrument, a question was included inviting respondents from different participating companies, sectors, and from different domestic and non-domestic employees to elaborate on their feelings, opinions, and suggestions about organizational commitment and job satisfaction topic in a qualitative way.

Content analysis was performed for the responses given to the open-ended question. To be able to do this, the researcher read all of respondents' comments. Then, the researcher identified the major themes, feelings, suggestions, or factors related to organizational commitment and other issues in this study.

4.4   Research Population & Sampling

The context of this research is unique in more than one sense. It is unique in the sense that Qatar is a relatively new nation in the modern sense of the word. Qatar, like other Gulf States, has severe shortages of indigenous manpower. Consequently, the country hires self-initiated expatriates, or guest workers, from different countries of the world. They comprise over 60% of the population in a country that has an indigenous population of about 885,395 (World Factbook website, 2006). The workforce in most sectors is composed to a large degree of these expatriates.

Sekaran (2000) defines the population of any study as the entire group of people, events, or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate. The population of this study referrers to all of the domestic and non-domestic employees (such as personnel, managers, and supervisors) working in the medium and large sized companies in Qatar's private, public, and government sectors that participated in this study.

In the selection of the companies, this research focused on companies that have more than 300 employees working for them. The selection of participant companies was largely based on representation of nationalities and cooperation of employees and management.

In the next paragraphs, each of the selected sectors will be explained:

- *Government Sector*: This refers to the establishments that normally perform a government administrative or service activity (ministries and civil administration departments). Data of the labour force in the government sector, taken from the Ministry of Civil Service Affairs and Housing, includes those employed according to the State's general cadre (grades) and does not include those who are outside the cadre. The researcher selected three ministries (Ministry of Education, Ministry of Finance, and Ministry of Municipal Affairs & Agriculture) and two civil administrations (National Council for Culture Arts & Heritage and State Audit Bureau) to conduct the research from this sector.

- *Public Sector: (Government Corporations and Companies):* These are the establishments (companies and corporations) owned fully by the government, whether their budgets are independent or annexed to that of the State. The researcher selected four organizations to participate in this study. These organizations are: Qatar Electricity & Water Corporation, Hamad Medical Corporation, General Postal Corporation, and University of Qatar.

- *Private Sector:* These are the organizations, national or foreign corporations or companies, in which the government does not have any capital contribution (or has only a small contribution) and the main reason for their establishment is to gain profits or provide services. In this sector, five large companies were selected to participate in this research. These companies are: Electricity Company, Qatar Insurance Company, Qatar Navigation Company, Arab Bank, and Qatar National Bank. All of the previous companies are listed on Doha Stock Market Index, except Arab Bank.

In this research, the sample respondents were drawn from a large number of organizations (four to five organizations from each sector) and thus the examination of commitment was not confined to any particular organizational context.

Regarding the selection of the participants, Sekaran (2000) mentioned two ways to select individuals in studies, either by matching or random selection. Use of a matching technique may not take account of all the factors that could possibly contaminate the cause and effect relationship in the research situation, and hence may fail to match some critical factors across all participants. A randomisation technique will take care of this, since all known and unknown contaminating factors will be spread across all participants.

This research used the second technique to select participants drawn from the target population of participating companies. The researcher asked the human resources directors of most of the participating companies/ministries, and some friends and relatives, to help him in distributing questionnaires, targeting Qatari and non-Qatari employees in their companies if possible. This kind of technique was advantageous, as it allowed the researcher to collect an adequate amount of suitable data with speed, accuracy, economy and convenience for all employees.

- *Sample Size*

Calculation of the appropriate sample size is an important starting point for any research. In general, selecting an appropriate sample size can help the researcher to reduce the work-force requirement, cut cost, and get information more quickly, with more focus. There is no clear-cut answer in the literature on the appropriate sample size. Hamburg (1987) emphasized that any investigator should answer two important questions to decide the appropriate sample size. These two questions are related to the degree of precision desired and the probability attached to the desired precision. A very large sample will increase the accuracy of the results but also would be a waste of available resources, while a small sample may not serve the objective of the study.

In a study of this type, it is nearly impossible for an individual researcher with limited means and time to carry out representative sampling based on probability sampling techniques. In addition, the lack of up-to-date and accurate information on numbers of

employees, especially employees working in Qatar's private and public sector companies, make it difficult for a researcher to calculate an appropriate sample size in these two sectors.

Fowler (1984) noted, "The size of population from which a sample of a particular size is drawn has virtually no impact on how well that sample is likely to describe the population. A sample of 150 people will describe a population of 15000 or 15 million with virtually the same degree of accuracy, assuming all other aspects of the sample design and sampling procedures were the same" (p.41). Bearing these points in mind, it was decided that the present research would seek to obtain data from samples of between 150 and 175 subjects in each sector of the Qatar's workforce. Therefore, the present research was confined to a sample of 520 employees. It was felt that this sample size would be quite sufficient.

In view of the past experiences reported by other researchers in the region, it was decided to select an initial sample of nearly two times the targeted sample size. As it was intended to collect useful information from about 520 respondents to answer the research questions and to meet the objectives of the study (more than 170 employees from each sector), a sample of about 800 was chosen on the basis of quota coupled with convenience sampling. This is a large sample size compared to many in the literature reviewed.

The present study covered employees at different levels of organizational hierarchy in three important sectors of the economy in Qatar (about 270 employees from each sector). The questionnaire covered also respondents from different nationalities at three managerial levels (bottom, middle, top). To achieve these objectives, the following techniques were adopted.

1 Instead of collecting data from the whole of Qatar, the researcher limited the data collection to the city of Doha. Doha is not only the capital of the country, but it is also the largest city in terms of area and population.

2 The sampling plan included only those categories of the workforce who had at least 12 years of formal schooling. This was to ensure that the respondents were able to understand the questions asked, and would be able to respond accurately.

3   The sampling plan included only employees working in the medium and large sized profit and service companies (from government, public, and private organizations that employed a minimum of 300 employees). The sample plan thus excluded other employees working in small profit and service companies, manufacturing, communication, non-profit, or other companies.

The researcher then asked the human resources directors of most of the participating companies, and some friends and relatives, to help him in distributing questionnaires, targeting Qatari and non-Qatari employees in their companies if possible.

4.5   Research Conceptual Model, Research Objectives, & Research Questions

Figure 4.1 presents a diagram of the variables and their relationships that this study was designed to study. Our proposed model employs personal characteristics, organizational characteristics, job characteristics, and job satisfaction variables as independent variables and the three dimensions of organizational commitment as the dependent variable. Then, the research model employs OC as an independent variable and turnover intentions and acceptance changes as independent variables.

The main research objective was to compare organizational commitment among employees working in Qatar's government, public, and private sectors. Another objective of this research was to compare organizational commitment among host country nationals and different nationalities working in Qatar's workforce. In addition, this study tried to explore the relationships between organizational commitment components with personal characteristics, organizational characteristics, job-related characteristics, and job satisfaction variables. Finally, this research tried to explore the relationships between organizational commitment and some of its consequences in Qatar, such as turnover intention and acceptance of organizational changes.

As mentioned in the first chapter, this study seeks an answer to the following questions:

1. What is the organizational commitment level among employees working in Qatar's government, public, and private sector? Are employees of one sector more committed to their respective organizations than employees of the other sectors?

2. Are there any differences in the level of commitment between domestic and non-domestic employees in Qatar's three sectors?

3. What is the relationship between each selected variable of personal characteristics of employees working in Qatar and the three dimensions of organizational commitment?

4. To what degree are organizational characteristics (personal growth and development, job security, equity on paying salary and fringe benefits) related to each organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative)?

5. To what degree are job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, autonomy, feedback on performance) related to each organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative)?

6. To what degree are job satisfaction factors related to each component of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative)?

7. To what degree is each organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) related to both turnover intentions and acceptance of organizational changes in Qatar's workforce?

Figure 4.1: Research Conceptual Model

The antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment in Qatar's workforce.

Antecedents .... **Consequences**

Personal Characteristics
- Sector
- Nationality
- Educational levels
- Gender of employee
- Marital status
- Number of dependants
- Age of employee
- Length of service
- Type of employment (contract vs. non-contract)

Organizational Characteristics
- Equity on paying salary and fringe benefits
- Perceived personal growth and development
- Job security

Job Characteristics
- Degree of autonomy
- Skill variety
- Feedback on performance
- Task identity

Job Satisfaction Variables
- Intrinsic job satisfaction
- Working conditions extrinsic satisfaction
- Individual recognition and management behaviour
- Overall job satisfaction

Organizational commitment:
- Affective commitment
- Continuance commitment
- Normative commitment

Turnover intentions or (Intent to leave)

Acceptance of organizational changes

Independent Variables   In/Dependent Variable   Dependent Variable

119

4.6   Research Measures

4.6.1 Independent Variables

Sekaran (2000) defined an independent variable as one that influences the dependent variable in either a positive or a negative way. That is, when the independent variable is present, the dependent variable is also present, and with each unit increase in the independent variable, there is an increase or decrease in the dependent variable also. In the following sections each set of independent variables will be mentioned.

4.6.1.1 Personal Characteristics

The first set of antecedents of OC or independent variables is personal or demographic characteristics that distinguish one person from another. This research asked participants to provide information on these personal demographics. These characteristics include education level, gender, nationality, marital status, age, length of service, employment type, and number of dependents of employees. The respondents reported these variables via self-report measures. In addition to the above questions, each respondent was asked to answer other general questions such as their organization sector.

4.6.1.2 Organizational Characteristics

The second set of independent variables in this study is the organizational characteristics. These characteristics are perceived personal growth and development, equity on paying salary & fringe benefits and job security.

In this study, job security was measured by using one question: "How much does this organization provide job security for you?" drawn from Northcraft and Neale (1990). Personal growth and development and perceived equity on paying salary and fringe benefits were measured by asking several questions drawn and tested from the Worthy Organization Survey. The Worthy Organization Survey (WOS) is a comprehensive diagnostic tool for thinking about perceptions of organizational worthiness and issues of commitment. The source for the characteristics was a survey done by the Khaleel Jamison Consulting Group (1999). The WOS reliability alpha is more than 0.74. A five-point scale was employed for all questions in this part ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

4.6.1.3 Job Characteristics

This study asked participants to respond to questions pertaining to their jobs. These characteristics are skill variety, job autonomy, feedback on performance, and task identity. According to the literature, there are two important scales to measure job characteristics: Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) and the Sims, Szilagyi and Keller's (1976) Job Characteristics Index (JCI). These two scales will be explained next.

1. Hackman & Oldham's (1975) JDS is the most widely used perceptual measure of job design, though its underlying dimensionality has been increasingly questioned (Pierce & Dunham, 1976). The JDS is used to obtain measures of five intercorrelated dimensions with reliability estimates typically above 0.70. The JDS employs 12 items (three items per scale).
2. Sims, Szilagyi & Keller (1976) developed the JCI as an extension of the Hackman & Lawler (1971) job measurement approach. The JCI is purposed to measure four of the core characteristics tapped by the JDS. To measure the four core dimensions, the JCI uses 17 items (5 items for variety, 5 items for autonomy, 4 items for feedback, and 3 items for identity).

The results of several studies using the JCI scale revealed that the instrument has high validity and reliability for research on the relationship between job characteristics and employee attitudes and behaviour. For example, Pierce and Dunham (1978) evaluated and compared the dimensionality and internal consistency of the JDS and the JCI scales. They found Cronbach's coefficient alpha internal consistency to be higher for the JCI than the JDS scales. Furthermore, compared to coefficient alpha values for the JDS scales ranging from 0.69 (feedback) to 0.79 (autonomy), Pierce and Dunham (1978) found each of the four JCI scales had reliability estimates above 0.85.

Therefore, this study used the Job Classification Index (JCI) developed by Sims, Szilagyi and Keller (1976) to measure the four core variables of job characteristics. Empirical studies from diverse samples indicate high coefficient alphas of reliability for all of the variables. Bhuian et al. (2001) and Bhuian & Menguc (2002) found in their evaluation of job characteristics, organizational commitment and job satisfaction that all dimensions scales of JCI had reliability coefficients above the 0.70 level.

The four core dimensions variables used in this study of job characteristics are:

1. Task variety: The degree to which a job requires employees to perform a wide range of operations in their work and/or the degree to which employees must use a variety of equipment and procedures in their work. Reliability alpha from previous studies ranged from 0.78 to 0.82 (Bhuian & Menguc, 2002).

2. Degree of Autonomy (5 items): The extent to which employees have a major say in scheduling their work, selecting the equipment they will use, and deciding on procedures to be followed. Reliability alpha from previous studies =0.84 (Bhuian & Menguc, 2002).

3. Feedback on performance (4 items): The degree to which employee receive information as they are working which reveals how well they are performing on the job. Reliability alpha from previous studies ranged from 0.83 to 0.86 (Bhuian & Menguc, 2002).

4. Task identity (3 items): The extent to which employees do an entire or whole piece of work and can clearly identify the result of their efforts. Reliability alpha ranged from 0.75 to 0.83 (Bhuian & Menguc, 2002).

The scoring of job characteristics variables was conducted following the guidelines requiring reverse scoring for selected items provided by the authors of this instrument. Responses to each item of the scale were measured on a 5-point scale, ranging in value from 1 ("Very Little") to 5 ("Very Much") or ranging from 1 ("Minimum Amount") to 5 ("Maximum Amount"). The total score for each variable of job satisfaction was calculated by totalling the item scores.

4.6.1.4 Job Satisfaction Variables

As suggested in numerous works, job satisfaction is very important in explaining organizational commitment. This study asked participants to respond to questions pertaining to their feelings about their jobs. Job satisfaction was assessed through the Overall Job Satisfaction questionnaire developed by Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979), a 15-item instrument that measures both intrinsic and extrinsic elements of job satisfaction. These items ask respondents to indicate the extent to their satisfaction/dissatisfaction with 15 factors (e.g., variety, compensation, recognition, working conditions, supervision, etc.). While many studies used the overall measure

of job satisfaction, recent studies have supplemented or replaced this measure with measures of multiple areas of satisfaction. Studies from different samples indicate coefficient alphas of reliability ranging from 0.85 to 0.88 for this instrument (Warr et al., 1979).

The 15-item instrument that measures both intrinsic and extrinsic elements of job satisfaction was used to measure four variables as follows:

1. Intrinsic job satisfaction (4 items)
2. Working conditions extrinsic satisfaction (5 items)
3. Individual recognition and management behaviour (6 items)
4. Overall job satisfaction (Averaging the above items)

The scoring of data was conducting by guidelines provided by the authors of this instrument. Responses to each item of the scale were measured on a 5-point scale, ranging in value from 1 ("Very Dissatisfied") to 5 ("Very Satisfied"). The total score for each variable of job satisfaction was calculated by summing the points. Previous studies have produced reliability coefficients of 0.85 and 0.88 for the instrument (Warr et al., 1979).

4.6.2 The Three Components of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment can be positioned as a dependent variable or as an independent variable that acts a predictor of, for example, acceptance of organizational changes and turnover intentions. Thus, the majority of commitment studies have treated commitment as an independent variable influencing work outcomes such as turnover and absenteeism, or as a dependent variable affected by demographic factors and some other antecedent variables.

Most of the recent research in industrial/organizational psychology and organizational behaviour literature has identified the existence of multiple dimensions of OC that has been interpreted in a variety of different ways. Therefore, the dimensions on which one measure "fits" vary considerably among different researchers. Many researchers argued that a well-developed instrument, which has been carefully operationally defined, will be accepted and frequently used by other researchers.

Organizational commitment was measured in this research by using Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) Organizational Commitment Scale, one of the leading instruments for empirical research on organizational commitment. The reliability estimates, factor structure, and tests of nomological net for this instrument are reviewed in Meyer and Allen (1997). The 18-(revised) item scale was used in this study instead of the original scales to measure the three components of organizational commitment. The revised scales of the three dimensions of organizational commitment comprise 6 items for each of affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

The scoring of the revised Organizational Commitment Scales as provided by the author's guidelines require reverse scoring for selected items for each affective, continuance, and normative commitment scale. Responses to each item of the revised scales were measured on a 7-point scale, ranging in value from 1 ("Strongly Disagree") through 4 ("Neither Agree or Disagree") to 7 ("Strongly Agree"). A total score was calculated by adding the scores for each of affective, continuance, and normative commitment for each respondent.

In this study, the total score for each of the affective, continuance, and normative commitment was treated first as a dependent variable with the antecedents of OC and then as an independent variable when we measured the influence of OC on work outcomes such as turnover intentions and acceptance of organizational changes.

4.6.3 Dependent Variable: Consequences of Organizational Commitment

The dependent variable is the variable of primary interest to the researcher, since the researcher's goal is to understand and describe the dependent variable or predict it. In this research, the last part of the questionnaire asked respondents about two consequences of OC. These consequences were acceptance of organizational changes and turnover intentions.

Two self-administered items were used to assess acceptance of organizational changes. These items asked participants to express their opinion about the previous changes and decisions around their organizations and if they would accept other changes around their organization in the future. These items were, "In general previous changes and decisions (made by management) have been for the best," and

"I will accept any changes around my organization in the future because any changes will be for the good".

To measure turnover intentions, two questions from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann et al., 1983) were used to measure turnover intention or intent to leave. These items were, "I will probably look for a new job within the next year," and "I often think about quitting." According to Bucko et al., (1998), reliability for this scale as measured by Cronbach's alpha was 0.87.

All items of this part were measured on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 ("Strongly Disagree") to 5 ("Strongly Agree"). The total score for each variable of consequences of organizational commitment was calculated by adding the points for each item.

4.6.4   Measurement Scales

Sekaran (2000) defined a scale as a tool or mechanism by which individuals are distinguished on how they differ from one another on the variables of interest. Sekaran (2000) added that there are four basic types of scales: nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio. Each scale has advantages and disadvantages. The literature reveals that there is no one superior operational measure for assessing the most suitable method. Hence, the choice of a scale depends on the type of the research and its environment.

The data of this study are both nominal and ordinal. Both nominal and ordinal scales are considered to be categorical variables, where all variables have value labels. Personal characteristics such as sex, age nationality, marital status, length of employment, and educational level, are all nominal variables and numbers were assigned to identify and label the categories. However, the numbers have no importance beyond allowing the researcher to classify the number of cases in each category. Organizational characteristics, job characteristics, organizational commitment, intent to remain, acceptance of organizational changes, and job satisfaction variables data are all ordinal, which means they are ranked values. Since semantic scaling assigned numerical values to each category, the researcher treated the ordinal data as an interval level of measurement, as this provides the advantage that statistics that use interval scales can be applied.

An important consideration for the designer of measurement instruments concerns the choice of scaling technique. According to Polit and Hunger (1999) there are differences of opinion concerning the appropriate number of response alternatives to use. A large majority of studies on organizational commitment used Likert-type scales to measure attitudes of employees toward the organizations. These are designed to examine how strongly respondents agree or disagree with statements on a five to seven point scale. The responses over a number of items tapping a particular concept or variable are then summated for every respondent. The Likert scale has many advantages over other scales that account for its popularity because it is easy and quick to construct and, according to Summers (1970), because of its validity, reliability, and practicality.

In addition to the previous advantages, Likert-type scales were used in this survey because most previous work on commitment has used Likert scales including the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) and Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) which have dominated commitment research.

Both five-point and seven-point Likert scales were thought to be appropriate and convenient to this study because it follows the suggestions of the original authors of the instruments used in this study. Thus, participants expressed agreement or disagreement, except for personal characteristics and organizational commitment questions, were recorded on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 ("Strongly Disagree") to 5 ("Strongly Agree"). In another type of scale used for some of the job characteristics, 1 indicates "Very Little", and 5 indicates "Very Much". Another type of scale used in job satisfaction variables was where 1 indicates, "Very Dissatisfied", and 5 indicates, "Very Satisfied". Finally, as suggested by the instrument authors, only organizational commitment questions were recorded on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 ("Strongly Disagree") to 4 ("Neither Agree or Disagree") to 7 ("Strongly Agree").

4.7   Research Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this study was designed based on several articles and studies that measured work attitudes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction. In this study, each questionnaire was accompanied with by a standard

126

covering letter and each participant was asked to fill out one survey consisting of more than 65 items (see Appendix D for details). The aim of the study and a statement of complete anonymity and confidentiality were contained in the covering letter.

The study's questionnaire consisted of nine parts. Each set of questions or statements was intended to measure a particular variable. Most of the items used were borrowed partly or wholly from other research instruments and most of the questions used in the questionnaire had strong reliability, with coefficients of more than 0.70. Sekaran (1992, p.287) accepts this level of reliability and argued, "reliabilities less than 0.60 are generally considered to be poor". These items were used in the questionnaire in order to give this study a basis for comparison with other previous research.

Furthermore, an open ended question was included in the last part of the questionnaire to allow the respondents to elaborate in depth on their answers. This question asked participants to suggest positive organizational changes for their workplaces, to increase organizational commitment and job satisfaction in their companies. According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1989) open ended questions provide the rich detail that puts a mass of collected data into context.

4.7.1   Translation of the Questionnaire

This study used both Arabic and English versions of the questionnaire because it was expected that some of the intended participants would be fluent in one or other of the languages, but probably not both. Researchers have examined the appropriateness of the instrument in Western and a few non-Western countries, but the researcher wanted to ascertain that the questionnaire would work in Qatar.

All of the questions, originally written in the English language, were translated into Arabic by a specialist translation company in Qatar. Then, the Arabic version of questionnaire was translated back into English by another company. This method of translation was used to determine the equivalence of the two versions of the questionnaire.

During the translation process, every effort was made to ensure that the translation and back translation of the questionnaire into Arabic would be as simple as possible

and translations would be linguistically correct, in view of the fact that most respondents were not native English speakers. Moreover, while attempting the simplification of the language of the questionnaire, all effort was made also to ensure that the items in the questionnaire would not lose their identity. Hofstede (1980) recommended such procedures of back translation and content validation for translation of cross-national research instruments into another language. In addition, all things that could cause misunderstanding, such as type of printing, misspelled words, missing pages and poorly phrased items, were eliminated in order to increase the validity and reliability of the questionnaire.

4.7.2   Piloting of the Questionnaire

An initial reading of the literature made clear the importance of a pilot study, based on the argument of Borg and Gall (1983, pp.30-31): "Every questionnaire must be tested and refined under real world conditions. Even after years of experience, no expert can write a perfect questionnaire". The pilot test is very important in research investigation because it helps the researcher to see how the questionnaires will be conducted at the time of the main study and how long respondents take to complete them, identify items which do not yield usable data, add items to fill any data gaps and reword unclear questions, in preparation for the main study.

Prior to sending the survey to respondents for the study, the instrument was referred to three referees for pre-pilot scrutiny, then trialled with twenty employees in a pilot study. The purpose of the pilot study was to examine the reliability and validity of the instrument and to assess respondent feedback from completed surveys (check whether changes needed to be made to the instrument), to suit this study. Piloting the questionnaire (such as the length, layout, format, coverage, and wording of the instrument) as fully as possible is important before distributing the questionnaire. Collis and Hussey (2003) advised researchers to have colleagues or friends read through it and play the role of respondents, even if they know little about the subject.

Three professors of the department of business at the College of Business and Economics from University of Qatar for the pre-pilot scrutiny. The selection was based on their ability to read and speak Arabic and English fluently. They were asked to complete the questionnaire according to instructions and then to review carefully

all the items from a critical perspective to seek out problems such as ambiguity or redundancy. After receiving their comments and suggestions, several changes were made to both versions of the questionnaire (especially the Arabic version). In addition, as suggested by those professors, the researcher paid more attention to the length of the questionnaire, since the length of a questionnaire should not be too lengthy or too short. It is realised that too many items will be time-consuming for respondents to complete, and this could cause respondents to give answers based on convenience. In contrast, too few items would lead to loss of important information.

It was expected by the researcher that organizational commitment and the related characteristics that used in this study would be stable over time. However, conducting test re-test reliability can help the researcher notice errors and see the stability of the instruments before distributing the questionnaire. An appropriate method of testing of reliability of instruments is to check for temporal stability by correlating the scores from a set of subjects who take the test on two occasions. Some researchers suggest that test-retest reliability should be computed after a 3-months gap because the first measure may sensitize the respondents and therefore influence the results of the second measurement (Kline, 1993). Others suggest that test-retest reliability should be computed after one month because if time between measurement is too long, there may be a change or maturation in the subject. Kline (1993) states that the test re-test correlation coefficient should be as high as possible and certainly above 0.70.

In this study, testing the temporal stability of the questionnaire started with selection of 20 employees of the department of business at the College of Business & Economics from University of Qatar. The selection was based on their ability to read and speak Arabic and English fluently. All of the selected employees were divided into two groups of ten. The first group received the Arabic version of the questionnaire, while the second group received the English version simultaneously. The researcher collected the completed questionnaire after the first administration. After one month, the first group received the English version of the questionnaire, while the second group received the Arabic version simultaneously. Responses were collected from the second questionnaire administration.

4.7.2.1 Pilot Study Findings and Results

Based on a total of 20 completed surveys, the following demographic information was produced: mean age was found to be 39 years old; mean employment tenure was 11 years; gender was distributed with 65% men (n =13), 35% women (n =7). Results of Pearson's correlation coefficients of the 20 respondents are reported in Table 4.1. The results confirmed the stability of the instrument and revealed that there were no significant changes over time (four weeks). Additionally, as shown in Table 4.1, the test re-test results of almost all variables were strong and above .70 (except overall job satisfaction, with an acceptable correlation equal to 0.68).

Table 4.1: Test Re-Test Coefficient of 20 Employees.

#	Measures	Number of Items	Correlations
1	Affective commitment	6	0.87**
2	Continuance commitment	7	0.83**
3	Normative commitment	6	0.89**
4	Equity	4	0.90**
5	Personal growth and development	2	0.87**
6	Job security	1	0.84**
7	Skill variety	3	0.79**
8	Degree of autonomy	5	0.80**
9	Feedback on performance	4	0.73**
10	Task identity	3	0.85**
11	Intrinsic job satisfaction	4	0.83**
12	Working conditions extrinsic satisfaction	5	0.79**
13	Individual recognition and Mang. behaviour	6	0.74**
14	Overall job satisfaction	1	0.68**
15	Acceptance of organizational changes	2	0.87**
16	Turnover intentions	2	0.88**

** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The results of the above steps suggested that there was no need for revision, although, some of the respondents involved with the pre-test indicated some degree of difficulty in interpreting specific questions (in Arabic) as presented. In addition, the pre-test

established twenty-five minutes as the average time needed to complete the questionnaire. Following the pre-test, small changes and revisions were made in the Arabic questionnaire and then the questionnaire was reproduced for distribution.

4.7.3   Distribution & Collection of the Questionnaire

The sample for this study was taken from several organizations from private, public, and government sector from the State of Qatar. Government sector organizations sampled included three ministries and two civil administrations, while public and private sector organizations included some service companies (education and utility companies) and some profit companies (banks and insurance companies).

In some of the selected companies, the researcher identified one to two contact persons (most of these contact persons were personal and family friends, and in some cases, relatives of the researcher). These personal contacts were individually briefed about the objectives of the research and the purpose of data collection, and asked to take the responsibility of identifying suitable respondents, distributing questionnaires, and then collecting them within one week. In other selected organizations, the researcher asked some of the human resources directors of most of the participating companies or ministries to help him in distributing questionnaires, targeting Qatari and non-Qatari employees in their companies.

According to the sampling plan, the questions were distributed to as many as 780 respondents, according to the quota determined for each of the categories (see Table 4.2 for the names of participating ministries and companies from Qatar's three sectors and the total questionnaires distributed and received). The whole distribution process took approximately six weeks (from the 20th of September to the beginning of November 2004).

After receiving all questionnaires, the researcher destroyed all uncompleted questionnaires. Out of the total 780 questionnaires distributed, 544 completed questionnaires were used, which represents a cumulative response rate of 69.74%.

Table 4.2: The Names of Participating Ministries & Companies from Qatar's Three Sectors and the Total Questionnaires Distributed & Received.

#	Sector	Name of the Ministry/Company	Total Distributed	Total Received
1	Government	Ministry of Municipal Affairs and Agriculture	70	54
2	Government	Ministry of Education	70	60
3	Government	Ministry of Finance	50	33
4	Government	National Council for Culture Arts & Heritage	40	17
5	Government	State Audit Bureau	30	16
6	Public	Qatar Electricity and Water Corporation	50	29
7	Public	Hamad Medical Corporation	80	73
8	Public	General Postal Corporation	50	27
9	Public	Qatar University	80	54
10	Private	Arab Bank	40	33
11	Private	Qatar Navigation Company*	30	18
12	Private	Qatar Insurance Company*	40	35
13	Private	Qatar National Bank*	80	43
14	Private	Electricity Company*	70	52

* Private company scheduled in the Doha Stock Market Index.

4.8   Statistical Analysis of the Data

The analysis of data was conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows. Hypothesis data were analysed using descriptive statistics (mean, t-tests, frequency distributions), correlation (Pearson correlation coefficient) as well as one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) to provide descriptive analysis of all responses of each variable in the questionnaire. A significance level of .05 was used to test all hypotheses (Kerlinger, 1973).

To determine to what degree what the strength of association existed in the study when examining bi-variate data, guidelines developed by Creswell (2002) were used in order to describe the size and the strength of association between two variables.

Parametric statistical tests have been described as powerful tests compared with non-parametric statistical tests (Bryman and Cramer, 1997 and Wonnacott and Wonnacott, 1990). The prerequisite for these tests is that the population from which the parameters are obtained is normally distributed and that data variables are either interval or ratio in nature. In this research, however, organizational commitment, organizational characteristics, job satisfaction, and consequences of OC variables were all ordinal, which means they are ranked values. Since semantic scaling assigned numbers of values to each category, the researcher treated the data of ordinal as an interval level of measurement, because it provides the advantage to apply statistics that use interval scales. Nunnally (1978) accepted this kind of treatment and stated that treating ordinal scales as interval scales makes very little, if any, difference to the accuracy of the results. Thus, parametric tests were used for all variables that proved to be normally or approximately normally distributed. Among the parametric tests used, the researcher employed the following:

4.8.1   Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

Kinnear and Gray (2000; p.253) stated that a correlation coefficient is a statistic devised for the purpose of measuring the strength, or degree, of a supposed linear association between two variables, each of which has been measured on a scale with units. Whether high scores on one variable tend to be found with high scores on another variable, low scores with low scores and so on is assessed. The most familiar correlation coefficient is the Pearson Correlation (r) (often termed Pearson's r). The Pearson correlation measures the degree and the direction of the linear relationship between two variables.

Pearson's r allows the strength and direction of linear relationships between variables to be gauged. The value for Pearson's r varies between –1 and +1. A relationship of –1 or +1 would indicate a perfect relationship, negative or opposite respectively, whereas a value of zero indicates no relationship. The closer the value of r is to 1 (+ or -), the stronger the relationship between the two variables. This measure is suitable only for data in the form of measurements on quantitative variables (interval measure).

<u>4.8.2 One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)</u>

One-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) is a statistical technique that is used to compare the means of three or more populations. ANOVA provides researchers with much greater flexibility in designing experiments and interpreting results. The test is often termed an F-test, in which an estimate of the between-groups variance (or mean square) is compared with an estimate of the within-groups variance (or mean square) by dividing the former by the latter (Bryman and Cramer, 1997; p.146). The total amount of variance in the dependent variable (i.e., overall organizational commitment or overall job satisfaction) is often due to the independent variable (i.e., age of employee) and that which is due to other factors. The variance that is due to the independent variable is referred to as explained variance, whereas the variance that is caused by other factors is described as error or residual variance. If the explained variance (between-groups) is considerably larger than the error or (residual) variance (within-groups), then the F-ratio will be higher, which implies that the difference between the means is unlikely to be due to chance.

The F-ratio only tells us whether there is a significant difference between one and more of the groups. It does not indicate where this difference lies. Many post hoc tests have been developed that attempt to indicate where the difference lies. Because these tests are carried out after the data have been initially analysed, they are referred to as *post hoc* or *a posteriori* tests (Bryman and Cramer, 1997). In SPSS they are available on the Post Hoc option which opens the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). In this study, one of the commonly used procedures, the Duncan test, was used to determine exactly which variables were significantly different and which were not. Thus, ANOVA and Duncan's test were used to test some hypotheses in this study.

<u>4.8.3 The T-Test</u>

The T-test, according to Brace, Kemp, and Snelgar (2000), is a parametric test used to determine whether two means are significantly different from one another. There are three types of t-test:
1. The single sample t-test
2. The independent t-test
3. The paired t-test

The independent t-test was the type used in this study. It was used when comparing means from two independent groups of individuals. This kind of t-test requires that the data are of at least interval level of measurement, are normally distributed, and have equal variance. This test is calculated by comparing the differences between the two means with the standard error of the difference in the means of the different groups (Bryman and Cramer, 1997).

To reject a null hypothesis with a t-test, it is important to calculate the degree of freedom (df) which is the number of subjects or respondents (n-1). If the calculated value of t is larger than or equal to a critical value (in the t-distribution table) at the significant level of less than 0.05 (1) (p-value is less than or equal to 0.05), the null hypothesis can be rejected at the particular significance level and degree of freedom.

According to Kinnear and Gray, (2000; p.138) with independent samples, the t statistic is calculated by dividing the difference between the sample means by an estimate of the standard deviation of the distribution of differences, which is known as the standard error of the difference. The precise value of t needed for significance depends upon the degrees of freedom of the distribution, which in turns depends upon the sizes of the samples in the experiment; but a value of t greater than or equal to 2 is usually significant, unless the samples are very small.

According to Gravetter and Wallnau (1999), both ANOVA and t-test perform exactly the same function, but t-tests are limited to situations where there are only two treatments to compare, whereas, ANOVA is used to evaluate mean differences between two or more populations. They added that the validity of ANOVA and t-tests depends on three assumptions:

1. The observation within each sample must be independent
2. The population from which the samples are selected must be normally distributed
3. The population from which the samples are selected must have equal variances (homogeneity of variance).

4.9   Validity and Reliability of the Study

The scales used in this study are intended to measure different dimensions of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, organizational characteristics, job characteristics, turnover intentions, and acceptance of organizational changes. Almost all of the items used were borrowed partly or wholly from other established research instruments and most of the questions used in the questionnaire had strong validity and reliability. These items were used in the questionnaire in order to give this study a basis for comparison with other previous research.

The scales used in this study measure the concepts from different dimensions and therefore these measurements are sometimes indirect. In these circumstances it is not certain that they are measuring the variable for which they were designed. Hence, in Qatar, supporting evidence is needed to prove that a scale is measuring what it appears to measure in the Western cultures.

Validity of the Study

"Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to be measuring" (Polit and Hunger 1999, p.418). Researchers are always concerned with validity when measuring variables. Therefore, a good understanding of the instrument's "validity", will help the researcher to evaluate the design of the study and to have confidence in the findings. To satisfy the requirement of validity each set of questions or statements was intended to measure a particular variable.

The methodological literature abounds with terms relating to different facets of the validity question. According to Litwin (1995) there are several types of validity, which are typically measured when assessing the performance of a survey instrument: face, content, criterion and construct.

Regarding OCS validity: Culpepper (2000) and Meyer and Allen (1996) reported good evidence of the construct validity of the organizational commitment scales by providing support for hypothesised relationships with selected variables from different studies in different cultures. Criterion validity was also demonstrated by Meyer and Allen (1996) by demonstrating that organizational commitment scales are capable of discriminating between groups which are presumed to differ in their

136

commitment levels. More details of OCS validity and factor analysis are contained in section 2.6.3.1.

Regarding the validity of other variables: criterion and construct validity are difficult to measure because the former needs to be judged against some other method, known as a "gold standard", for assessing the same concept, and the latter is determined only after years of experience with the instrument. Polit & Hunger (1999, p. 419) state "one requirement of the criterion-related approach to validation is the availability of a reasonably reliable and valid criterion with which the measures on the target instrument can be compared. This is, unfortunately seldom easy". As there is no known "gold standard" for the scales used in this study, which would be used to determine the criterion validity, the researcher had to settle for testing the face and content validity of all scales used in this study.

Face validity refers to whether the instrument *looks* as though it is measuring the appropriate construct. The researcher took the following step to make sure that the questionnaires have high face validity:

1. The questionnaires were reviewed thoroughly by the researcher and his supervisor to check the clarity of the questions and their appropriateness to employees in Qatar and to ensure that the meaning reflects the content of the scales.

2. The questionnaires were also shown to three professors of the department of business at the College of Business and Economics from University of Qatar.

3. The researcher arranged meetings with some participants in the pilot study. The researcher discussed the questionnaires with them question by question and statement by statement, to ensure that the questions were understandable, appropriate, and relevant to the measured scales.

Content validity is concerned with the sampling adequacy of items for the construct that is being measured. The content validity of an instrument is necessarily based on judgement. There are no completely objective methods of ensuring the adequate content coverage of an instrument. However, it is becoming increasingly common to use a panel of experts in the content area to evaluate and document the content validity of instruments. The content validity of the questionnaires of OC, job and

organizational characteristics, job satisfaction, and other variable in this study was reviewed by three professors of the department of business at the College of Business and Economics from University of Qatar before the pilot study. Two key issues were taken into account: whether individual items are relevant and appropriate in terms of the constructs and whether the items adequately measure all dimensions of the construct.

All respondents to face and content validity agreed that most questions used in both questionnaires (English and Arabic) were clear, suitable, and understandable. In addition, only small changes and modifications were made to some statements of the original version of the Arabic questionnaire.

Reliability of the Study

Reliability is concerned with three elements which are accuracy, consistency or stability of the instrument, and equivalence. This means that the measures would offer the same results over time even if they were used by several researchers.

Litwin (1995; p. 6) defines reliability as "a statistical measure of how reproducible the survey instrument's data are". In other words, the researcher should expect the same results if he applied the same scale on different occasions or with a different set from the same population. When considering measurement reliability, a distinction is made between external and internal reliability. External reliability refers to the degree of consistency of a measure over time, or the possibility of an independent researcher replicating the same study in a similar setting. Internal reliability measures the consistency of the scale. It is applied to scales containing several items that are thought to measure different aspects of the same concept (Litwin, 1995). High internal reliability indicates that different items measure a single concept. This is important for the present study, as there are several scales and subscales to measure different concepts, each containing three or more statements. The aim here is to make sure that a group of items in a particular scale, which purports to measure one variable, should focus on that variable only.

Several procedures are commonly used to determine measurement reliability. Among the most common methods is internal consistency. Internal consistency determines

whether each scale is measuring a single concept and hence the items contained in the scale are internally consistent. Cronbach's coefficient, alpha, is the most frequently used measure of this type of reliability. It measures the internal consistency and homogeneity of a group of items combined to form a single item (Litwin, 1995). Alpha varies between zero and one and the nearer the result is to one – preferably at or over 0.80 – the more reliable is the scale (Bryman and Cramer, 1997; p. 63). Other researchers argue that a coefficient above 0.60 is acceptable for exploratory research, although values over 0.70 are preferred (Bagozzi, 1994).

In this study, the internal consistency of the measures has been estimated using coefficient alpha and it was found in the SPSS reliability analysis. This estimate of test reliability is based on the consistency of responses to all of the items in the test and is obtained from the average inter-correlation among the items. Reliabilities associated with each scale used in this study are shown in Table 4.3. The Coefficient Alpha has been computed in this study (for all of variables that have more than one question to measure it) to provide this indication of inter-item consistency. The coefficient alphas for almost all items were strong except for two items, task identity and satisfaction with working conditions, with alphas equal to 0.66 and 0.68 respectively. Bagozzi (1994) and Sekaran (1992, p.287) accept this level of reliability and argued, "Reliabilities less than 0.60 are generally considered to be poor". Because these two items close to the acceptable level of alpha (0.70), we can consider them also in the acceptable range.

Table 4.3: Mean, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities of Measures Obtained from Employees.

#	Measures	Mean	SD	Number of Items	Points	Coefficient Alpha
1	Affective commitment	5.091	1.39	6	(6-42)	0.859
2	Continuance commitment	4.60	1.24	6	(6-42)	0.746
3	Normative commitment	4.81	1.34	6	(6-42)	0.820
4	Equity on paying salary & benefits	10.83	4.49	4	(4-20)	0.885
5	Personal growth and development	6.64	2.34	2	(2-10)	0.864
6	Job security	3.22	1.24	1	(1-5)	NA
7	Skill variety	10.53	2.48	3	(3-15)	0.704
8	Degree of autonomy	17.55	4.13	5	(5-25)	0.770
9	Feedback on performance	14.31	3.44	4	(4-20)	0.728
10	Task identity	11.39	2.45	3	(3-15)	0.663*
11	Intrinsic job satisfaction	13.84	3.64	4	(4-20)	0.800
12	Working conditions extrinsic Sat.	17.87	3.74	5	(5-25)	0.679*
13	Individual recognition and M. B.	18.93	5.45	6	(6-30)	0.852
14	Acceptance of organizational changes	7.15	2.02	2	(2-10)	0.755
15	Turnover intentions	5.09	2.56	2	(2-10)	0.826

* Coefficient Alpha below 0.70

Regarding OCS reliability, the coefficient alphas for the revised versions of the ACS, CCS, and NCS in this study are .86, .74, and .82, respectively. Our result of OC scales' reliability is consistent with Cetin (2006) who used the same instrument in Turkey. The reliability coefficients of the scales were 0.82, 0.74, and 0.83 respectively. Further details of the reliability of the organizational commitment scale are given in section 2.6.3.2.

Another method applied to measure the reliability of the instrument was the test-retest technique, which established the stability of the measure. As mentioned before, the pilot study of 20 questionnaires was designed solely to assess the stability of the study instruments and to identify any data collection problems before conducting the fieldwork. Correlation coefficient measures were used to test the relationship between the main dependent variable (organizational commitment) and the association with the

independent variables. Full details of the results of the test-retest technique are given in Table 4.1.

4.10   Chapter Summary

The main purpose of this chapter has been to discuss and present the main research method. The research strategy, design, and the rationale for its selection were described. This was followed by a description of the data collection methods used in this study.

Following review of the literature in the field of organizational commitment, the researcher developed a questionnaire based on items borrowed from established instruments to gather data from employees working in Qatar's three sectors. The questionnaire was administered in both Arabic and English languages. It was translated from English into Arabic, and was validated by back-translation to ensure that both versions were equivalent. The language of the questionnaire was kept as simple as possible. Thus, every effort was made to ensure that the items in the questionnaire did not lose their identity.

The model of commitment in Qatar was tested in two stages. The antecedents of the four types of commitment can be defined as personal, organizational, job characteristics, and job satisfaction variables. The second stage involved examining the relationship between each measure of commitment on the two effectiveness related outcomes: acceptance of organizational change and turnover intentions.

In the present research, after weighing the advantages and limitation of various scales and measurement techniques, the Likert scale was chosen. The guiding factor was the simplicity and ease in applying the scale to the type of questions intended for respondents. Additionally, prior to the actual study being carried out, a pilot study was carried out in two ways. Firstly, the researcher asked three professors in the Department of Business & Economic from University of Qatar to review the instrument. Secondly, the questionnaire was pilot tested among twenty employees in University of Qatar. The sample for the pilot study was obtained in the same manner as for the main study. Respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire according to instructions and then carefully review all the items from a critical

perspective to seek out problems such as ambiguity or redundancy. The pre-test results of the instrument revealed an acceptable level of reliability, with coefficients ranging from .68 to .90. Following minor revisions (in the Arabic version of the questionnaire), data were collected based on the refined questionnaire.

In the fieldwork, out of the total 780 questionnaires distributed, 544 completed questionnaires were used, which represents a cumulative response rate of 69.74%. Various statistical procedures and techniques, such as descriptive statistics, one-way analysis of variance, t-test, and Pearson correlation were used.

In order to investigate the basic hypotheses developed previously in chapter three, the relationships between all variables and OC will be tested in the next chapters. Eventually, the hypothetical model will be evaluated.

Chapter Five

Descriptive Statistics & Qualitative Analysis

5.1 Introduction

Descriptive statistical and qualitative analysis of the responses reported by the survey respondents is presented in this chapter. The first section of this chapter is devoted to a description of the coding, data, and return rate of the questionnaire. The second section contains descriptive statistics on organizational commitment as well as antecedents of organizational commitment. The third section presents the descriptive statistics of both intent to leave (turnover intention) and acceptance of organizational change as consequences of organizational commitment. For most of the above variables, frequency distributions, mean scores, standard deviations, and Pearson's correlation coefficients are utilized to examine the relationship between individual items, sub-scales, and main variables. Finally, section 5.6 of this chapter presents content analysis of the open-ended question used in the survey.

5.2 Response Rate of Questionnaires

Questionnaires were distributed to 780 employees working in three sectors in Qatar (from government, public, and private corporations that employed a minimum of 300 employees). A total of 260 questionnaires were distributed in each sector. Completed questionnaires were received from 544 employees from the three sectors with a response rate of 69.7% as indicated in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Response Rate from Each Selected Sector.

Sector	Total Distributed	Total Received	Response Rate
Government sector	260	180	69.2%
Public sector	260	183	70.4%
Private sector	260	181	69.6%
Total	780	544	69.7%

5.3 Coding and Description of Data

Coding of Data

O'Sullivan and Rassel (1989) defined coding as the process of translating the information from the symbols used to record it on paper to a symbol that can be stored and manipulated further. Thus, after the data were collected from respondents, they

144

were converted into codes so they could be entered into the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS V11.5).

Description of Data

The data of this study are both nominal and ordinal. Both nominal and ordinal scales are considered to be categorical variables, where all variables have value labels. The data are also considered as discrete variables since they have a limited number of values. In this study, some of the personal characteristics such as sex, nationality, sector, and marital status were nominal variables and numbers were assigned to identify and label the categories. Each item was coded: for example, the value of 1 was assigned for government sector employees, a value of 2 was assigned for public sector employees, and a value of 3 was assigned for private sector employees, to identify the sector of each respondent. However, the numbers have no importance beyond allowing the researcher to classify the number of cases in each category. As explained before, organizational commitment, organizational characteristics, job satisfaction, and consequences of OC variables were all ordinal, which means they are ranked values. Since semantic scaling assigned numbers of values to each category, the researcher treated the data of ordinal as an interval level of measurement, because it provides the advantage to apply statistics that use interval scales. Nunnally (1978) stated that treating ordinal scales as interval scales makes very little, if any, difference to the accuracy of the results.

5.4   Descriptive Statistics of Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

This research seeks to remedy some of the shortcomings of the research regarding OC in Qatar, focusing on personal characteristics as well as job characteristics, organizational characteristics, and job satisfaction to gain a more comprehensive view of the concept of OC among the three different sectors in Qatar.

This section is divided into five parts. The first part contains a description of the demographic details of the respondents. The second, third, and fourth parts present descriptive statistics associated with organizational commitment, organizational characteristics, and job characteristics. The last part of this section presents the mean scores, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients of each component of job satisfaction.

Part I of the questionnaire asked employees to provide personal information about themselves on a number of demographic characteristics. The following sub-sections explore these variables in detail.

5.4.1.1 Nationality of Employee

Table 5.2 represents the distribution of employees by nationality. The table shows that 265 (48.7%) of the respondents were Qatari and 279 (51.3%) were non-Qatari. The majority of Qatari employees were concentrated in the government sector and the majority of non-Qataris were concentrated in the private sector.

Table 5.2: Distribution of Respondents According to Their Nationality.

Nationality	Government sector	Public sector	Private sector	Number of employees	Percent
Qatari	142	69	54	265	48.7%
Non-Qatari	38	114	127	279	51.3%
Total	180	183	181	544	100%

Regarding the specification of non-Qatar nationality, twenty-eight nationalities participated in this study. Table 5.3 shows the distribution of the first ten nationalities of non-Qatari employees according to the number of employees who participated in this research.

Table 5.3: Distribution of the First Ten Nationalities of Non-Qatari Respondents.

	Country	Number of employees	Percent		Country	Number of employees	Percent
1	Jordan	40	7.4%	6	USA	14	2.6%
2	India	33	6.1%	7	Sudan	13	2.4%
3	Egypt	32	5.9%	8	Pakistan	10	1.8%
4	Palestine	30	5.5%	9	UK	8	1.5%
5	Philippines	15	2.8%	10	Iraq	7	1.3%

As mentioned before, nationality is likely to play a major role in predicting organizational commitment because of certain governmental conditions in Qatar pertaining to domestic and non-domestic employees. Table 5.4, therefore, represents the distribution of the Qatari and non-Qatari employees with other personal variables.

Regarding Qatari employees, Table 5.4 shows that 55.5% of the Qatari respondents participated in this study were female and 44.5% were male. The majority of the Qatari respondents (70.2%) had a college degree, whereas 23.8% of the Qatari respondents were reported to have a high school diploma, and only 6% had a postgraduate degree. Furthermore, the majority (66.8%) of the Qatari employees were married, 29.4% were single, and only 3.8% represented the other groups (divorced, widowed, and separated). 76.6% of the Qatari employees had jobs with no contracts (or contract without time limit). In addition, forty-six percent of the Qatari employees in this research had no dependents and 24.2% had from one to three dependants. The largest age group was the first age group (between 18 to 27 years) which accounted for 41.9% of the total Qatari employees participated in this research. Finally, according to the Table 5.4, the length of service for 39.2% of the Qatari respondents was less than six years, for 23.8% of Qatari respondents it was from 6 to 12 years, for 12.1% it was from 12 to 18 years, and only 6.4% of the total Qatari employees had more than 18 years of experience in the same company.

Table 5.4: Distribution of Respondents by Nationality with Other Personal Variables.

Educational level	Qatari	Percent	Non-Qatari	Percent	Total
High school diploma	63	23.8	39	14.0	102
College degree	186	70.2	167	59.9	353
Postgraduate degree	16	6.0	73	26.2	89
Total	265	100%	279	100%	544
Gender	Qatari	Percent	Non-Qatari	Percent	Total
Male	118	44.5	231	82.8	349
Female	147	55.5	48	17.2	195
Total	265	100%	279	100%	544
Marital status	Qatari	Percent	Non-Qatari	Percent	Total
Married	177	66.8	223	79.9	400

Single	78	29.4	51	18.3	129
Others	10	3.8	5	1.8	15
Total	265	100%	279	100%	544
Number of dependants	Qatari	Percent	Non-Qatari	Percent	Total
None	122	46.0	80	28.7	202
Between 1-3	64	24.2	88	31.5	152
Between 3-6	57	21.5	92	33.0	149
Between 6-9	18	6.8	15	5.4	33
More than 9	4	1.5	4	1.4	8
Total	265	100%	279	100%	544
Age category	Qatari	Percent	Non-Qatari	Percent	Total
18-27 years	111	41.9	63	22.6	174
28-37 years	107	40.4	71	25.4	178
38-47 years	42	15.8	83	29.7	125
More than 48	5	1.9	62	22.2	67
Total	265	100%	279	100%	544
Length of service category	Qatari	Percent	Non-Qatari	Percent	Total
Not Response	49	18.5	44	15.8	93
From 1-6 years	104	39.2	118	42.3	222
From 6-12 years	63	23.8	51	18.3	114
From 12-18 years	32	12.1	37	13.3	69
From 18-24 years	16	6.0	18	6.5	34
24 years & more	1	0.4	11	3.9	12
Total	265	100%	279	100%	544
Type of employment	Qatari	Percent	Non-Qatari	Percent	Total
Fixed term contract	62	23.4	229	82.1	291
No-contract (or contract without time limit)	203	76.6	50	17.9	253
Total	265	100%	279	100%	544

Type of job held	Qatari	Percent	Non-Qatari	Percent	Total
Managerial work	164	61.9	104	37.3	268
Non-managerial	101	38.1	175	62.7	276
Total	265	100%	279	100%	544
Job level	Qatari	Percent	Non-Qatari	Percent	Total
Lower management	212	80	188	67.4	400
Middle management	42	15.8	74	26.5	116
Top management	11	4.2	17	6.1	28
Total	265	100%	279	100%	544

Regarding non-Qatari employees, Table 5.4 shows that 82.8% of the non-Qatari respondents in this research were male and only 17.2% were female. 59.9% of the non-Qatari respondents had a college degree, whereas 26.2% were reported to have a postgraduate degree, and 14% had a high school diploma. Furthermore, the majority (79.9%) of the non-Qatari employees were married, 18.3% were single, and only 1.8% represented the other groups (divorced, widowed, and separated). 82.1% of the non-Qatari employees had jobs with fixed contracts and 62.7% had non-managerial jobs (technical jobs). In addition, 33% of the non-Qatari employees in this research had from three to six dependents. The largest age group was the age group between 38 to 47 years which accounts for 29.7% of the total non-Qatari employees participated in this research. Additionally, the length of service for 42.3% of the non-Qatari respondents was less than six years, for 18.3% of the respondents it was from 6 to 12 years, for 13.3% it was from 12 to 18 years, and 10.4% of the total non-Qatari employees had more than 18 years of experience in the same company.

5.4.1.2 Educational Levels of Employee

This variable was measured by asking participants to tick one of three categories: high school diploma, college degree, or postgraduate degree.

Table 5.5: Frequencies of Educational Levels of Respondents.

Educational level	Government sector	Public sector	Private sector	Number of employees	Percent
High school diploma	32	29	41	102	18.8%
College degree	132	108	113	353	64.9%
Postgraduate degree	16	46	27	89	16.3%
Total	180	183	181	544	100%

As can be seen from Table 5.5, the majority of the respondents (64.9%) had a college degree, whereas 18.8% of respondents were reported to have a high school diploma, and 16.3% had a postgraduate diploma.

Variations in educational level by sector can be noticed from Table 5.5 where the number of respondents with a postgraduate degree is lower in the government sector (17.9%) as compared to the public sector (51.7%) and private sector (30.3%). In contrast, it appears that college degrees were more commonly held in the government sector (37.4%) as compared to the public sector (30.6%) and private sector (32.0%).

5.4.1.3 Gender of Employee

Table 5.6 shows that 64.2% of the respondents were male and 35.8% were female. It is also evident from the table that 45% of female respondents in this study were working in the government sector, while male respondents were working predominantly in the public and private sectors.

Table 5.6: Frequencies of Gender of Respondents.

Gender	Government sector	Public sector	Private sector	Number of employees	Percent
Male	91	136	122	349	64.2%
Female	89	47	59	195	35.8%
Total	180	183	181	544	100%

<u>5.4.1.4 Marital Status of Employee</u>

From Table 5.7, it can be seen that the majority (73.5%) of employees were married, 23.7% were single, and only 2.8% represented the other groups (divorced, widowed, and separated). For the purpose of data analysis (hypothesis testing), the group called "other" will be added to the unmarried group.

Table 5.7: Frequencies of Marital Status of Respondents.

Marital status	Government sector	Public sector	Private sector	Number of employees	Percent
Married	136	140	124	400	73.5%
Single	44	35	50	129	23.7%
Others	0	8	7	15	2.8%
Total	180	183	181	544	100%

As can be seen from Table 5.7, 35% of the public sector employees were married, as were 34% of government sector employees, and 34% of the private sector employees. It appears also that there were more single employees in the private sector compared with the government and public sectors.

<u>5.4.1.5 Kinship Responsibilities (Number of Dependants)</u>

Table 5.8 reveals that 37.1% of employees in this sample had no dependants, 27.9% had from one to three dependants, 27.4% respondents had between 3 to 6 dependants, and 7.6% of respondents had more than 6 dependants.

Table 5.8: Distributions of Respondents According to Their Number of Dependants.

Number of dependants	Government sector	Public sector	Private sector	Number of employees	Percent
None	67	62	73	202	37.1%
Between 1-3	44	59	49	152	27.9%
Between 3-6	48	50	51	149	27.4%
Between 6-9	17	9	7	33	6.1%
More than 9	4	3	1	8	1.5%
Total	180	183	181	544	100%

Employees' average age in this study was 34.8 years, the oldest being 63 years and the youngest being 19 years.

Table 5.9 reveals that 32% of the total employees were less than 27 years old, 32.7% between 28 and 37 years, 23% between 38 and 47 years, and 12.3% were 48 years old or over. Thus, the largest age group is the second age group in the table (between 28 to 37 years) which accounts for 32.7% of the total employees and the smallest age group is the smallest age group with 67 respondents which accounts for 12.3% of the total sample.

Table 5.9: Frequencies of Age of Respondents.

Age category	Government sector	Public sector	Private sector	Number of employees	Percent
18-27 years	63	48	63	174	32.0%
28-37 years	63	60	55	178	32.7%
38-47 years	34	52	39	125	23.0%
More than 48	20	23	24	67	12.3%
Total	180	183	181	544	100%

5.4.1.7 Length of Service (Tenure)

Employees' average length of service in this study was 7.4 years. According to the frequencies in Table 5.10, the length of service for 49.2% of respondents was less than six years, for 25.3% of respondents it was from 6 to 12 years, for 15.3% of respondents it was from 12 to 18 years, and 10.2% of the total sample had more than 18 years of experience in the same company.

Table 5.10: Frequencies of Length of Service of Respondents.

Length of service category	Government sector	Public sector	Private sector	Frequency	Percent
From 1-6 years	58	78	86	222	49.2%
From 6-12 years	43	37	34	114	25.3%
From 12-18 years	27	20	22	69	15.3%
From 18-24 years	17	12	5	34	7.5%
24 years & more	6	2	4	12	2.7%
Total	151	149	151	451	100%

5.4.1.8 Type of Employment

Participants indicated their type of employment by checking one of the two following categories: contract with limited time or contract without limited time (or no contract). Table 5.11 represents the distribution of respondents according to their type of employment.

Table 5.11: Distribution of Respondents According to Their Type of Employment.

Employment type	Government sector	Public sector	Private sector	Number of employees	Percent
Fixed term contract	42	125	124	291	53.5%
No-contract (or contract without time limit)	138	58	57	253	46.5%
Total	180	183	181	544	100%

The table shows that 46.5% of the overall sample had an open contract with their organizations and 291 respondents (53.5%) had fixed-term contracts.

5.4.2 Organizational Commitment Profile

Part II of the questionnaire contained a measure of organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was measured in this study by the 18-item revised organizational commitment scale developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993), which contains items to measure three dimensions: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

Descriptive analyses of components of organizational commitment were performed by computing mean and standard deviation scores for the three components of OC and items comprising these components.

The means and standard deviation scores are based on a 7-point Likert scale, in which 1 represents strongly disagree with the item concerned and 7, strongly agree. Components (subscales of organizational commitment) mean and standard deviation scores were calculated by dividing the sum of the item scores by the number of items comprising that component.

Table 5.12: Mean Total Scores for the Three Dimensions of Organizational Commitment.

Dimensions of Organizational Commitment	N	Unit	Mean	S.D
Affective commitment	544	1-7	5.09	1.39
Continuance commitment	544	1-7	4.59	1.24
Normative commitment	544	1-7	4.81	1.34

From the above table, mean scores for all three commitments ranged from 4.81 to 5.09 falling into the survey scale category choice, where a 5 value represented "slightly agree" to a 6 value represented "agree". Prior research from a study by Allen and Meyer (1990) surveyed 337 employees from three organizations to examine affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The results from their study found the following mean and standard deviations: affective commitment (M =4.36; SD = 1.38), continuance commitment (M =4.49; SD =1.35), and normative commitment (M = 3.80; SD = 1.08). Comparing the study's organizational commitment mean values with those from Allen and Meyer's (1990) study, there are only small differences in mean value scores for the affective and continuance commitment scale. Regarding normative commitment, we cannot compare this variable with Allen and Meyer's (1990) result because we are using the revised normative scale.

Regarding affective commitment, as expected from the literature, with a mean score of 5.09 and standard deviation of 1.39, this component scored highest of all

dimensions of OC. Appendix E (1) shows the item mean and standard deviation scores obtained in this component. From Appendix E (1), responses to item number (2-4) "I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization (R)" had the highest mean score of any in the affective component with mean of 5.29. However, responses to item number (2-2) "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own" yielded the lowest mean score (M = 4.85) of any in the affective component. It is important to mention here that this component's standard deviation value (S.D = 1.39) was the highest of any obtained, indicating a wide variation in employees' affective commitment.

In contrast, with a mean score M = 4.59 and standard deviation S.D = 1.24, continuance commitment was the weakest of the three dimensions of OC. This result indicates that employees had a moderate degree of continuance commitment. Appendix E (2) shows the item mean and standard deviation scores obtained in this component. It can be seen that the mean score for item number (2-9) "Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire" was the highest of any in the continuance component (M = 5.27). In contrast, item number (2-10) "I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization" scored the lowest mean of all components of OC (M = 4.27). In addition, it is important to mention that this component's standard deviation value (S.D = 1.24) was the lowest of any obtained, indicating a small variation in employees' continuance commitment.

Finally, normative commitment, with a mean score M = 4.81 and standard deviation S.D = 1.34, came second among the three dimensions of OC. Appendix E (3) shows the item mean and standard deviation scores obtained in this component. The mean score for item number (2-16) "The organization deserves my loyalty" scored the highest mean of any in the normative component (M = 5.28). In contrast, item number (2-15) "I would feel guilty if I left my organization now" scored the lowest mean in this component (M = 4.47).

From the above, this study can conclude that most employees expressed high levels of affective and normative commitment and a moderate degree of continuance commitment.

5.4.3 Organizational Characteristics

Organizational characteristics are based on factors directly related to the organization and work context. The research questionnaire investigated three of the organizational characteristics, namely: (1) equity on paying salary & fringe benefits; (2) perceived personal growth & development; and (3) job security.

Means and standard deviation scores for these characteristics are presented in Table 5.13. The means and standard deviation scores are based on a Likert-type response scale of 1 to 5, in which 1 represents very dissatisfied with the item concerned and 5, very satisfied.

Table 5.13: Mean Values & Standard Deviations of Organizational Characteristics Variables.

Organizational Characteristics	N	Unit	Mean	S.D
Equity on paying salary & fringe benefits	544	1-5	2.71	1.12
Perceived personal growth & development	544	1-5	3.32	1.17
Job security	544	1-5	3.22	1.25

Equity on paying salary & fringe benefits: Equity variable (M =2.71, S.D =1.12, N = 544) was measured through the degree of justice the employee perceived in connection with the distribution of certain sanctions. Four questionnaire items were used to build the equity index. These items investigate perceptions of the fairness of salary scales and the fairness of fringe benefits for employees working in the same organization and in comparison to other organizations.

Perceived Personal growth and development: This variable was measured by using two questionnaire items. Both items investigate whether organizations are perceived to provide opportunities to learn new things, improve skills, extend abilities, and achieve something personally valuable for employees. With a mean score of 3.32 and standard deviation of 1.17, this variable scored highest of all three organizational characteristics.

156

Job Security: Descriptive statistics for job security variable (M =3.22, S.D =1.25, N = 544) are presented in Tables 5.14 and 5.15 respectively.

Regarding selected sectors, Table 5.14 shows that all sectors had almost the same number of employees very satisfied with job security. Public sector employees were most strongly represented in the satisfied level, followed by the private sector and then government sector employees. Private sector employees were in the minority among those who were very dissatisfied.

Table 5.14: Distribution of Respondents According to Their Job Security Levels and Sectors.

	Government sector	Public sector	Private sector	Number of employees	Percent
Very dissatisfied	29	29	18	76	14%
Dissatisfied	19	15	21	55	10.1%
Neutral	56	54	66	176	32.4%
Satisfied	44	55	47	146	26.8%
Very satisfied	32	30	29	91	16.7%
Total	180	183	181	544	100%

Regarding nationality, as shown in Table 5.15, there was little difference between Qatari and non-Qatari employees in the number who were dissatisfied and very satisfied with job security. Moreover, slightly fewer Qatari employees were very dissatisfied with job security than non-Qatari employees. In contrast, more non-Qatari than Qatari employees were satisfied.

Table 5.15: Distribution of Respondents According to Their Job Security Levels and Nationality.

	Qatari	Non-Qatari	Number of Employees	Percent
Very dissatisfied	36	40	76	14%
Dissatisfied	28	27	55	10.1%
Neutral	91	85	176	32.4%
Satisfied	64	82	146	26.8%
Very satisfied	46	45	91	16.7%
Total	265	279	544	100%

5.4.4   Job Characteristics

This part of the questionnaire contained a set of variables to investigate job characteristics, which have consistently been associated with organizational commitment. The present study examined four job characteristics, namely: (1) skill variety; (2) degree of autonomy; (3) task identity; and (4) feedback on performance. This study used the Job Classification Index (JCI) developed by Sims, Szilagyi and Keller (1976) to measure the four core variables of job characteristics. Means and standard deviation scores for these characteristics are presented in Table 5.16. The means and standard deviation scores are based on a Likert-type response scale of 1 to 5, in which 1 represents very dissatisfied with the item concerned and 5, very satisfied.

Table 5.16: Mean Values and Standard Deviations of Job Characteristics Variables.

Dimensions of Job Characteristics	N	Unit	Mean	S.D
Skill variety	544	1-5	3.51	.83
Degree of autonomy	544	1-5	3.51	.83
Task identity	544	1-5	3.80	.82
Feedback on performance	544	1-5	3.58	.86

Skill variety: Three questionnaire items were used to build the variety index (M = 3.51, S.D =.83, N =544). The purpose of these items was to measure perceptions of variety by asking individuals about the extent to which they had opportunity to do

many different things in their jobs, repetitiveness, and sameness of tasks performed in the job.

Degree of autonomy: This variable (M =3.51 and S.D =.83) contains five items used to investigate the degree of freedom to organize work, degree of independence in doing the job, chances of personal initiative, and responsibility for timing the work.

Task identity: Three survey items were used to build the identity index. All these items are concerned with the frequency of seeing projects through to completion, jobs and projects being completed by employees themselves, and the extent to which the employee controls his/her involvement in the whole job process from beginning to end. With a mean score of 3.80 and standard deviation of .82, this variable scored highest of all four job characteristics.

Feedback on performance: Four questionnaire items were used to build the feedback index (M =3.58, S.D =.86, N =544). These items are concerned with examining perception of the constant feedback on performance, the lack of feedback, the frequency of supervisor feedback, and the employee's feeling about how well the job is done.

5.4.5 Job Satisfaction Variables

Job satisfaction was assessed through the Overall Job Satisfaction questionnaire developed by Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979), a 15-item instrument that measures both intrinsic and extrinsic elements of job satisfaction. The instrument measures employees' current level of satisfaction in relation to four dimensions of job satisfaction: intrinsic job satisfaction, working conditions extrinsic satisfaction, individual recognition and management behaviour, and overall job satisfaction.

Descriptive analyses of components of job satisfaction were performed by computing mean and standard deviation scores of the selected dimensions of job satisfaction and items comprising these dimensions.

The means and standard deviation scores of overall and components of job satisfaction are based on a Likert response scale of 1 to 5, in which 1 represents very

dissatisfied with the item concerned and 5, very satisfied. Components of job satisfaction (subscales) mean and standard deviation scores were calculated by dividing the sum of the item scores by the number of items comprising that component.

Table 5.17: Mean Total Scores for Job Satisfaction Components & Overall Job Satisfaction (N =544).

Component	N	Unit	Mean	S.D
Intrinsic job satisfaction	544	1-5	3.46	.91
Working conditions extrinsic satisfaction	544	1-5	3.57	.75
Individual recognition and management behaviour	544	1-5	3.15	.91
Overall job satisfaction	544	1-5	3.88	.81

Regarding overall job satisfaction, Table 5.17 shows that the mean score for "overall job satisfaction" is 3.88 and the standard deviation is .81. This result (equivalent to "satisfied") suggests that employees are more satisfied in their jobs and organizations than not satisfied. Furthermore, most employees in this study expressed strong extrinsic satisfaction with working conditions, and intrinsic satisfaction of the job itself, and moderate satisfaction with individual recognition and management behaviour.

Intrinsic job satisfaction, with a mean score of 3.46 and standard deviation of .91, had the second highest score among satisfaction components. Questions regarding employees' freedom to choose their own method of working, responsibility they were given, and opportunities to use their abilities in their work were among these questions. Appendix F (1) shows the item mean and standard deviation scores obtained in this component. Responses to item number (8-6) "The amount of responsibility you are given" gave the highest mean score of any in this component, at 3.64. Responses to item number (8-14) "The amount of variety in your job" gave the lowest mean score of any in this component, with a mean score equal to 3.28.

The working conditions sub-scale contains five items. These items examine respondents' satisfaction with fellow workers, their physical working conditions,

immediate bosses, and hours of work. This component, with a mean score of 3.57 and standard deviation of .75, had the highest mean score of the three dimensions of job satisfaction. This result indicates that employees had strong satisfaction with working conditions in their jobs and companies. Appendix F (2) shows the item mean and standard deviation scores obtained in this component. From this appendix, it can be seen that item number (8-3) "Your fellow workers" scored the highest mean of any in the working conditions component (M =4.10) and item number (8-15) "Job security" scored the lowest mean of this component (M =2.95). It is important to mention that this component's standard deviation value (S.D =.75) was the lowest of any obtained, indicating that there was little variation in employees' satisfaction toward this component.

The individual recognition and management behaviour sub-scale contains six items. Questions such as chance of promotion, attention to your suggestion, relations between management & workers, and rate of pay were asked in this part of the survey. This component, with a mean score of 3.15 and standard deviation of .91, had the lowest mean score of the three components of job satisfaction. Appendix F (3) shows the item mean and standard deviation scores obtained in this component. Item number (8-4) "The recognition you get for good work" scored the highest mean of any in this component (M =3.45) and item number (8-10) "Chance of promotion" scored the lowest mean in all of the measured components of job satisfaction with M =2.73.

5.5 Descriptive Statistics of Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Two consequences of organizational commitment were considered in this study, namely: acceptance of organizational changes and turnover intentions. Means and standard deviation scores for these characteristics are presented in Table 5.18. The means and standard deviation scores are based on Likert-type a response scale of 1 to 5, in which 1 represents very dissatisfied with the item concerned and 5, very satisfied.

Table 5.18: Mean Values and Standard Deviations of Consequences of OC.

Consequences of Organizational Commitment	N	Unit	Mean	S.D
Acceptance of organizational changes	544	1-5	3.57	1.01
Turnover intentions	544	1-5	2.55	1.28

Acceptance of Organizational Changes: Two self-administered items were used to assess acceptance of organizational changes. Mean score for acceptance of organizational changes =3.57 and standard deviation =1.01.

Turnover Intentions: Intent to leave or turnover intentions (M =2.55, S.D =1.28, N = 544) was measured with items from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann et al., 1983).

5.6   Content Analysis of the Open-Ended Question

The final page of the survey instrument contained one open-ended question (See Appendix C). This question invited respondents' comments about their suggestions to improve OC in their organizations and any changes that should help in this matter.

In total, 191 questionnaires (35.1% of the returned questionnaires) contained responses to the open-ended question (57 employees from government sector organizations, 63 employees from public sector organizations, and 71 employees from private sector organizations).

Content analysis was performed for the responses given to the open-ended question. To be able to do this, the researcher firstly read all of respondents' comments. Then, the researcher identified the common themes, suggestions, or factors. Secondly, the factors were entered into the SPSS program. "Yes" was used as a "code" if the respondent gave comment(s) regarding that factor and "No" was used as a "code" if the respondent did not comment on that factor. The "Yes" responses for each factor were considered in calculating the percentage of respondents. Themes, factors, and suggestions are displayed in Table 5.19 below.

Table 5.19: Main Themes (Factors) of Open-Ended Question from Qatar's Three Sector Organizations *

#	Main Themes (Factors)	Sub-Themes (Factors)	Government	Public	Private	Total
1	Administration		37	50	62	149
		Policies and rules	12	11	14	37
		Participation in decision making	6	12	14	32
		Strategies, goals, and planning	6	8	11	25
		Appreciation	8	6	6	20
		Appraisal system	4	4	8	16
		Management style	1	7	6	14
		Teamwork	0	2	3	5
2	Salary and Benefits		19	15	19	53
3	Training courses		14	11	23	48
4	Relationships with supervisors		16	10	21	47
5	Job description		13	9	15	37
6	Promotion		15	13	5	33
7	Job security		12	10	5	27
8	Working conditions		7	3	10	20
9	Organizational culture		7	4	6	17
10	Working hours and workload		0	5	5	10

* Some respondents provided comments for more than one factor.

From the above table, we can conclude that:

1. The major concern of employees working in Qatar is administration. More than 140 comments from many respondents from the three sectors were unhappy about various aspects of administration. These aspects were management policies & rules, decision making, strategies, goals, and planning of organizations,

appreciation, appraisal system, management style, and teamwork, which were identified from emerging themes.

Thirty-seven respondents were not satisfied with how their organizations applied policies and rules in the rewards, promotion, and punishments. Respondents suggested that companies should apply these policies and rules consistently to all employees.

"Same rules should be applied to all employees in rewards, promotions, and punishments..." (Qatari - Ministry of Municipal Affairs & Agriculture)

"Rules of attending and leaving the organizations on time should be applied to all employees..." (Non-Qatari – Ministry of Finance)

"Reward only those who deserve to be rewarded..." (Qatari – Electricity Company)

"Organizational policies, systems, and poor levels of management skills could intervene to prevent the highly committed person from converting his or her commitment into performance outcomes...." (Qatar Insurance Company)

"Companies must appoint employees based on qualification rules, not connections or family..." (Non-Qatari - Qatar Insurance Company)

Thirty-two respondents agreed that more participation in decision making will lead to higher OC. Fourteen of them were from private sector organizations.

"Less bureaucracy and more participation in the decision making process is needed to improve organizational commitment..." (Qatari - Ministry of Education)

"Empowering employees to participate in the decision-making process and goal setting in their career development programmes..." (Non-Qatari - Qatar Insurance Company)

"Please we want more participation in decision making and more delegation..." (Non-Qatari - Qatar Navigation Company)

Twenty-five respondents believed that clear organizational strategies, goals, and planning will improve OC. They believed that frequent and unexplained changes in policies and regulations will affect OC negatively.

"Our organization must establish a clear strategic vision and organizational goals..." (Qatari - Ministry of Education)

"Employees should be informed of any changes in planning, goals, strategies as soon as possible..." (Electricity Company)

"Minimize management changes as much as possible..." (Qatar University)

"There is a complete lack of direction and planning in our company..." (Qatari - Ministry of Municipal Affairs & Agriculture)

"Changing of company policies and procedures very often makes confusion..." (Employee – Electricity Company)

Lack of appreciation, respect, dignity, and support from the organization was mentioned by twenty employees as a reason for low organizational commitment.

"There is no appreciation of hard work by the supervisors..." (Ministry of Education)

"Administration not recognizing the true quality of people who care, but glorifying some who do not deserve it, because of their race or influence..." (Ministry of Education)

"There is no appreciation of your work or acknowledgment of your skills..." (Qatari - Ministry of Municipal Affairs & Agriculture)

"No appreciation, no promotion, and will always be the same till the end of time..." (Qatari – National Council for Culture Arts & Heritage)

Sixteen employees (eight of them from private sector organizations) were dissatisfied because of lack of effective communication with administration. The process of communication lacks one of the essentials for effective communications.

"At certain times lack of feedback on issues makes it difficult to know what management is doing or how it is responding to suggestions or questions about various concerns of staff etc..." (Electricity Company)

"Organizations should provide feedback for all employees about their strengths and weaknesses in their annual performance reports..." (Qatar Navigation Company)

"Greater communication from management, often via supervisors and team leaders, will lead to greater involvement and, in particular, greater commitment to goals..." (University of Qatar)

Fourteen respondents disliked the management style of their administration (13 respondents from both public and private sector organizations). The management style was authoritarian rather than participatory.

"Our management structure is bureaucratised and insufficiently decentralized..."
(Electricity Company)

"Create better organizational structure for organizations with less centralization...."
(Qatar Insurance Company)

"Departments should be more organized and should have more authority and
flexibility..." (Non-Qatari - Arab Bank)

"The relationship between management and employees needs to be more co-operative
and positive..." (Non-Qatari - Arab Bank)

Finally, five employees suggested more teamwork and more work group approaches
to overcome any organizational obstacles and to increase organizational commitment.

2. The second most dissatisfying factor among employees working in Qatar is salary
   and benefits. Fifty-three of respondents (27.7% of the comments) expressed
   dissatisfaction with pay (salaries and fringe benefits). Most of these employees
   felt that their salary scales did no reflect the extended years of training and
   education they had gone through. Surprisingly, almost the same results of
   dissatisfaction with pay were found between Qatari and non-Qatari employees and
   across the three selected sectors (government, public, and private).

"In spite of well qualified employee, recognition in terms of salary and promotion are
lacking..." (Non-Qatari - Ministry of Education)

"No appreciation of the work done during all these years as there aren't any
promotions or increase in salary..." (Non-Qatari - General Postal Corporation)

"If you need better productivity increase our salary like other employees in the public
and private sector..." (Ministry of Municipal Affairs & Agriculture)

"A hospital where you have worked more than 7 years as a registrar but are paid as a
medical officer..." (Non-Qatari - Surgeon - Hamad Medical Corporation)

"I feel that I am underpaid according to my work experience..." (Qatari - Ministry of
Education)

"There should not be disparity in the salary structure between those with equal
qualification when the nationality differs..." (Qatar Electricity & Water Corporation)

"Our pay is poor in comparison to the pay of employees in Qatar Electricity & Water
Corporation..." (Qatari - Electricity Company)

"Even if you have equivalent certificates with an expatriate the salary is not the same, which makes us feel depressed..." (Qatari doctor – Hamad Medical Corporation)
"Salary is very low compared to work load and compared to other banks..." (Non-Qatari – Arab Bank)

3. About forty-eight (25.1% of the comments) of the employees who responded to the question centred their comment upon training courses and career development. Surprisingly, about a half of these comments came from private sector employees. They complained of a lack of specialist training courses and that research was inadequate. Both Qataris and non-Qataris expressed almost the same feelings and believed that increasing these courses would improve organizational commitment levels.

"I'm dissatisfied with the amount of training we receive as postgraduate employees; I feel there is no well-structured programme for us ..." (Qatari – University of Qatar)
"For expatriate doctors, no time or activities are provided for professional growth, e.g. attending medical conferences..." (Non-Qatari doctor – Hamad Medical Corporation)
"Some lack of understanding and knowledge by the administration of the importance of research and international contacts..." (Qatari - State Audit Bureau)
"Organizations should provide cross-cultural training for expatriates..." (Qatar University)

4. Forty-seven respondents to the open-ended question (24.6% of total comments) believed that creating better communication channels, especially between employees and their supervisors, will improve organizational commitment and solve many problems in the future.

"Create better communication channels between managers and employees..." (Non-Qatari - Qatar Navigation Company)
"What concerns me most is the lack of co-operation and dedication among doctors to their chosen profession..." (Non-Qatari - Hamad Medical Corporation)
"The supervisor's failure to listen to their employees is one of the biggest problems at this organization. They treat both staff and senior employees as inferiors and the

majority of them are not willing to take advice despite experience..." (Ministry of Finance)

"To improve organizational commitment, we need more productive meetings with our supervisors to discuss problems, opinions, and suggestions..." (Qatari- Qatar Electricity & Water Corporation)

5. The fifth major concern of employees working in Qatar was job description and responsibilities. According to 37 respondents (19.4% of total comments) clear job description, more autonomy, more variety, and clear responsibility will lead to higher levels of organizational commitment.

"Duties and responsibilities for all employees should be clearly defined..." (Qatari – Ministry of Education)

"Employees should be provided with greater control and influence over their work..." (Qatar Electricity & Water Corporation)

"Less role conflict and role ambiguity..." (Qatari – Ministry of Education)

"Employees should be provided with better organizational integration and work adjustment..." (Qatar Insurance Company)

"Less overlapping of job responsibilities..." (Non-Qatari - Qatar Navigation Company)

6. Lack of promotion was another major concern and source of frustration among employees working in Qatar. Respondents believed that organizational commitment levels would be improved in their organizations if promotion and rewards within their companies were based on productivity, quality, and job performance (not according to their family, nepotism, or any other relationships). Thirty-three employees provided negative comments about the promotion prospects (most of them came from government and public sector organizations).

"I have been working in this organization for 11 years, never had a bonus or grade change..." (Ministry of Finance)

"There is no promotion even after seven years of hard work and experience in Qatar..." (Non-Qatari - Ministry of Education)

Qualification is the only criterion for promotion and no importance is given to years of experience and hard work. Twenty-four respondents wanted their companies to place qualified employees in the proper positions according to their educational level, experience, and qualification (not because of nationality or any other relationships).

"The organization promotion board gives more emphasis to certificates rather than years of work experience and good performance at work for promotion..." (General Postal Corporation)

"Incentive to be given as per the grade and experience. It should be given according to seniority, not by *wasta* (Arabic word for indirect means or influence)... " (Qatari - Ministry of Municipal Affairs & Agriculture)

"Place qualified employees in the proper positions according to their educational level, experience, and qualification (not because of nationality or any other relationships)... " (Qatari - Ministry of Municipal Affairs & Agriculture)

Some employees also felt inequity in achieving promotion and some assessed their chances of promotion as non-existent:

"People having the same qualification or experience are given different grades for no apparent reasons. Hard work is badly appreciated... " (Ministry of Municipal Affairs & Agriculture)

"I have experience, good training and qualification from abroad in my speciality but I waited for four years to get my designation..." (Non-Qatari - Qatar Navigation Company)

"It is also sad to note that there is no way of upgrading the status of the staff nurses. I believe everybody is entitled to any promotion that he or she is suitable for..." (Hamad Medical Corporation)

7. Twenty-seven non-Qatari employees expressed their dissatisfaction with job security (fifteen of them from government sector organizations). They felt insecure in their jobs, as their contracts could be terminated at any time.

"Job security is a stressful issue. One never knows when his or her contract will be terminated. He or she cannot plan their future regarding children's education and other issues... " (Non-Qatari - Ministry of Municipal Affairs & Agriculture)

"Unexpected termination of employees in Qatar University without reasons concern me..." (Non-Qatari - Qatar University)

"There is now a lot of termination going on in most of the government sector organizations which is really a major source of low commitment, stress, and anxiety to us..." (Non-Qatari – Ministry of Education)

8. The eighth major concern of employees working in Qatar was working conditions in their organizations. Twenty respondents (half of them from private sector organizations) were not satisfied with working conditions in terms of the organization building, cleanliness, and facilities.

"Our place is not suitable to work...We need better building, equipments, and facilities..." (Qatar Navigation Company)

9. Seventeen employees suggested that introducing a supportive organizational culture and climate (i.e. trips and meetings out of the work) for employees and their families would enhance organizational commitment.

"Management should create more social activities and better organizational culture (meetings out of the work, trips, etc) for employees and their families..." (Non-Qatari – Arab Bank)

10. Finally, about ten of the employees who responded to question centred their comments upon the working hours and workload as a major cause of lower commitment in their organization (five employees from public sector and another five from the private sector).

"If the workload was less, maybe we could work in a better way..." (Arab Bank)

"There is very limited time for us to give good work because there is too much paperwork in this company..." (Ministry of Education)

"Our bank must reduce working hours if they need better results..." (Qatari – Arab Bank)

5.7   Chapter Summary

This chapter started first with descriptive statistics on organizational commitment as well as antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment. Of the 544 employees who participated in this study, 349 were male and 195 female. The average age and length of service on the current job were 34.8 years and 7.4 years, respectively. Two hundred and sixty-five employees were Qatari and two hundred and seventy-nine non-Qatari. One hundred and two respondents had high school diplomas, 353 had college degrees, and 89 employees had postgraduate degrees. Four hundred respondents were married, while the other 144 were unmarried.

Second, of the 544 employees who participated in this study, 191 questionnaires (35.1% of the returned questionnaires) contained responses to the open-ended question (57 employees from government sector organizations, 63 employees from public sector organizations, and 71 employees from private sector organizations). According to the results of content analysis of open-ended question, administration, salary and benefits, training courses, promotion, job description, organizational culture, and working hours are the most important issues that need to be improved to increase employees' commitment in their organizations.

In the next chapter, more analysis of the findings (testing the research hypotheses) of the survey questionnaire will be presented.

Chapter Six

Quantitative Data Analysis

6.1   Introduction

This chapter examines the relationships between antecedents and consequences of OC and the three components of OC itself. These relationships are examined by testing the research hypotheses developed in chapter three.

6.2   Relationships between Antecedents, Consequences, & the Three OC Components

Antecedents of organizational commitment consisted of personal characteristics, organizational characteristics, job characteristics, and job satisfaction variables. A correlation matrix for OC and its antecedents and consequences is presented in Table 6.1.

From these data it would appear that affective commitment has a significant and strong association with personal growth and development, individual recognition and management behaviour, intrinsic job satisfaction, working conditions, overall job satisfaction, acceptance of organizational changes, and turnover intentions. There are also moderate associations with feedback on performance, job security, task identity, and degree of autonomy.

Table 6.1 could not provide any strong association between continuance commitment and any of the investigated variables. However, it provides a significant and moderate association between continuance commitment and three variables: personal growth and development, turnover intentions, and acceptance of organizational changes.

Finally, regarding normative commitment, it would appear that normative commitment has a significant and strong association with personal growth and development, overall job satisfaction, as well as, the three components of job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and acceptance of organizational changes. There are also moderate associations with equity, job security, feedback on performance, degree of autonomy, and task identity.

Table 6.1: Correlation Coefficients between Antecedents & Consequences of OC with Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment.

	Antecedents of OC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1	Number of dependents	X																		
2	Age	.56**	X																	
3	Length of service	.44**	.58**	X																
4	Equity	0.07	.14**	0.01	X															
5	Personal growth & develop.	0.05	0.06	-.09*	.41**	X														
6	Job security	-.08*	-0.02	-0.07	.28**	.34**	X													
7	Skill variety	-0.02	-0.02	0.06	-0.01	.09*	-0.03	X												
8	Degree of autonomy	-0.01	.08*	0.04	.24**	.31**	.20**	.12**	X											
9	Feedback on performance	0.05	0.02	-0.02	.22**	.44**	.27**	.20**	.42**	X										
10	Task identity	-0.01	0.05	-0.02	.21**	.33**	.26**	.11*	.58**	.49**	X									
11	Intrinsic job satisfaction	0.03	.16**	0.04	.42**	.57**	.34**	.09*	.53**	.49**	.44**	X								
12	Working conditions E. S.	.09*	.15**	0.03	.40**	.48**	.47**	0.04	.38**	.43**	.39**	.69**	X							
13	Individual recognition & M.B	0.06	.12**	-0.04	.59**	.61**	.44**	0.04	.39**	.49**	.39**	.74**	.73**	X						
14	Overall job satisfaction	0.05	.16**	0.01	.49**	.57**	.42**	0.07	.45**	.48**	.43**	.84**	.82**	.85**	X					
	Consequences of OC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
15	Acceptance of O. changes	0.06	0.06	0.02	.31**	.39**	.36**	0.03	.27**	.30**	.30**	.44**	.51**	.53**	.52**	X				
16	Turnover intentions	-.21**	-.30**	-.15**	-.40**	-.43**	-.29**	0.01	-.20**	-.26**	-.21**	-.45**	-.52**	-.56**	-.52**	-.38**	X			
	OC Components	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
17	Affective commitment	.16**	.22**	.09*	.37**	.55**	.32**	.11*	.31**	.40**	.30**	.50**	.49**	.55**	.53**	.46**	-.54**	X		
18	Continuance commitment	.17**	0.05	.13**	.15**	.25**	.17**	.13**	0.07	.09*	0.10*	.14**	.18**	.19**	.17**	.16**	-.24**	.33**	X	
19	Normative commitment	.17**	.18**	0.05	.34**	.55**	.33**	.12**	.24**	.34**	.27**	.47**	.46**	.52**	.50**	.45**	-.57**	.70**	.44**	X

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 6.1 also provides support for the idea that an increase in job satisfaction components or overall job satisfaction in companies will lead to higher levels of all components of organizational commitment. Additionally, it is clear from Table 6.1 that both affective and normative commitment components have more significant positive correlations with job satisfaction components and overall job satisfaction than continuance commitment.

Regarding consequences of OC, Table 6.1 suggests that each of affective, continuance, and normative commitment will increase with an increase in acceptance of organizational changes and will decrease with an increase in turnover intentions.

6.3   Testing the Research Hypotheses

As explained in chapter four, the research hypotheses were tested in this study by using three techniques: Pearson correlations, t-tests, and One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). In this research, the ANOVA test was used to compare mean differences among three or more populations. Duncan's post hoc test was used to determine exactly which variables were significantly different and which were not.

6.3.1   Hypothesis One: Employees' Sectors

Hypothesis one (A) stated: *There will be significant differences in the levels of organizational commitment between employees working in public, private, and government organizations.*

Hypothesis one (B) stated: *Private and public sector employees are likely to produce higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than other employees working in the government sector.*

The associations between affective, continuance, and normative commitment and employees' sectors are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: One-way Analysis of Variance of Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment across Selected Sectors (N =544).

OC Components		Mean Square	df	F	Sig.
Affective	Between Groups	4.728	2	3.096	.046
	Within Groups	5.425	541		
Continuance	Between Groups	4.570	2	2.465	.086
	Within Groups	4.612	541		
Normative	Between Groups	4.471	2	5.228	.006
	Within Groups	5.127	541		

Regarding affective commitment, the one-way analysis of variance test confirmed that there were significant differences in affective commitment (F =3.096, df =2,541, p < .05). Thus, it can be concluded that employees working in the three different sectors (government, public, and private) have statistically significant differences in affective commitment.

Table 6.2 also presents the association between continuance commitment and employees' sectors. The ANOVA test indicated that F =2.465, df =2,541, p >.05. The result of the one-way analysis of variance test cannot support that employees working in the three sectors have statistically significant differences in continuance commitment.

Table 6.2 also displays the association between normative commitment and employees' sectors and it indicates that F =5.228, df =2,541, p <.01. It can therefore be concluded that employees working in the public, government, and private sector have statistically significant differences in normative commitment.

From the above results, we can conclude that employees working in the three different sectors (government, public, and private) have statistically significant differences in affective and normative commitment. Hypothesis one (A) is therefore only partially supported.

It is useful to say which sectors are responsible for these differences in affective and normative commitment. Thus, Duncan's multiple range tests were carried out and the results are presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Mean Scores & Standard Deviations of Affective and Normative Commitment with Selected Sectors.

	Government Sector 1			Public Sector 2			Private Sector 3				
	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	F	Sig.
Affective	$4.88_{3,2}$	1.39	180	5.21_1	1.35	183	5.17_1	1.42	181	3.09	0.046
Normative	4.57_2	1.30	180	5.02_1	1.32	183	4.83	1.38	181	5.23	0.006

* P < 0.05 Subscript to a mean refers to a group whose mean is significantly different (Duncan's multiple range test).

At alpha equal to 0.05, the result of Duncan's test revealed that affective commitment for employees working in both private and public sector organizations was significantly higher than for employees working in government sector organizations. However, no significant differences were found between employees working in public and private sector organizations.

Regarding normative commitment, the result of Duncan's test revealed that there was a significant difference between government and public sector organizations. Public sector employees showed higher normative commitment than employees working in the government sector organizations. Additionally, no significant differences were found between employees working in public and private sector organizations.

In relation to hypothesis one (B), the results revealed that affective commitment was higher in public and private sector employees than in government employees. There were no significant differences between groups of employees with regard to continuance commitment. Normative commitment was higher in public sector employees than government employees, though there were no differences between private and government sector employees. Hypothesis one (B) is therefore only partially supported.

6.3.2 Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Antecedents of organizational commitment consisted of personal characteristics, organizational characteristics, job characteristics, and job satisfaction variables. The relationships between these variables and organizational commitment components are tested in the next sections.

6.3.2.1 Hypothesis Two: Employees' Nationality

Hypothesis two stated: *There will be difference in the levels of organizational commitment between Qatari and non-Qatari employees. It is expected that Qatari employees will have higher levels of affective and normative commitment and lower levels of continuance commitment than non-Qatari employees.*

Independent t-tests were carried out to determine whether there were significant differences between nationalities with regard to affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The results of the t-tests are presented in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4: Independent Sample T-Test Comparing Affective, Continuance, Normative Commitment and Employees' Nationality (N =544).

OC Components	Nationality	N	Mean	SD	T-value
Affective	Qatari	265	4.728	1.4517	-5.99; P <0.05 [1]
	Non-Qatari	279	5.425	1.2475	
Continuance	Qatari	265	4.570	1.2534	-.388; P >0.05 [2]
	Non-Qatari	279	4.612	1.2272	
Normative	Qatari	265	4.471	1.3973	-5.84; P <0.05 [1]
	Non-Qatari	279	5.127	1.2116	

1. A t-value based on equal variances not assumed is employed for this test
2. A t-value based on equal variances estimate is employed for this test.

Table 6.4 reveals that there were significant difference between Qatari and non-Qatari employees on affective and normative commitment. In both cases, commitment was higher for non-Qatari employees. There were no differences between Qatari and non-Qatari employees on continuance commitment. Hypothesis two is therefore refuted.

178

6.3.2.2 Hypothesis Three: Education Levels

Hypothesis three stated: *Employees with higher levels of education will exhibit lower levels of the three components of commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) than employees with lower levels of education.*

The associations between the three components of commitment and employees' educational levels are presented in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: One-way Analysis of Variance between Affective, Continuance, Normative, and Educational Levels (N =544).

OC Components		Mean Square	df	F	Sig.
Affective	Between Groups	10.440	2	5.461	.004
	Within Groups	1.912	541		
Continuance	Between Groups	2.006	2	1.031	.271
	Within Groups	1.533	541		
Normative	Between Groups	9.249	2	5.193	.006
	Within Groups	1.781	541		

The ANOVA test indicated that differences between education groups in affective commitment (F =5.461, df =2,541, p <.05) and normative commitment (F =5.193, df =2,541, p <.01) were significant. However, Table 6.5 indicates that continuance commitment (F =1.031, df =2,541, p >.05) was not significantly different at the 0.05 level of significance.

To determine which educational levels are responsible for these differences in affective and normative commitment, Duncan's test was carried out and the result is presented in the next table. Table 6.6 shows the mean and standard deviation scores of affective and normative commitment with each educational level.

Table 6.6: Mean Scores & Standard Deviations of Affective and Normative Commitment with Educational Levels.

	Educational Levels										
	High School Diploma (1)			College Degree (2)			Postgraduate (3)				
	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	F	Sig.
Affective	5.24	1.28	102	4.95_3	1.42	353	5.45_2	1.34	89	3.09	0.04
Normative	4.79_3	1.25	180	4.71_3	1.37	183	5.22_{12}	1.27	181	5.23	0.01

* P <0.05 Subscript to a mean refers to a group whose mean is significantly different (Duncan's multiple range test).

Regarding affective commitment, the result of Duncan's test shows that there is a significant difference between postgraduate employees and college degree employees. Postgraduate employees show higher affective commitment than other employees with college degrees. Additionally, there is no significant difference between employees with high school diplomas and employees with postgraduate degrees and employees with college degrees.

Regarding normative commitment, the result of Duncan's test presented shows that there is a significant difference between postgraduate employees and other employees with either college degrees or high school diplomas. Postgraduate employees show higher normative commitment than other employees. Additionally, there is no significant difference between employees with high school diplomas and employees with college degrees.

From the above, results have revealed that employees with higher levels of education exhibit higher levels of affective and normative commitment than other employees. In addition, there were no significant differences between groups of employees with regard to continuance commitment. Hypothesis three is therefore refuted.

6.3.2.3 Hypothesis Four: Gender

Hypothesis four stated: *Male employees will exhibit lower levels of affective and continuance commitment than female employees.*

An independent t-test was carried out to determine whether or not there is any significant difference in the mean values between male and female employees, for the affective and continuance components of OC.

Table 6.7: Independent Sample T-Test Comparing Affective, Continuance, Normative Commitment, and Employees' Gender (N =544).

OC Components	Gender	N	Mean	SD	T-value
Affective	Male	349	5.282	1.329	4.49; P <0.05 [1]
	Female	195	4.732	1.439	
Continuance	Male	349	4.592	1.666	.64; P >0.05 [1]
	Female	195	4.526	1.177	
Normative	Male	349	4.971	1.312	3.84; P <0.05 [1]
	Female	195	4.515	1.356	

1. A t-value based on equal variances estimate is employed for this test.

Regarding components of OC, Table 6.7 indicates that the t-test value for affective commitment is statistically significant. The results revealed that male respondents have higher commitment than female employees. However, the t-test value for continuance commitment shows that the differences in means between male and female employees are statistically not significant.

Contrary to expectation, the result of hypothesis four confirmed that male employees exhibit higher levels of affective commitment than female employees. On the other hand, the above table could not confirm any significant differences in means between male and female employees, for continuance commitment. Hypothesis four is therefore refuted.

Because there is no literature regarding the relationship between gender of employee and normative commitment, this study explores this relationship in Table 6.7. The result indicates that the t-test value for normative commitment is statistically significant. The results showed that male employees have higher normative commitment than female employees.

6.3.2.4 Hypothesis Five: Marital Status

Hypothesis five stated: *Married employees will display higher levels of continuance and normative commitment and lower levels of affective commitment than non-married employees.*

An independent t-test was carried out to determine whether or not there is any significant difference between the mean values between married and unmarried employees, for affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

Table 6.8: Independent Sample T-Tests Comparing Affective, Continuance, Normative Commitment and Employees' Marital Status (N =544).

OC Components	Marital Status	N	Mean	SD	T- value
Affective	Married	400	5.192	1.36	3.02; P <0.05 [1]
	Unmarried	144	4.787	1.45	
Continuance	Married	400	4.610	1.24	.912; P >0.05 [1]
	Unmarried	144	4.539	1.24	
Normative	Married	400	4.905	1.32	2.83; P <0.05 [1]
	Unmarried	144	4.537	1.37	

1. A t-value based on equal variances estimate is employed for this test.

The result of the t-tests presented in Table 6.8 shows statistically significant results for both affective and normative commitment. Married employees had higher means of affective and normative commitment than unmarried employees. Regarding the second component of OC, continuance commitment, the result of the t-test value was not statistically significant.

From the above results, this study can conclude that married employees exhibit higher levels of affective and normative commitment than unmarried employees. Support for hypothesis five is therefore mixed.

182

6.3.2.5 Hypothesis Six: Number of Dependants

Hypothesis six stated: *Employees with more dependants will display higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than employees without dependants.*

Table 6.9 presents the correlation coefficient of the relationship between affective, continuance, and normative commitment and number of dependants. It is clear that a weak positive relationship exists between number of dependants and the three components of OC. The magnitude of correlation coefficient between the three components OC and number of dependants is r =.16 for affective commitment and r =.17 for both continuance and normative commitment.

Table 6.9: Correlation Coefficient between Number of Dependants and Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment (N =544).

	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	Normative commitment
Number of dependants	0.16**	.17**	.17**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

In order to extend the level of data analysis, the researcher applied an independent t-test to determine whether or not there is any significant difference between the mean values between employees with dependants and employees without dependants, for affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

Table 6.10: Independent Sample T-Tests Comparing Affective, Continuance, Normative Commitment and Number of Dependants of Employees (N =544).

OC Components	Dependants or No Dep.	N	Mean	SD	T- value
Affective	No Dependants	200	4.77	1.42	-4.04; P <0.05 [1]
	Dependants	344	5.27	1.35	
Continuance	No Dependants	200	4.39	1.24	-2.98; P <0.05 [1]
	Dependants	344	4.71	1.22	
Normative	No Dependants	200	4.48	1.37	-4.37; P <0.05 [1]
	Dependants	344	4.99	1.29	

1. A t-value based on equal variances estimate is employed for this test.

The result of the t-tests presented in Table 6.10 show statistically significant results for affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Employees with more dependents exhibit higher levels of the three components of OC than employees without dependents. Thus, the sixth hypothesis posed by this research is supported.

6.3.2.6 Hypothesis Seven: Age

Hypothesis seven stated: *There is a statistically significant positive relationship between age of employee and the three organizational commitment components. Older employees are expected to experience higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than younger employees.*

Correlation coefficient between age of employee and affective, continuance, and normative commitment indicates that there is a weak positive correlation between age and each of affective and normative commitment (r = .22 and .18, respectively). No significant relationship was found between continuance commitment and age of employee (r =0.05).

In order to extend the level of data analysis, the researcher applied a mid range career age. As mentioned in the previous chapter, employees' average age in this study was 34.8 years, the oldest being 63 years and the youngest being 19 years. After using 41 years as a mid range career age, an independent t-test was carried out in Table 6.11 to determine whether or not there is any significant difference between the mean values between young employees (< = 41) and old employees (> 41) and the three components of OC.

Table 6.11: Independent Sample T-Test Comparing Employees' Age and Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment (N =544).

OC	Age Category	N	Mean	SD	T- value
Affective	Young (<=41)	414	4.62	1.21	-5.12; P <0.05 [1]
	Old (>41)	130	4.92	1.41	
Continuance	Young (<=41)	414	4.56	1.21	-.954; P >0.05 [1]
	Old (>41)	130	4.68	1.32	
Normative	Young (<=41)	414	4.66	1.36	-4.86; P <0.05 [2]
	Old (>41)	130	5.27	1.20	

1. A t-value based on equal variances estimate is employed for this test.

2. A t-value based on equal variances not assumed is employed for this test.

The result of Table 6.11 statistically supports the hypothesis that older employees have higher affective and normative commitment than younger employees (M =4.92 and M = 5.27, respectively). Regarding continuance commitment, the t-test result reported above was not significant. Thus, the seventh hypothesis posed by the study is partially supported.

6.3.2.7 Hypothesis Eight: Length of Service

Hypothesis eight stated: *There is a statistically significant positive relationship between length of service and OC. Employees with longer duration of service will have higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative components of commitment than other employees with shorter length of service.*

Table 6.12: Correlation Coefficient between Length of Service and Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment (N =544).

	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	Normative commitment
Length of service	0.09*	.13**	.053

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Table 6.12 shows the measurement of association (Pearson's r), which indicates some support for this hypothesis. Our findings indicate that there is a weak positive

correlation between length of service and continuance commitment and there is a very weak positive correlation between length of service and affective commitment. No significant relationship was found between normative commitment and length of service.

In order to extend the level of data analysis, the researcher applied a mid range length of service. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the longest period of service 27 years and the shortest period of service was 1 year. After using 14 years as a mid range length of service, an independent t-test was carried out in Table 6.13 to determine whether or not there is any significant difference between the mean values between short ($<$ =14) and long length of service employees ($>$14) and the three components of OC.

Table 6.13: Independent Sample T-Test Comparing Employees' Length of Service and Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment (N =451).

OC	Service Category	N	Mean	SD	T- value
Affective	Short (<=14)	310	4.95	1.381	-2.744; P <0.05 [1]
	Long (>14)	141	5.33	1.436	
Continuance	Short (<=14)	310	4.49	1.204	-2.656; P <0.05 [1]
	Long (>14)	141	4.82	1.274	
Normative	Short (<=14)	310	4.68	1.319	-2.081; P >0.05 [1]
	Long (>14)	141	4.96	1.398	

1. A t-value based on equal variances estimate is employed for this test.

The result of Table 6.13 statistically supports the hypothesis that short tenure employees have lower affective (M =4.95) and continuance (M =4.49) commitment than long tenure employees (M = 5.33, and M = 4.82, respectively). Regarding normative commitment, no significant relationship was found between normative commitment and length of service.

With the above results, this study can conclude that both affective and continuance commitment are significantly higher for longer-serving employees than shorter-serving employees. Hypothesis 8 is therefore partially supported.

6.3.2.8 Hypothesis Nine: Type of Employment (Contract vs. Non-Contract)

Hypothesis nine stated: *Non-contract employees (or those on contract without time limit) would have higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than contract employees.*

To test this hypothesis, an independent t-test was carried out to determine whether or not there is any significant difference in mean values between employees with fixed-term contracts and employees without contracts (or without fixed-term contracts), for the three components of OC.

Table 6.14: Independent Sample T-Test Comparing Type of Employment and Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment (N =544).

OC	Type of Employment	N	Mean	SD	T- value
Affective	Fixed term contract	291	5.36	1.41	5.10; P <0.05 [1]
	No-contract or contract without time limit	253	4.76	1.33	
Continuance	Fixed term contract	291	4.62	1.23	.509; P >0.05 [2]
	No-contract or contract without time limit	253	4.56	1.25	
Normative	Fixed term contract	291	5.08	1.39	5.36; P <0.05 [2]
	No contract or contract without time limit	253	4.48	1.23	

1. A t-value based on equal variances not assumed is employed for this test.

2. A t-value based on equal variances estimate is employed for this test.

Table 6.14 reveals that there are significant difference between employees without fixed term contracts (or with no contracts) and those with fixed term contracts on affective and normative commitment. In both cases, commitment was higher for employees with fixed term contracts. There were no differences between employees without fixed term contracts (or with no contracts) and those with fixed term contracts on continuance commitment.

Thus, contrary to expectation, the result of hypothesis nine confirmed that affective and normative commitment are significantly higher for fixed-term contract employees

than for non-contract (or contract without time limit) employees. Hypothesis nine is therefore refuted.

6.3.2.9 Hypothesis Ten: Equity on Paying Salary & Fringe Benefits

Hypothesis ten stated: *There are significant positive relationships between equity on paying salary and fringe benefits and each of affective, continuance, and normative commitment.*

In order to test the relationship between equity and OC components, the focus was placed on a specific aspect of equity, namely satisfaction with salary and fringe benefits (organizational justice).

Table 6.15: Organizational Characteristics and OC Components: Correlations (N = 544).

Variables	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	Normative commitment
Equity on paying salary & benefits	.37**	.15**	.34**
Perceived personal growth and development	.55**	.25**	.55**
Job security	.32**	.17**	.33**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Our data, as shown in Table 6.15, support this hypothesis as the correlation coefficient between equity on paying and affective commitment was (r = .37, n = 544, one-tailed). In addition, the correlation coefficients between equity on paying and both continuance and normative commitment were significant also. These results indicate that employees with high equity in salaries and fringe benefits are more committed to their organizations than others. Hypothesis ten is therefore accepted.

6.3.2.10 Hypothesis Eleven: Perceived Personal Growth & Development and Employees' Working Sectors

Hypothesis eleven (A) stated: *Employees with higher amounts of personal growth and development are more likely to have higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than other employees.*

188

The correlation coefficients between this variable and affective, continuance and normative commitment are shown in Table 6.15.

It is clear from the above table that a strong relationship exists between personal growth and the three components of organizational commitment. The magnitude of the correlation coefficients between OC components and personal growth and development ranged from $r = .25$ for continuance commitment to $r = .55$ for both affective and normative commitment. Thus, this research can conclude that successively higher amounts of growth and developments are likely to produce successively higher amounts of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Hypothesis 11 (A) is therefore accepted.

Hypothesis eleven (B) stated that: *Employees working in the public and private sector will perceive higher amounts of personal growth and development than other employees working in the government sector.*

The association between personal growth and development and employees' working sectors is presented in the ANOVA test in Table 6.16. The result indicates that the calculated value was found to be significant between personal growth and development and employees' working sectors (F = 17.28, df = 2,541, p < .05). Therefore, we can conclude that the results of the ANOVA test confirm that employees working in different sectors have statistically significant differences in personal growth and development.

It is useful to state which of the selected sectors is responsible for this difference in personal growth and development score. Duncan's test was carried out and the result is presented in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16: Mean Scores & Standard Deviations of Personal Growth & Development with Employees' Working Sectors.

	Government Sector (1)			Public Sector (2)			Private Sector (3)			df	F	Sig
	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N			
Personal Growth & Development	$2.94_{2,3}$	1.12	180	3.63_1	1.15	183	3.39_2	1.14	181	2,54	17.28	0.00

* P < 0.05 Subscript to a mean refers to a group whose mean is significantly different (Duncan's multiple range test).

As expected, the result of Duncan's test shows that the score for the growth and development variable in public and private sector organizations is significantly higher than in government sector organizations. Hypothesis eleven (B) is accepted.

6.3.2.11 Hypothesis Twelve: Job Security

Hypothesis twelve (A) stated: *Employees with greater job security will show greater affective, continuance, and normative commitment than other employees with lower job security.*

The correlation coefficients between these variables were displayed in Table 6.15. The test results indicated that there were weak to moderate positive correlations between job security and the three components of OC (r was .17 for continuance commitment, .32 for affective commitment, and .33 for normative commitment). Thus, we can conclude that organizational commitment is influenced by job security of employees. Hypothesis 12 (A) is therefore accepted.

Hypothesis twelve (B) stated: *Qatari employees will be more satisfied with job security than non-Qatari employees.*

To test this hypothesis, an independent t-test was carried out in Table 6.17 to determine whether or not there is any significant difference between the mean values between Qatari and non-Qatari employees, on the job security variable.

Table 6.17: Independent Sample T-Test Comparing Job Security and Nationality of Employees (N =544).

Job security	N	Mean	SD	T- value
Qatari employees	265	3.211	1.243	-.203; P >0.05 [1]
Non-Qatari employees	279	3.233	1.249	

1. A t-value based on equal variances estimate is employed for this test.

The results revealed no significant difference in job security between Qatari and non-Qatari employees. Hypothesis 12 (B) is therefore refuted.

6.3.2.12 Hypothesis Thirteen: Job Characteristics

The relationships between four job characteristics (degree of autonomy, skill variety, feedback on performance, and task identity) and organizational commitment are now analysed.

Hypothesis thirteen stated: *Employees with higher amounts of task variety, autonomy, task identity, feedback on performance are likely to have higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment than other employees.*

A correlation matrix showing Pearson correlation coefficients can be seen in Table 6.18 to indicate the strength and direction of the relationships between OC components and the variables in the job characteristics cluster.

Table 6.18: Job Characteristics and OC Components: Correlations (N =544).

Job Characteristics	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment
Skill variety	.11*	.13**	.12**
Degree of autonomy	.31**	.065	.24**
Task identity	.30**	.10*	.27**
Feedback on performance	.40**	.09*	.34**

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Results indicate that all of the selected variables of job characteristics were positively and statistically significantly related to affective commitment (r ranging from .11 to .40) and to normative commitment (r ranging from .12 to .34). However, only three of four selected variables of job characteristics were positively and statistically significantly related to continuance commitment.

Regarding skill variety, Table 6.18 indicates that this variable correlated weakly to affective commitment (r = .11), continuance commitment (r = .13), and normative commitment (r = .12). As a result, a higher degree of skill variety is likely to produce higher amounts of commitment, though the levels of association are weak.

Regarding degree of autonomy and task identity, the findings presented confirm that both degree of autonomy and task identity were positively (moderately) related to both affective and normative commitment and reached the 0.01 level of significance. Thus, higher degrees of autonomy and task identity are likely to produce higher amounts of affective and normative commitment. Furthermore, a weak positive relationship was found between continuance commitment and task identity but no significant relationship was found between continuance commitment and degree of autonomy.

Regarding feedback on performance, the correlation coefficients between this variable and the three OC components ranged from .09 to .40 and all reached the 0.05 level of significance. The strongest correlation was found between feedback on performance and affective commitment (r = .40, n = 544, P < .01, one-tailed) which indicates that employees may experience higher amounts of attachment and loyalty if they receive higher amounts of feedback to improve their performance from their supervisors and companies.

From the above results, this study can conclude that weak to moderate positive relationships exist between both affective and normative commitment and all job characteristics. However, the correlation coefficient results between job characteristics and continuance commitment are mixed. Thus, hypothesis thirteen is partially supported.

6.3.2.13 Hypothesis Fourteen: Overall Job Satisfaction & Job Satisfaction Variables

Hypothesis fourteen (A) stated: *Overall job satisfaction is expected to show a positive relationship with affective and normative commitment, and overall job satisfaction will have a negative relationship with continuance commitment.*

Hypothesis fourteen (B) stated: *Employees with higher amounts of intrinsic job satisfaction, working conditions, and individual recognition & management behaviour are likely to produce higher positive levels of affective and normative commitment than continuance commitment.*

A correlation matrix using Pearson correlation coefficients is produced in Table 6.19 to indicate levels of association between overall job satisfaction (or any selected job satisfaction variables) and organizational commitment components.

Regarding overall job satisfaction (hypothesis fourteen (A)), it is clear from Table 6.19 that moderate to strong positive relationships exist between all components of OC and overall job satisfaction. The strongest magnitude of correlation coefficient was between overall job satisfaction and both affective commitment ($r = .53$, $P < 0.01$, one-tailed) and normative commitment ($r = .50$, $P < 0.01$, one-tailed). Contrary to the findings of other researchers, the correlation results shown in Table 6.19 indicate that the same pattern of positive correlation coefficient was found also between overall job satisfaction and continuance commitment ($r = .17$, $P < 0.01$, one-tailed). These findings seem to indicate that an increase in overall job satisfaction will lead to higher levels of all components of OC.

Table 6.19: Job Satisfaction Variables and OC Components: Correlations (N =544).

Job Satisfaction Variables	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment
Intrinsic job satisfaction	.50**	.13**	.47**
Working conditions extrinsic satisfaction	.49**	.18**	.46**
Individual recognition and management behaviour	.55**	.18**	.52**
Overall job satisfaction	.53**	.17**	.50**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Regarding components of job satisfaction (hypothesis fourteen (B)), our findings in Table 6.19 indicate that the three selected components were statistically and positively related to the OC components. The correlation coefficients ranged from 0.13 to 0.55. The strongest correlation was found between affective commitment and satisfaction with individual recognition and management behaviour (r =.55, n =544, one-tailed), indicating that more satisfaction with this variable causes higher levels of affective commitment. Also, the findings strongly confirm that higher amounts of both intrinsic job satisfaction and better working conditions are likely to produce higher levels of affective and normative commitment. Regarding continuance commitment, the above table confirms significant relationships but with weak positive correlations (instead of negative relationships like many studies in the literature) to the three job satisfaction components.

From the above, even with the unexpected (positive) relationship between job satisfaction (overall and job satisfaction components) and continuance commitment, this research can conclude that both hypotheses fourteen (A) and fourteen (B) posed by this research are supported, since all selected job satisfaction variables were positively and significantly correlated to organizational commitment components.

6.3.3   Consequences of Organizational Commitment

The relationships between consequences of commitment (acceptance of organizational changes and intent to leave) and organizational commitment components are tested below.

6.3.3.1 Hypothesis Fifteen: Acceptance of Organizational Changes

Hypothesis fifteen stated: *Employees with higher levels of affective and normative commitment and with lower levels of continuance commitment are likely to display higher levels of acceptance of organizational decisions and changes.*

The correlation coefficients of the relationships between OC components and this variable are presented in the next table.

Table 6.20: Consequences of Organizational Commitment and Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment: Correlations (N =544).

Variables	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	Normative commitment
Acceptance of organizational changes	.46**	.16**	.45**
Turnover intentions (Intent to leave)	-.54**	-.24**	-.57**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

It is clear from Table 6.20 that strong relationships exist between acceptance of organizational changes and two components of organizational commitment (affective and normative commitment) and a weak relationship exists between this variable and continuance commitment. The magnitude of correlation coefficient between affective, continuance, normative commitment and this variable is (r = .46, .16, and .45, respectively).

From the above, even with unexpected (positive) relationship between acceptance of organizational changes and continuance commitment, this study can conclude that committed employees are more likely to display higher acceptance of organizational changes. Hypothesis fifteen is therefore only partially supported.

6.3.3.2 Hypothesis Sixteen: Turnover Intentions (Intent to Leave)

Hypothesis sixteen stated: *Employees with higher organizational commitment components are likely to express lower levels of turnover intentions. Furthermore, affective component of commitment is expected to be more negatively related to turnover intentions than other commitment components.*

The correlation coefficients of the relationships between OC components and intent to leave are presented in the previous table. Staying or leaving intentions were measured using questions from Michigan Organization Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann et al., 1983). As can be seen from Table 6.20, the Pearson's r has strong negative values for all components of OC. The findings indicate that normative commitment ($r = -0.57$, $P < 0.01$, one-tailed) was more negatively related to turnover intentions than other commitment components (affective commitment ($r = -0.54$, $P < 0.01$, one-tailed), and continuance commitment ($r = -0.24$, $P < 0.01$, one-tailed)).

The result indicates clearly that as organizational commitment decreases, employees are more likely to be willing to leave the organization. In contrast, the more committed employees are, the stronger the intent to stay.

In conclusion, Table 6.20 provides support for the first part of the hypothesis (strong negative relationships exist between intent to leave and all components of OC). However, the same table shows that normative commitment was more negatively related to turnover intentions than either affective or continuance commitment. Hypothesis sixteen is therefore partially supported.

6.4   Chapter Summary

This chapter analysed the relationships between antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment themselves. The outcomes of hypothesis testing were presented. From these tests, several findings were consistent with the findings of other researchers and consistent with the literature review presented in chapter two and three. Discussion and interpretation of the major and surprising findings will be presented in detail in the next chapter.

Chapter Seven

Discussion of Quantitative Results

7.1   Introduction

The main objectives of this study were to identify the levels of OC among employees working in three sectors in Qatar; to compare the level of commitment between Qatari and non-Qatari employees; to investigate and assess the impact of personal characteristics, job satisfaction factors, job characteristics and organizational characteristics on employees' organizational commitment; and finally to investigate two main consequences of organizational commitment.

The discussion is an attempt to provide a general understanding of organizational commitment of domestic and international employees in a non-Western culture, Qatar, using Western measurement. However, the principal aim is not to test theory, but rather, to examine and explore the determinants of OC of employees. Both the analysis and presentation of findings of the survey questionnaires in chapter six and the discussion and interpretation of findings in this chapter have been guided by existing theory and scholarly research done prior to this study. This chapter will now address each of the research questions and hypotheses defined earlier in previous chapters.

7.2   Organizational Commitment of Employees in Different Sectors

In this research almost an equal number of respondents were found to be working in government, public, and private sectors. Research question 1 asked, what is the organizational commitment level among employees working in Qatar's government, public, and private sector? Are employees of one sector more committed to their respective organizations than employees of the other sectors?

The results revealed statistically significant differences between employees working in government, public and private sectors, in each of affective and normative commitment. Regarding continuance commitment, this study could not support any relationships between continuance commitment and employees' sectors.

More specifically, it was revealed that public sector employees showed higher affective commitment than other employees. In addition, affective commitment in both public and private sector organizations was significantly higher than in government sector organizations. Regarding normative commitment, the results

revealed that there was a significant difference between public sector organizations and government sector organizations. However, no significant differences were found between private and government sector organizations.

One reasonable explanation of these findings is related to the motivational factors in public and private sector organizations. Due to differences in factors such as reward, compensation, employee empowerment, growth, and involvement between the government sector and other sectors (Zeffane, 1994), it might be expected that employees working in the private and public sectors have more motivational factors than other employees working in the government sector. These factors would help to develop and enhance commitment among employees working in these sectors compared to their counterparts in the government sector.

Another reasonable explanation of these findings is related to availability of alternatives elsewhere outside government sector organizations (especially for Qatari employees). In Qatar, government sector companies have almost no control over availability of alternatives elsewhere because it is related to the government's economic situation as a whole. Availability of alternatives is an environmental determinant and has a direct effect on organizational commitment.

A further explanation may be associated with the nature of the employment in the government sector. For example, non-Qatari employees can be fired without previous notice according to the governmental conditions (Al-Kuwari, 1998). This reason may contribute to lower commitment of employees working in this sector than of their counterparts in the public and private sectors. Twelve non-Qatari employees working in the government sector expressed their dissatisfaction with this issue. For example, one participant from Ministry of Education said, "There is now a lot of termination going on in most of the government sector organizations which is really a major source of low commitment, stress, and anxiety to us". Another one said, "One never knows when his or her contract will be terminated. He or she can not plan their future regarding children's education and other issues".

Employees working in different sectors also have statistically significant differences in personal growth and development (Hypothesis 11 (B)). The results indicated that

personal growth and development in private and public sector organizations is significantly higher than in government sector organizations. This result may support our previous findings regarding employees' sectors and OC.

One explanation of these findings is related to low resources and higher levels of bureaucracy in most of the government sector organizations compared to other sectors. In Qatar, it is noticeable that government sector employees cannot receive the same growth, development, salaries, training programmes, and benefits as employees working in other sectors because of low resources or bureaucracy (Al-Kuwari, 1998). Government organizations, for example, provide fewer training programmes every year (typically these programmes are provided for domestic employees and sometimes for non-domestic employees). One participant in this research stated, "I'm dissatisfied with the amount of training we receive as postgraduate employees; I feel there is no well-structured programme for us". Furthermore, knowing important people in the organization and number of years spent working in the organization (not good qualifications) are the key to both Qatari and non-Qatari employees' opportunities for growth and development. One Qatari employee from the Ministry of Municipal Affairs and Agriculture argued for "incentive to be given as per the grade and experience. It should be given according to seniority, not by *wasta* (Arabic word for indirect means)". These factors will adversely affect commitment levels in the government sector. In almost all of the public and private sector companies, however, training programmes are usually provided for all employees (domestic and non-domestic) very often and performance rather than personal networks or length of service is the key to getting good jobs, growth, promotion, and better positions.

These findings regarding employees' sectors will be useful for Qatari organizations because managements should give more attention to important factors, such as promotions, equity, growth, individual involvement, job security, and reducing the bureaucratic culture of their organizations which would allow these organizations to foster their employees' commitment.

7.3   Discussion of the Findings of Antecedents of OC

The findings from the survey and the analysis of the open-ended questions reveal that there are several factors affecting organizational commitment in Qatar as follows:

7.3.1 Personal Characteristics & Organizational Commitment

The third research question in this thesis addressed the relationships between selected variables of personal characteristics and the three dimensions of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) among employees working in Qatar.

Personal demographic differences that individuals bring with them to the employing organization have been found by many researchers to be reliable predictors of their commitment (e.g. Steers, 1977; Mowday et al., 1982; Crewson, 1997). Investigators have examined the personal variables that influence the OC of employees; however, researchers such as Abdulla and Shaw (1999), Iverson and Buttigieg (1999), and Schneider (2003) argued that the relationships and the magnitude of those relationships, between personal characteristics and organizational commitment have not been adequately explored. This study sought to address this gap. An interpretation of the findings of this study with regard to the personal factors affecting OC and their link with findings from other relevant studies will now be discussed.

7.3.1.1 Nationality

The fast growth of interest in international business and globalization over the last decade is a signal for the importance of cross-national studies on employees working in countries other than their own (Al-Kahtany, 1998). One of the countries that increasingly attract people seeking jobs is Qatar. Working in Qatar is a dream for many nationalities because of the generous pay and benefits most Qatari organizations provide for their domestic and expatriate employees (Al-Kuwari, 1998).

The results revealed statistically significant differences between Qatari and non-Qatari employees with regard to affective and normative commitment. Qatari employees had lower mean scores on affective commitment, indicating lower levels of commitment than non-Qatari employees. Regarding normative commitment, the results also indicated that Qatari employees had lower mean scores than non-Qatari employees. No significant difference was found for continuance commitment.

Several explanations may account for these findings:

The first explanation may be associated with the nature of the employment contract granted to non-Qatari employees, which makes transferring to another firm and changing jobs very difficult because it requires a new formal contract with the new organization. In contrast, Qatari employees within any organization, in general, have no formal contract and are protected by a lifetime employment system, allowing them to transfer freely between companies if there are better employment opportunities available in the market. The above reason may enhance commitment for non-Qatari employees compared to their Qatari counterparts.

Second, Qatari employees cannot be fired from the organization because of their low performance. Unlike Qatari employees, non-Qatari employees who have low performance may not have the opportunity to renew their contracts with Qatari organizations. This reason may also contribute to greater commitment of non-Qatari employees than of their Qatari counterparts.

Third, Qatari organizations usually hire non-domestic employees because they have knowledge, experience, and they work hard to develop their skills and professionalism. Consequently, non-Qatari employees (especially in the public sector organizations) usually receive sufficient benefits and good pay level to persuade them to join and stay with Qatari organizations. These benefits include health club membership, medical coverage, free education for their children, family accommodation, and travel allowances. As long as their benefits and pay level are high in comparison with wages back home, non-Qatari will continue to work in Qatar. Conversely, if the benefits that they are receiving are not sufficient to persuade them to stay, then they will seek other employment back in their own countries. This reason may contribute to greater attachment and commitment of non-Qatari employees to keep their jobs in their companies in Qatar.

These findings will be useful for all organizations because obtaining unfair treatment regarding performance, unfair paying, and lifetime employment for Qatari employees compared to non-Qatari employees could lead to lower involvement and a weak sense of obligation to the organization and as a result could lead to lower levels of commitment to the Qatari companies.

<u>7.3.1.2 Educational Levels</u>

Researchers who investigated this variable have found that variation in employees' education can affect their organizational commitment levels. For example, researchers such as Mathieu and Zajac (1990); and Wahn (1998); argued that as the level of education of an employee increases, his or her expectations increase. If his or her expectations are not satisfied, he or she may leave the organization. Of course unmet expectations can result in organizational resentment, which in turn may influence organizational commitment negatively.

The research hypothesis suggested that there is a difference in the levels of commitment to Qatari companies as a result of the difference in employees' levels of education.

The findings showed that there was a difference in affective and normative commitment between employees with a high school diploma or lower and employees with postgraduate degrees. Contrary to the literature, this study found that more educated staff members tended to report higher levels of affective and normative commitment. This result of a positive relationship between level of education and OC is consistent with the result of Simmons's (2005) study. However, it is not consistent with the results of most previous studies (e.g. Angle and Perry, 1983; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; and Wahn, 1998).

The positive relationship between education and commitment is likely due to the fact that employees (in small country like Qatar) who had more education occupied higher status positions and were better integrated into workplace, and were more involved in decision making in the organization. Several studies show that greater participation in decision-making and supportive management style would lead to a higher level of satisfaction and organizational commitment (Naumann, 1993; Laschinger et al., 2000, 2001).

Another reason for this finding is that highly educated employees (usually supervisors) acquire some organizational rewards and have more authority, privileges, and connections within the organization than subordinates and, consequently, their position status would be a primary determinant of a work-related sense of

commitment. This reason is likely to enhance satisfaction and commitment for those with a high education level compared to low education level employees (who are paid less and have poor employment alternatives). In other words, as the level of education of an employee increases, his expectations increase. If these expectations are met or he obtains an adequate return on the investment, he will be more generally satisfied with his job, which will influence organizational commitment positively.

One more explanation of this finding is related to the bureaucratic structure of organizations in Qatar, which offers less opportunity for employees with middle and lower educational levels to participate in the decision-making process (Al-Kuwari, 1998); this influences work motivation and commitment negatively for less educated employees. One participant suggested that less bureaucracy and more participation in the decision making process for all employees is needed to improve organizational commitment.

7.3.1.3 Gender

In Qatar, with the increasing number of women entering the workforce, the question arises whether a relationship exists between gender and organizational commitment of employees. According to the descriptive results of this study, 55.5% of the Qatari employees were female and 17.2% of non-Qatari employees were female. It seems that women have a marked preference for office-related jobs, and are still not coming forward to take up jobs requiring fieldwork. In this study, about 45% of the female respondents were working in the government sector, while male respondents were concentrated more in the public and private sectors.

Gender is frequently mentioned in commitment studies but the results are mixed: some studies seem to indicate that gender has little or no effect on commitment, while others note that female employees seem less committed than male employees or vice versa (Chusmir, 1986; Rosenthal, 1982; Wahn, 1993; Kacmar et al., 1999; Vander Velde et al., 2003).

The findings of this study were partly consistent with those of Rosenthal (1982) and Abdullah and Shaw (1999), which found statistical difference in the organizational commitment of male and female employees. Contrary to the expected hypothesis, this

research found that male respondents have higher affective and normative commitment than female employees.

This finding may be associated with the nature of the Islamic culture. Males, in general, are responsible for all of the expenditure in families. They have to provide money, buy food, clothes, and pay rent and other expenses. Thus, they recognize the importance of securing their employment by increasing their attachment and commitment to their jobs (Yousef, 1998). Women, on the other hand, are not obligated to work unless they want to, because they are expected to concentrate on raising children and have more family responsibilities. Thus, women will not need to show such high degrees of attachment and commitment to their jobs as males.

Another explanation of this finding is that males in most government companies in Qatar usually receive higher salary and motivational factors compared with females. For example, until now, males receive higher salaries than females in the Ministry of Education, even if they have the same job. In other organizations, only men receive special benefits such as house allowances and yearly tickets. This situation may contribute to greater attachment and commitment of males in Qatar.

7.3.1.4 Marital Status
The findings of this study are consistent with those of Kacmar et al. (1999) and Cetin (2006), which found a statistically significant difference in the OC of married and unmarried employees. The results gave partial support to the hypothesis that married employees would be more committed to their organizations than those who were unmarried. Unmarried employees scored lower means for affective and normative commitment to their organizations than married employees.

One explanation of this finding is that married employees in most Qatari companies earn higher pay compared with unmarried employees. The Qatari government gives some benefits to persuade Qatari employees to get married, to increase the population. Thus, all married employees (Qatari and non-Qatari) working in the government sector and some of the public sector organizations receive higher pay compared with unmarried employees. This will increase their attachment and commitment to their organizations, compared to unmarried employees.

205

Another explanation of this finding is that unmarried employees in the Qatari culture are usually young and they are at the beginning of their career ladder. Thus, they do not recognize the same necessities of work as married employees who recognize the importance of securing their employment because of their families. Thus, married employees will work harder to keep their jobs secured because costs of leaving their organizations are much higher than unmarried employees.

This result will be helpful for Qatari organizations because providing higher pay for married employees compared to unmarried employees could lead to more involvement and a strong sense of obligation to the organization and as a result could lead to higher levels of commitment to the Qatari companies.

7.3.1.5 Number of Dependants

The findings of this study confirmed that employees with more dependants have higher levels of the affective, continuance, and normative commitment than employees without dependants.

As explained before regarding married employees, employees with dependants recognise that they have certain obligation to their dependants and recognise the importance of securing their employment by staying with their same employing companies. Thus, they will try to increase their attachment and commitment to their jobs to reduce turnover levels. However, for employees without dependants and without family responsibilities (usually younger) the costs of leaving the organization are not as high as for employees with dependants, which may result in their intentions to look for employment opportunities in different organizations, thus making job mobility easier and organizational commitment lower.

7.3.1.6 Age

Young employees' mobility, priorities, and orientation are different from those of old employees. These differences may affect old and young employees' views of their organizations differently. Simply, different age groups working in the same organization may mean different levels of commitment to the same organization. This

study revealed that there were differences in the levels of OC between young and old employees.

Consistent with our expectation, age was shown to be positively associated with both affective and normative commitment components: older employees had higher affective and normative mean scores than younger employees. Other studies have also shown older employees to be more committed to their organizations than younger employees (Cohen, 1993; Abdulla and Shaw, 1999). In the same way, Allen and Meyer (1990), Baysal and Paksoy (1999), Balay (2000), Lok and Crawford (2001) reported that older employees become more committed to their companies because of greater satisfaction with their jobs.

The results of this study implied that the nature of the relationship between age and organizational commitment was enhanced by greater job satisfaction, indicating that the older employees were satisfied with their jobs and with their organizations. Thus, older employees would have better opportunities for advancement and promotion within the organization, and would be more likely to occupy higher organizational positions than younger employees, and this will increase both commitment and responsibility toward organizational goals.

Meyer et al. (1993) added that older employees have a strong affective commitment because of the fact that they are more mature and have longer experience in their organizations. Another explanation would be that when employees spend a number of years in a certain position with the same organization, then the chances of findings alternative employment with the same pay, benefits, and pension plan would be limited; this can reduce turnover levels of older employees and would increase their attachment and commitment to their companies. Moreover, older employees (usually) have invested time, work experience and effort within their organizations and therefore, they would be more obligated to their organizations.

7.3.1.7 Length of Service (Tenure)

Organizational commitment literature has focused on the length of time an employee has been with an organization as a predictor of his or her intention to stay (commitment) with the organization (e.g. Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Tsui, Egan, and

O'Reilly, 1992; Cohen, 1993; Allen and Meyer, 1996; Wahn, 1998). Commitment, which may take different forms, means intention to stay and involvement in the employing organization. The assumption is that the longer an employee remains with the organization, the more likely he or she is to be committed to it.

The current study suggests that the longer an employee is engaged by the organization, and the more he or she is socialised into the organizational culture and the value system, the greater will be the organizational commitment. The outcome of this socialisation process will result in increasing the relationship between the goals and values of the employees and the goals and values of the organization.

As expected, the results of this study found that both affective and continuance commitment were significantly higher for longer-serving employees than shorter-serving employees. Thus, employees' organizational commitment increases as length of service increases. Other studies have also shown the same result (Rousseau, 1989; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly, 1992; Igbaria and Guimaraes, 1993; Liou and Nyhan, 1994; and Wahn, 1998).

Possible reasons for the positive relationship could be interrelated work experience, seniority, and the authority that senior employees enjoy through their employment, as well as the effort and time which they have invested in a particular position. For instance, the employees with more work experience would evaluate the benefits which they obtain from the organization, such as pension plans, before they decide to leave their firm because such accumulated benefits and investments would be lost if they were to leave, and this will increase their intention to stay and to be more attached to the organization. In other words, the increase in organizational tenure means an increase in one's personal investment, which in turn influences the individual to stay in the employing organization and to be more attached (committed) to the organization. Correspondingly, longer-serving employees would attain more promotional opportunities than younger employees and this influence their commitment levels positively.

This result will be significant because Qatari organizations can retain long and short tenure employees to continue to stay with these companies probably by giving them

more secure pension plans. Moreover, organizations should give more attention to the earlier stages of employees' employment (short tenure employees) by implementation of a clear, realistic, and job review for new employees (or other suitable programmes) to increase their commitment. The socialisation programmes should inform employees about the specific goals, missions, policies, achievement and values of the organizations. This would enable the personnel managers more readily to identify potential problem areas before they cause any lower commitment. It is thought that such employee orientation programmes would increase commitment levels among newcomers to these to organizations.

7.3.1.8 Type of Employment (Contract vs. Non-Contract)

In Qatari companies, recruitment of international and domestic employees is either for a lifetime (employees remain the employment until they reach the age of retirement, which is 60 years in Qatar) or contract jobs in which the duration of the employment is specified. The majority of Qatari employees working in all sectors have lifetime employment. However, almost all non-Qatari employees have contract employment. The difference in the recruitment policy practised by Qatari organizations may psychologically influence employees' commitment to those companies. Therefore, this research suggested there would be a difference in the levels of OC between lifetime employees and contract employees.

Researchers such as Williamson (1975), Lober, Kirk, Kirschner, & Handorf (1984) and Luthans, McCaul, & Dodd (1985) believed that lifetime employment creates the public image of a stable employer. They added that lifetime employees have greater moral involvement and a stronger sense of moral obligation to the organization than do contract employees, whose involvement tends to be calculative.

In this study, the findings indicated that there was a significant difference in the levels of commitment between employees with lifetime employment and those with contract employment. Contrary to expectation, the results indicated that lifetime employees (without fixed term contracts or with no-contracts) scored lower levels of affective and normative commitment than those with fixed term contracts.

One explanation of this finding (as explained earlier) is that Qatari employees (usually without fixed term contracts or with no-contracts) have more mobility and alternatives in the labour market so they do not need to put extra work into the organization in order to keep working in it. In addition, Qatari employees cannot be fired from the organization because of their low performance. Unlike Qatari employees, non-Qatar employees who have low performance may not have the opportunity to renew their contracts with Qatari organizations. Thus, non-Qatari employees (also without alternative job opportunities) may be expected to work harder in their jobs, in order to have their contracts renewed. This means they will have more involvement, attachment, and obligation to their organization than Qatari employees who do not have the same necessities and motivations.

This result will be helpful for Qatari organizations because enhancing job security of Qatari employees by allowing them to work with organization without contracts and nobody can fired them (especially in the government sector) could lead to negative consequences such as lower involvement and a weak sense of obligation to the organization and as a result could lead to lower levels of commitment and attachment to the companies.

7.3.2   Organizational Characteristics & Organizational Commitment

This section discusses the extent to which organizational characteristics (equity on paying salary & fringe benefits, personal growth & development, and job security) are related to organizational commitment among employees working in Qatar. The discussion interprets the findings with regard to the organizational characteristics and links them with the findings from other relevant studies.

7.3.2.1 Equity on Paying Salary & Fringe Benefits

One cause of dissatisfaction with pay has to do with pay equity, both inside the organization and across organizations. Inequity results when salary scales are determined by factors other than qualification and performance, such as type of organization, and nationality.

Equity theory warns organizations against unfair practices of underpayment because perceived inequality creates tension, which in turn influences an individual's

commitment to his or her organization. Dubinsky and Levy (1989) argued that lack of fairness of pay and benefits was one of the possible reasons for low commitment. Quarles (1994) found that fairness of promotion system has a positive effect on OC and job satisfaction. Thus, it is believed that the different policy of paying salaries and benefits between Qatari and other nationalities may create tension, which in turn would influence an individual's commitment to his or her organization.

The result of this study is consistent with those of Mottaz (1987) and Buchko et al. (1997); they argued that satisfaction with pay was positively related to organizational commitment.

The findings of this study showed that with more pay equity on salaries and fringe benefits, there is more affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organizations. The strong positive association between the perceived equity of pay and OC components indicated that the more employees felt that their pay was comparable with that of other co-workers performing similar jobs in the same or in a different company, the more they were committed to the organization. In other words, the more satisfied employees were with their pay and benefits, the more committed they were to their organizations.

According to the open-ended question, there was dissatisfaction regarding equity on paying and fringe benefits in most of the participated companies in Qatar. Some respondents complained about not receiving fair promotion. One of the employees added that "employees are promoted on their seniority more than work performance and there should be a clear performance system related to pay increases". Other employees argued that employees' social standing and connection, "wasta", can have a powerful effect upon the treatment that they receive, such as promotion.

Based on the suggestions of the participating employees, this study shows that there is a need to re-evaluate the salary scales of employees so they can reflect performance, experience, effort and qualifications. In addition, it seems that pay equity can be used as a predictor of employees' commitment to the organization and can guide management and personnel to enhance employees' commitment by improving the

quality of employees' functions and providing a culture of organizational fairness in paying salaries and benefits.

7.3.2.2 Perceived Personal Growth and Development

According to Mathieu and Zajac (1990), Tsui et al. (1997), and Pfeffer (1998) employees will be more committed to the organization when they feel that the organization is living up to its end of the employment contract by being supportive of the employees' growth by providing and fulfilling terms of advancement opportunities.

The present results show clear evidence that employees tended to show greater commitment (affective, continuance, and normative commitment) to the organization when they viewed their jobs as more fulfilling. Individuals who have greater opportunity for development and advancement in their jobs are more likely to have a greater desire and to be more committed to organizational goals, considering that the organization invests in them and recognises their contributions.

This result agrees with a number of other studies in different cultures which have reported a consistent positive relationship between opportunity for development and advancement and commitment (Barrett, 1999; King and King, 1999). One explanation of this finding is that when employees get the opportunity to increase their personal growth, ability, training, and skills, they will be more motivated to do their work correctly, improve performance, and then this variable will be one of the major reasons for higher satisfaction and commitment.

Investigation of this variable among the three selected sectors in Qatar confirms that employees working in private and public sector organizations have higher personal growth and development than other employees working in government sector organizations. This result may be one of the reasons for lower commitment levels of employees working in the government sector. One of the participating respondents (Qatari - Ministry of Education) indicated that satisfaction with training programmes would reduce turnover rate among Qatari employees. He added that a greater degree of autonomy should be provided to employees, together with job responsibilities and the required training.

The results will be useful for Qatari organizations because enhancing personal growth and providing equal opportunities and development for all employees (especially in the government sector) will increase satisfaction and organizational commitment among all employees. Companies need to focus more on training programmes for Qatari and non-Qatari employees because of their significance for overall organizational effectiveness, considering that such a policy would not only provide newly hired employees with the training required for the position but would also clarify job expectations. One respondent of this study felt that on-the-job training should be associated with a policy of job rotation whereby employees can remain relatively flexible, capable, and efficient in all job areas in their specific job. Providing personal growth (such as training programmes) for all employees can make the company more supportive and will have a direct positive effect on employees' commitment to the company's goals and mission.

7.3.2.3 Job Security

Ashford et al. (1989), Morris et al. (1993), Iverson (1996) Rosenblatt and Ruvio (1996), and Yousef (1998) reported that increases in job security lead to greater organizational commitment. This study of Qatari based employees also suggests that providing more job security for Qatari and non-Qatari employees would increase their commitment and decrease their intentions to leave their positions and seek alternative employment outside the organization.

The current study found that job security was weakly to moderately associated with the three OC components (affective, continuance, and normative commitment) suggesting that the more employees felt that their jobs were secure, the more they were committed to the organization. This will be useful for Qatari organizations because enhancing job security and creating a positive work environment could be economical decisions of firms in terms of reducing costs associated with losing employees.

It was expected that Qatari employees would express higher levels of satisfaction with regard to job security because of their jobs' permanent basis. Surprisingly, the result of this study did not provide sufficient evidence that Qatari and non-Qatari employees

are different in scores on job security. This result implies that high organizational commitment of non-Qatari employees is a result of their high satisfaction with job security. A possible explanation of this finding is that non-Qatari employees believed that Qatari employees would not be able to replace them in the near future because of their training, hard work, and professional skills. One of the non-Qatari employees commented, "More delegation and empowerment should be given to us because we have professional skills (expertise) in our fields and no one can do our jobs here better than us". The same finding was found in a similar culture by Bhuian and Islam (1996) who examined the extent to which foreign expatriate employees in Saudi Arabia were satisfied with the security of their jobs and the relationship between satisfaction with job security and commitment. They found that expatriate employees in Saudi Arabia did (albeit not strongly) express that they were satisfied with their job security.

7.3.3 Job Characteristics & Organizational Commitment

This section discusses the degree to which job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, degree of autonomy, feedback on performance) are related to each dimension of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) among employees working in Qatar.

According to Hackman and Oldham (1975), Mathieu and Zajac (1990), Tyagi and Wotruba (1993), and Bhuian & Menguc (2002), when an organization attempts to enrich jobs by providing autonomy, variety, task-identity and feedback in jobs, employees reciprocate by identifying themselves more closely with the organization. In addition, researchers such as Hackman and Oldham (1976) and Chelte & Tausky (1986) emphasized that job-related characteristics can have a significant influence on organizational commitment.

The results of this study in Qatar revealed significant associations between various job characteristics variables and each component of organizational commitment. Only one non-significant result was found, between continuance commitment and degree of autonomy. The findings of this study therefore seem consistent with those of Hunt et al. (1985), who found that among western employees the four "core dimensions" variables of job characteristics (degree of autonomy, skill variety, task identity and feedback on performance) positively influence the level of an employee's

organizational commitment. Ramaswami et al. (1993) and Naumann (1993) provided similar support for the direct influence of autonomy, variety and feedback on organizational commitment.

A possible explanation for finding significant and positive relationships between affective commitment and all of the selected job characteristics may be related to the way these constructs were developed. According to Meyer and Allen (1997) the construct affective commitment is developed in part by employees being motivated for personal fulfilment and thus develops on the basis of psychologically rewarding experiences. It is noteworthy that the development of skill variety, task identity, autonomy, and feedback on performance are constructs that are specifically linked to personal fulfilment. Thus, one might expect these variables to correlate positively with affective commitment.

The construct continuance commitment is developed as a result of action that increases the costs of leaving the organization. Thus, employees will have a weak sense of continuance commitment if they perceive that they have several viable alternatives to leave the organization. Since weak to moderate positive correlations were found for three of the four job characteristics variables (skill variety, task identity, and feedback on performance), it is probable that employees might perceive a moderate sense of commitment organizationally and/or have better opportunity elsewhere.

The research literature finds that the development of the normative commitment construct is based on the aspect of employees forming a psychological contract. The psychological contract can be either transactional (economic exchange) or relational (social exchange) (Rousseau, 1989). Since the nature of normative commitment is created where an employee feels a sense of obligation to the organization, it is plausible that employees can develop a psychological contract via social exchange, thus strengthening a sense of normative commitment. Thus, the study's findings indicating a positive relationship between job characteristics variables and normative commitment may be based on a transactional psychological contract whereby employees could develop normative commitment based on social exchange.

The relationships between job characteristics and organizational commitment will now be discussed:

- Regarding skill variety: this study found only a weak relationship between job variety and the three components of OC, indicating that the greater the job variety, the more committed employees were to the organization. Thus, if employees get the opportunity to employ a variety of job skills, this will increase their job satisfaction and their involvement in their jobs and in turn will enhance their commitment to the organization.

- Regarding degree of autonomy: the results of this study indicate that there was a moderate positive correlation between degree of autonomy and each of affective and normative commitment, indicating that the more autonomy employees gained, the more they were satisfied with their jobs and the higher were their levels of organizational commitment. It is believable that if employees are provided with freedom as to how to do their jobs, then they will be more motivated toward accomplishing organizational goals.

- Regarding task identity: the results of this study found a weak to moderate relationship, indicating that the more employees (Qataris and non-Qataris) believed that their jobs were specified and clear, the more they were committed to the organization.

- Regarding feedback on performance: the results of this study indicate that there was a moderate relationship between this variable and each of affective and normative commitment constructs. Although only a weak relationship was found between this variable and continuance commitment, the present study suggests that employees' commitment is influenced by the degree to which supervisors provide them with positive feedback in regard to their jobs. The more feedback on performance they received, the more employees were committed to their jobs and their organization.

From the above, the study results provide good support for the predictive effect of job characteristics on organizational commitment, indicating that enriching jobs through changing the four core job dimensions may increase employees' organizational commitment. Naumann (1993) highlighted the positive consequences of job

216

characteristics especially in improving job design and accommodating employees with a greater range of competence, skills, more recognition and autonomy. This finding may expand the knowledge of the relationship of job characteristics and OC and may support the importance of job enrichment in enhancing employees' organizational commitment.

Managements of Qatari companies, therefore, should implement clear goals, policies, missions, and specified and clear job responsibilities for all employees to improve OC. According to Hackman et al. (1975) jobs that are perceived as more meaningful, with more responsibility and with more knowledge of working results, are most likely to generate commitment about work. Moreover, managements of Qatari companies should implement a system of keeping the employee informed of his or her success in meeting the company's goals (ongoing feedback). This step is likely to encourage greater organizational commitment among all employees working in these companies.

7.3.4   Overall & Job Satisfaction Variables and Organizational Commitment

This section discusses the results of job satisfaction in a culturally diverse workforce in Qatar by examining overall job satisfaction, as well as satisfaction with the work itself, satisfaction with working conditions, and satisfaction with individual recognition and management behaviour.

Essentially, the findings involving employees in Qatar generally support Porter et al., (1974) and others, who indicated that a number of the same variables which have been found to affect commitment have also been related to job satisfaction.

Several studies have consistently observed significant positive relationships between affective commitment and job satisfaction and negative relationships between continuance commitment and job satisfaction (Ketchand & Strawser, 1998; Hackett et al., 1994; Dunham et al., 1994; Meyer et al. 1993). According to Ketchand and Strawser (2001) these contrasting relationships may be explained by two phenomena. First, individuals who are satisfied with their jobs (high job satisfaction) may develop emotional attachment to the organization (high affective commitment) and not feel "bound" to the organization by a lack of alternatives or the existence of organization investments (low continuance commitment). In contrast, individuals who do feel

bound to the organization (high continuance commitment) may be relatively dissatisfied with their jobs (low job satisfaction) and remain with the organization only because of a lack of alternatives or the existence of organizational investments.

Among the variables that have been found to be associated with OC was overall job satisfaction. The findings demonstrated a positive significant relationship between this variable and OC, indicating that the more the employees were satisfied with their jobs, the higher was their level of commitment to the organization. The finding (hypothesis fourteen (A)) of a positive relationship between affective commitment and overall job satisfaction is consistent with the results of other researchers (Baird, Zelin & Marxen (1998), and O'Driscoll & Randall (1999)). In the same way Mathieu & Zajac (1990) found an average corrected correlation between OC and job satisfaction of $r = 0.53$. In this study, the magnitude of the correlation coefficient between overall job satisfaction and affective commitment was also $r = 0.53$, indicating that the more employees were satisfied with their jobs, the higher was their level of affective commitment to the organization.

This study found another significant strong positive correlation between normative commitment and overall job satisfaction ($r = 0.50$). This finding is consistent with research by Morrison (1994) reporting a positive and significant correlation between normative commitment and job satisfaction ($r = .32$). Thus, there is evidence that employees possess a sense of obligation to the organization and this would have a positive effect in the form of job satisfaction. Finally, regarding continuance commitment, contrary to the research hypothesis and to the findings of other researchers (i.e. Cohen and Cohen (1983), Meyer et al. (1993), and Hackett et al. (1994)), the results indicated a weak positive correlation, rather than negative correlation, between overall job satisfaction and continuance commitment.

The results of the three selected variables of job satisfaction (satisfaction with intrinsic job factors, satisfaction with working conditions, and satisfaction with individual recognition and management behaviour) and each component of organizational commitment are explained next.

218

As expected, the results indicated the three selected job satisfaction facets are more positively related to affective and normative commitment than to continuance commitment. The strongest correlation was found between affective commitment and satisfaction with individual recognition and management behaviour (this variable contains items such as chance of promotion, attention to employee's suggestions, relations between management & workers, and rate of pay) indicating that more satisfaction with this variable causes higher levels of affective commitment. Furthermore, the findings strongly confirmed that higher amounts of intrinsic job satisfaction (this variable contains items regarding employees' freedom to choose their own method of working, responsibility they were given, and opportunities to use their abilities in their work), and better working conditions are likely to produce higher levels of affective and normative commitment. Thus, employees with a strong sense of affective and normative commitment would be more satisfied with the nature of their work, and exhibit a high degree of work effort. Regarding continuance commitment, the results confirmed significant relationships but with weak positive correlations to the three job satisfaction components.

This study can conclude here that almost the same positive and significant relationships found between affective commitment and the job satisfaction variables, were also found with normative commitment. Although previous research has demonstrated that the commitment constructs are psychometrically independent of each other, this research suggests that feelings of attachment and sense of obligation to an organization may not be independent of each other (as reported by Hackett et al., 1994, Schneider, 2003).

From the questions asked in this study to assess the selected job satisfaction variables, the research findings indicated that:

- Most employees working in Qatar show a tendency to prefer work that is mentally challenging, varied, and interesting. However, jobs that are too stressful or exhausting are often found to be negatively associated with job satisfaction.

- Similarly, a positive and comfortable work environment, which facilitates the work objectives, is likely to result in a higher level of organizational commitment. Against this, a work environment that is negative and uncomfortable (employees

219

work at an unrelenting pace for long hours, respond quickly to most stimuli, spend little time with any one subordinate, and carry out many tasks superficially) is likely to lead to lower organizational commitment levels for employees working in Qatar.

- Supervisors who establish a positive relationship with their employees, and provide them with clear information about their performance, are likely to result in a higher level of organizational commitment.

- Regarding the work setting, the most important factor appears to be the reward system – how the organization distributes rewards such as pay and promotion and certain procedures and policies. Thus, organizational commitment is enhanced by reward systems that employees view as fair and reasonable, but it is reduced by those they see as unfair and unreasonable.

- Supportive relationships with co-workers and being able to work in a co-operative and friendly atmosphere are essential ingredients for positive attitudes towards the job and effective functioning on the job.

Generally, the results of this study add confirmatory evidence by finding a significant positive correlation between job satisfaction facets and organizational commitment and suggest that the more employees were satisfied with these components, the more committed they were to the organization.

7.4   Discussion of the Findings of Consequences of OC

This section discusses the results of tests seeking to identify a relationship between organizational commitment and employees' acceptance of organizational changes and turnover intentions in Qatar's workforce. In general, the relationships between organizational commitment components and both acceptance of organizational changes and turnover intentions appear to be statistically significant and in line with the general observation (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Iverson, 1996; Iverson and Buttigig, 1999).

Regarding acceptance of organizational changes: The results in Qatar support the idea that successively higher amounts commitment are likely to produce higher levels of

acceptance of organizational changes. Even with unexpected positive relationship between acceptance of organizational changes and continuance commitment, the findings of this study indicate that, as organizational commitment increased in Qatari companies, employees were more likely to accept organizational changes. Iverson (1996) commented that high commitment level is thought to be an important factor in the successful conclusion of organizational change programmes. Since committed employees have concern for the success of their employing organization, it is suggested that management of an organization give them some responsibilities. This will facilitate organizational change policies, as employees are more likely to accept organizational change. This is very important because resistance is an obstacle to organizational success.

Regarding turnover intentions: the study implied that it is very important for any organization to retain its qualified and skilled employees, since it has invested a great deal of time and money in these employees, and therefore, it is necessary to lower turnover rates.

Near (1989) assessed turnover intentions among employees at a large bank in Japan and argued that the question is not why employees become committed to their firm, but why they continue to demonstrate commitment by staying with their employing organization. He found that the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to leave is influenced by employees' satisfaction, employees' opportunities, and employees' expectations of their jobs.

The results showed strong negative correlation coefficients between organizational commitment components and intent to leave. Thus, as organizational commitment components decrease, employees working in three selected sectors in Qatar are more likely to be willing to exit from the organization. On the other hand, as organizational commitment increases, employees are more likely to be willing to stay. This strong relationship is to be expected, since there is a massive amount of literature supporting the negative relationship between commitment components and intent to leave. For example, Katerberg & Blau (1993) and Allen & Meyer (1996) found that a decrease in organizational commitment leads to intentions of quitting. Similar results were shown in Saudi Arabia by Ben-baker et al. (1994) who reported that OC has shown

221

greater significant association with turnover than job satisfaction, and concluded that the work environment of Saudi organizations has an effect on the relationship between OC and turnover.

The findings of this study also revealed that normative commitment was more negatively related to turnover intentions than affective commitment. This kind of strong relationship between normative commitment and turnover intentions was not expected, since there is a vast amount of literature supporting a stronger negative relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions than other commitment components (i.e. Meyer et al. (1993), Ketchand and Strawser (1998), Dunham et al. (1994), and Mathieu & Zajac (1990)).

As mentioned before, although previous research has demonstrated that the commitment constructs are psychometrically independent of each other, studies have revealed stronger than expected correlations between affective and normative commitment (Schneider, 2003). The same thing happened with the turnover intentions variable, with almost the same negative results for both of affective and normative commitment. This result suggests that feelings of attachment and sense of obligation to an organization may not be independent of each other.

From the above results, in Qatar, it is expected that increasing OC levels among employees would lead to lower turnover intentions and more acceptance of organizational changes. In addition, as OC plays as essential role in the goal achievement, innovation, and stability of an organization, in Qatar, management of any organization should try its best to increase employees' levels of commitment through creating an appropriate atmosphere because consequences to an organization of employees with low commitment can be costly (higher turnover intentions and more resistance to organizational changes) and therefore deserve the attention of the management. In addition, committed employees are more likely to engage in "extra-role" behaviours, such as creativity, that can increase the organization's competitiveness.

7.5   Chapter Summary

The findings of the methods used in this study regarding the determinants of organizational commitment of employees in Qatar, in general, are consistent with the results of previous studies.

First, regarding employment sectors, this research found that that both public and private sector employees had higher affective and normative commitment levels than government sector employees. Some possible reasons of this result are: bureaucracy, low resources in this sector, differences in motivational factors (such as reward, compensation, employee empowerment, growth, and involvement), availability of alternatives elsewhere, and the nature of employment in the government sector organizations.

Second, the tests of the relationships between personal characteristics and OC components indicated that most of these characteristics are significantly related with affective and normative commitment. From findings regarding personal characteristics this study can conclude that:

1. Personal variables such as age and organizational tenure were found to be supportive of the exchange theory or perspective of organizational commitment. For example, it was found that younger employees were less committed to their organizations than older employees. As with age, commitment was found to be significantly higher for employees with a longer period of service compared with employees with a shorter length of service. However, educational level was positively related to commitment, that is, as educational level increased, employees were more likely to be committed and willing to stay with their organizations. Other personal variables were also found to have significant associations with employees' organizational commitment, such as marital status, gender, and type of employment.

2. Almost the same (positive) significant relationships found between affective commitment and personal variables, were also found with normative commitment. Although previous research has demonstrated that the commitment constructs are psychometrically independent of each other, studies have revealed stronger than expected correlations between affective and normative commitment. Thus,

research suggests that feelings of attachment and sense of obligation to an organization may not be independent of each other (Hacket et al., 1994; Schneider, 2003).

3. Two unusual results were found between personal characteristics and OC components. The relationships between educational level and OC components were positive and there was no relationship between job level of employees and OC components. In addition, no relationships or only a weak relationship (positive or negative) was found between continuance commitment and most of the selected personal characteristics. Thus, further investigation in Qatar is suggested in the future.

Third, the relationships between selected organizational characteristics and organizational commitment components appear to be statistically significant and in line with the general observation. Thus, lack of equity on paying salary and fringe benefits, insufficient personal growth and development, and lack of job security were stated as possible reasons for low commitment in this study.

Turning now to the job characteristics, as predicted, the following variables are statistically significantly associated with organizational commitment components: feedback on performance, skill variety, autonomy, and task identity. Thus, job routine, lack of autonomy in work, lack of task identity, and insufficient feedback on performance were stated as possible reasons for low commitment in this study.

Fifth, even with the unexpected relationship between overall job satisfaction and continuance commitment, this study also found that higher amounts of selected job satisfaction variables (overall job satisfaction, intrinsic job satisfaction, satisfaction with working conditions, and satisfaction with individual recognition and management behaviour) do have significant influence on organizational commitment levels among employees working in Qatar.

Finally, concerning consequences of organizational commitment, this study found that increasing organizational commitment levels among employees would lead to higher acceptance of organizational changes and lower turnover intentions.

Chapter Eight

Conclusions & Recommendations

8.1　Introduction

This chapter is devoted to summarizing the study, highlighting its findings, discussing its implications and overall contribution. It begins by presenting the important findings of this research. Then, the implications and recommendations of the study are presented. Finally, the limitations of this study are evaluated and guidance presented for future research.

8.2　Summary of the Study Findings

The results of the present study provide a basis for examining work attitudes and the applicability of the Western theories and approaches to OC from a cross-cultural Arab management perspective. The study examined the effect of several antecedents of OC and two consequences of organizational commitment. Summary of the significant antecedents and consequences of affective, continuance, and normative commitment in Qatar's workforce are presented in Figures 8.1, 8.2, and 8.3. There is only one direct negative relationship between the three components of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. However, the rest of the relationships between the three components of organizational commitment and other significant variables are positive.

There are several important conclusions that can be drawn from the findings of this study:

1. The findings of the study, in general, emphasized the importance of maintaining and improving affective, continuance, and normative commitment, job satisfaction in terms of possibility for growth, work itself, recognition and achievement, and working conditions in addressing turnover intentions among employees working in Qatar. The study suggests that the management and relevant authorities should consider those aspects of organizational commitment and job satisfaction in considering problems of turnover intentions among employees working in Qatar.

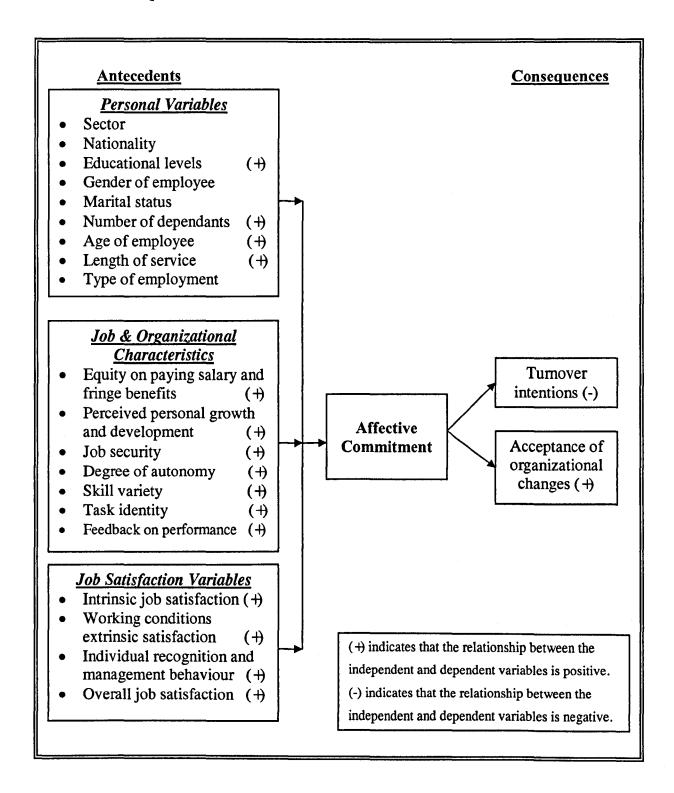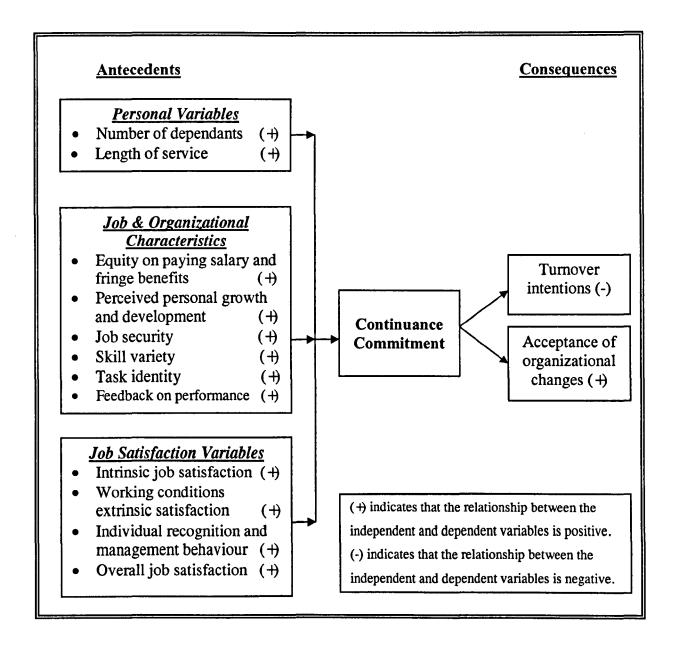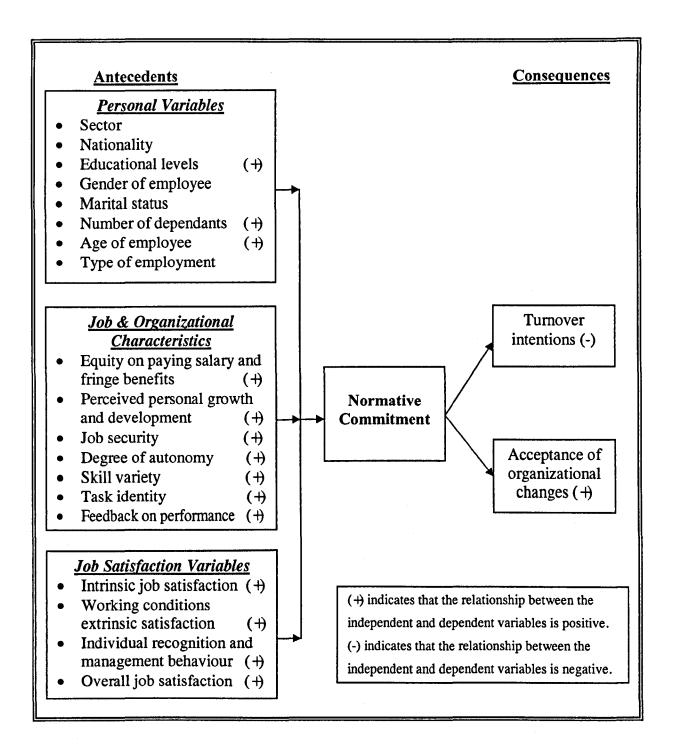Figure 8.1: A Summary of Significant Antecedents and Consequences of Affective Commitment in Qatar's Workforce.

Antecedents   **Consequences**

Personal Variables
- Sector
- Nationality
- Educational levels   (+)
- Gender of employee
- Marital status
- Number of dependants   (+)
- Age of employee   (+)
- Length of service   (+)
- Type of employment

Job & Organizational Characteristics
- Equity on paying salary and fringe benefits   (+)
- Perceived personal growth and development   (+)
- Job security   (+)
- Degree of autonomy   (+)
- Skill variety   (+)
- Task identity   (+)
- Feedback on performance   (+)

Job Satisfaction Variables
- Intrinsic job satisfaction (+)
- Working conditions extrinsic satisfaction   (+)
- Individual recognition and management behaviour   (+)
- Overall job satisfaction   (+)

Affective Commitment

Turnover intentions (-)

Acceptance of organizational changes (+)

(+) indicates that the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is positive.
(-) indicates that the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is negative.

227

Figure 8.2: A Summary of Significant Antecedents and Consequences of Continuance Commitment in Qatar's Workforce.

Antecedents   **Consequences**

Personal Variables
- Number of dependants   (+)
- Length of service   (+)

Job & Organizational Characteristics
- Equity on paying salary and fringe benefits   (+)
- Perceived personal growth and development   (+)
- Job security   (+)
- Skill variety   (+)
- Task identity   (+)
- Feedback on performance (+)

Continuance Commitment

Turnover intentions (-)

Acceptance of organizational changes (+)

Job Satisfaction Variables
- Intrinsic job satisfaction (+)
- Working conditions extrinsic satisfaction   (+)
- Individual recognition and management behaviour (+)
- Overall job satisfaction (+)

(+) indicates that the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is positive.
(-) indicates that the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is negative.

228

Figure 8.3: A Summary of Significant Antecedents and Consequences of Normative Commitment in Qatar's Workforce.

Antecedents

Personal Variables
- Sector
- Nationality
- Educational levels   (+)
- Gender of employee
- Marital status
- Number of dependants   (+)
- Age of employee   (+)
- Type of employment

Job & Organizational Characteristics
- Equity on paying salary and fringe benefits   (+)
- Perceived personal growth and development   (+)
- Job security   (+)
- Degree of autonomy   (+)
- Skill variety   (+)
- Task identity   (+)
- Feedback on performance   (+)

Job Satisfaction Variables
- Intrinsic job satisfaction   (+)
- Working conditions extrinsic satisfaction   (+)
- Individual recognition and management behaviour   (+)
- Overall job satisfaction   (+)

Consequences

Normative Commitment

Turnover intentions (-)

Acceptance of organizational changes (+)

(+) indicates that the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is positive.
(-) indicates that the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is negative.

2. Regarding personal characteristics, this research found that most personal variables were statistically significantly related to affective and normative commitment. However, almost all demographic variables were non-significantly related to continuance commitment. The findings showed that there were significant associations between the gender and marital status of employees

working in public, private, and government organizations and organizational commitment. This study found that male and married respondents have higher affective and normative commitment than female and unmarried employees. In addition, it was found that OC increases with age and organizational tenure. Employees in higher age categories were more affectively and normatively committed to the organization than were younger ones, and employees with less than 14 years of seniority were less committed than those with more years of employment. Furthermore, Qatari employees showed slightly lower levels of commitment to their organizations than did their non-Qatari counterparts. In addition, the findings of this study showed that employees without fixed-term contracts or with no contracts scored lower levels of commitment (affective and normative commitment) than those with fixed term contracts. Finally, regarding employees' sectors, as expected, both public and private sector employees working in Qatar showed higher affective and normative commitment levels than government sector employees. However, this study does not show that any particular sector is much better than the others.

3. Regarding organizational characteristics, the results provided moderate to strong support for the relationship between organizational characteristics and organizational commitment in the Arab organizational setting. The results highlighted the importance of organizational justice (equity on paying salary and fringe benefits), job security, and personal growth and development. Thus, the study indicates that organizations need to review their policies and introduce a supportive work environment for employees by adopting fair promotional opportunities, job security for all employees, and employing satisfactory performance evaluation criteria.

4. The present research also highlighted the importance of job characteristics, particularly task identity, skill variety, and feedback on performance, which all affect organizational commitment. A statistically and slightly significant relationship was found between affective commitment and all of the job characteristics variables; the same relationship was found with normative commitment. The findings for continuance commitment were found to be mixed. In general, the research results indicated that employees with more skill variety,

degree of autonomy, task identity, and feedback on performance exhibited higher levels of organizational commitment than other employees.

5. Regarding job satisfaction variables, the results strongly suggest that the four selected job satisfaction variables (intrinsic job satisfaction, working conditions, individual recognition and management behaviour, and overall job satisfaction) enhance organizational commitment.

6. Regarding the consequences of organizational commitment, mostly as expected, this research found that all employees with higher levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment showed lower levels of turnover intentions and displayed greater acceptance of organizational changes.

7. The results of investigation of different antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment suggest that organizations need to focus more on obtaining affective and normative commitment rather than other components based on cost.

The responses to the open-ended question revealed several important suggestions that can be followed by management of companies to increase organizational commitment. Participants of this study recommended that there should not be a disparity in the salary structure between those with equal qualification when the nationality differs. Participants added that the relationship between management and their employees needs to be more co-operative and positive. So, managements in Qatar should:

- Provide employees with more cross-cultural training especially for expatriate employees (non-Qatari);
- Avoid and solve any overlapping of job responsibilities, role conflict, and role ambiguity;
- Give more appreciation of employees' work and acknowledgement of their skills;
- Establish fair promotion and performance evaluation criteria;
- Introduce a supportive organizational culture and climate that enhance organizational commitment;

- Provide employees with better organizational integration and work adjustment;

- Establish clear strategic visions and organizational goals;

- Introduce a supportive organizational trust that enhances organizational commitment;

- Provide employees with greater control and influence over their work;

- Give employees more participation in the decision making process and goal setting in their career development programmes; and,

- Employ teamwork and work group approaches to overcome any obstacles facing the localisation efforts and increase organizational effectiveness.

From all of the above findings and according to the participating respondents, this study can conclude that lower levels of job security, fewer promotional opportunities, poor supervision, lower levels of member integration, lower equity, lower levels instrumental communication, routine work, a lower degrees of autonomy, lower amounts of feedback on performance, lower amounts of pay, and a greater number of alternative roles in the environment produce a decrease in organizational commitment.

8.3   Implications of the Study

The major findings of the study have important implications for both organization theory and the practice of management. The relationships between organizational commitment and its antecedents and consequences can help theoreticians and practitioners in several areas.

8.3.1   Theoretical and Measurement Implications

The outcomes of this thesis make some useful contributions to theorizing about organizational commitment components, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and other topics. For example, the study builds upon and extends previous theory of organizational commitment because this is the first study of its kind in Qatar and in the Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC) countries. This contributes to a move towards a global theory of OC which may be helpful for organizations that employ many different nationalities. A global perspective of organizational commitment is urgently needed, as nations move closer and many companies think internationally. Increasing

theoretical agreement as to the value of concepts of organizational commitment in explaining and predicting work-based employee commitment across multiple cultures has clear benefits.

This study also contributes to the field of organizational development, since strategies of change need committed employees to implement them successfully. Organizational commitment may explain employees' resistance to change; thus, it can contribute to a theory that links organizational commitment with organizational development.

This study has also added new predictors of commitment to the already available literature on organizational commitment antecedents and consequences. For example, this study was among the first Middle East studies to explore definitively the role of marital status, type of employment, employees' working sector, nationality, and number of dependants in predicting commitment.

This study can help policymakers to understand the differences between employees on the basis of personal, job, and organizational characteristics so researchers and managers can develop more knowledge about a diverse workforce in an organization. Thus, the findings of this research are useful for human resources, personnel, and strategic management disciplines.

Closely related to the theoretical implications of the present study are the methodological and measurement implications. Measurement instruments have to be constructed according to the specific characteristics of the job under investigation and take account of possible differences in professional work settings and national cultures.

Although there is an extensive literature on the determinants of attitudinal commitment, there have been relatively few empirical investigations examining the antecedents of normative and continuance commitment (especially in the Middle East studies). Thus, this study highlights the efficacy of examining different types of organizational commitment, affective, continuance, and normative in this case, since their antecedents and consequences are likely to be quite different. In the present research, the reliability and validity of the scales and sub-scales were also

demonstrated to be acceptable in an Arab culture. The same scales could therefore be used with some confidence in the future research of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and related issues, among employees in Qatar. Not only that, but these scales can be used in other Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC) countries, which all have similar work settings in their organizations and companies to the Qatari ones.

8.3.2   Implications for Practice

As no previous attempt has been made to assess the organizational commitment of employees working in the three sectors in Qatar, this study is the first to appear of this type. It offers new understanding of the factors influencing employees' organizational commitment, which will assist policymakers to increase overall commitment levels for all employees to achieve sustainable success and improvement in all organizations in the country.

This study suggests that, when jobs are enriched, job satisfaction and organizational commitment may increase and turnover may be reduced. Modifying current jobs to make them more complex and challenging could be an effective method to increase both attachment and productivity and tackle the turnover problem. Managers can focus on these areas to increase the levels of commitment to the organization. To initiate and install changes, the following steps could be taken in any organization in Qatar. First, conduct interviews with employees to identify whether or which of the four core job dimensions are problematic (Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987). Second, implement job enrichment functions including forming natural work units, combining tasks, focusing on distributing work in a logical way, establishing client relationships, vertical loading and opening feedback channels (Hackman et al., 1975). These functions can help increase task identity, feedback on performance, skill variety, and employees' feelings of ownership (autonomy). Third, continuously involve employees in work redesign. Employees' opinions on the magnitude and direction of the job design should also always be considered.

Because job satisfaction and organizational culture were strong predictors of commitment, interventions aimed at increasing job satisfaction and changing organizational culture could be most effective in producing higher levels of organizational commitment. Such interventions should concentrate on bolstering

employee interpersonal skills, building group support, and fostering meaningful participation in both planning and decision making (Harahan et al., 2003). Research suggests that good interpersonal skills and participation in decision making encourage teamwork, which in turn increases employees' commitment and reduce turnover (Banaszak-Holl & Mines, 1996). Furthermore, efforts to increase commitment should focus on creating an organizational culture that values and respects employees. Such efforts, for example, might include the creation of peer support groups, mentoring programmes, worker appreciation events, competitive wages, and benefit packages.

Finally, the findings offer practitioners the opportunity to increase the well being of organizations and of employees in their organizations. Commitment initiatives in organizations are often retention initiatives. However, focusing solely on retention can lead to some adverse effects, such as expending a great deal of resources on workers who are not motivated to work hard. The present research prompts a very different approach to workforce development. What if organizational commitment was fostered independent of retention, for example? This might yield interesting and productive approaches.

8.4   Recommendations

The researcher hopes that the present study will encourage more studies of organizational commitment to be conducted in Qatar and in other parts of the Middle East region. It furthers understanding of this construct by identifying and testing several variables in a unique international setting. The primary focus of this study has been the identification of the commitment levels as well as investigation antecedents and consequences of commitment of employees working in three selected sectors in Qatar. The research findings suggested that some changes are needed to increase commitment levels for employees working in Qatari organizations. The following recommendations are therefore offered which, if implemented, would improve commitment levels for all employees working in Qatar.

1. Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that management of Qatari companies should focus on implementing equitable human resource policies and practices that stress equity, organizational fairness and equal opportunities for all Qatari and non-Qatari employees. The study suggests that an organizational

culture that promotes equity and organizational fairness would improve work performance motivation and the effectiveness and efficiency of the organization. The more employees perceive the human resource policies as fair and equitable, the more they will be committed and loyal to the organization. Thus, unfairness in payment of salary and fringe benefits, and lifetime employment contracts with security of tenure for Qatari employees but not non-Qatari (especially in the government sector) could lead to negative consequences, such as lower involvement and a weak sense of obligation to the organization and as a result could lead to lower levels of commitment and attachment to the Qatari companies. Additionally, this study recommends that the organizations should consider establishing a clear system of promotion that is based on work performance and productivity, not seniority, nationality, interpersonal relations or connections.

2. Management of companies should conduct an analysis of job content. This analysis should focus on an evaluation of job requirements, task similarity, and job repetition. The analysis may indicate a need to restructure jobs or reassign tasks to avoid repetitiveness in carrying out the work. To the extent that employees value wide variety of tasks, equipment and procedures, designing jobs with such qualities should enhance organizational commitment. It is also recommended that commitment to the job and the organization would be promoted when responsibilities are clarified and directed toward accomplishing specific work objectives. Therefore, clear specification of jobs and role relationships at all levels of employment is important so all employees know exactly what their job responsibilities are.

3. According to the findings of this research (hypothesis one (B)), employees working in the public and private sector organizations have better organizational commitment levels than government sector employees. It is therefore necessary that organizations in the government sector assess the competitiveness of their wages, benefits, and other factors in the relevant labour market. To increase OC of employees working in the government sector, management of Qatari companies should:

- Reduce the bureaucratic culture of the organizations and implement a more flexible organizational structure. For example, it is possible to develop a plan whereby high performers could move upwards or horizontally at a faster pace than average performers.

- Enhance personal growth and provide equal opportunities and development for all employees working in this sector (this point stem directly from the research findings of hypothesis eleven (B)).

- Re-evaluate the salary scales for all employees working in this sector (nineteen respondents to the open-ended question from government sector organizations expressed dissatisfaction with their salaries and fringe benefits).

- Give careful attention to some other important factors such as job security, promotion, job description, individual involvement, equity, training and supervision.

4. Management should implement a system of keeping the employee informed of his or her success in meeting the company's goals (ongoing feedback). One purpose of this evaluation would be to inform employees of what the organization desires from them in order to improve their present or future performance. This approach assumes that giving employees accurate and complete information concerning their performance will result in increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

5. Providing personal growth and development (such as training programmes as suggested by respondents of open-end question) for all Qatari and non-Qatari employees at all levels can make the company more supportive and will have a direct positive effect on employees' commitment to the company's goals and mission. According to Al-Kuwari (1998) only 20% of all government sector organizations in Qatar provided training programmes for their employees. The training programmes should help employees to design and implement policies, practices, and programmes for effectively dealing with their jobs and their problems; and to anticipate further changes required to manage their work effectively.

6. According to the research findings, Qatari employees were less committed to their companies than non-Qatari employees. OC should be related to well-designed criteria and practices, and should be incorporated into motivation and control systems. To increase OC of Qatari employees, management of Qatari companies should:

   - Assess training needs, provide sufficient on-the-job training programmes, and establish a professional programme that emphasises a more supportive climate for personal growth.

   - Motivate Qatari employees and enhance their commitment to the firm by providing more monetary and non-monetary work rewards, such as offering merit increases connected with the outcomes of the annual performance appraisal system.

   - Implement an effective and fair recruitment strategy that highlights the appointment of nationals for senior positions based on merit, not on personal relations and connections.

7. The data presented in previous chapters indicates that employees with short lengths of service have lower levels of commitment than employees with longer lengths of service. It is recommended that the Qatari organizations should give more attention to the earlier stages of employees' employment. One technique that will assist in increasing employees' commitment to the organization is the implementation of a clear, realistic, job review for new employees, which will ensure that their expectations in regard to aspects of their employment are clarified, and it will also outline employees' roles in their departments and how they contribute to the general goals and missions of their organizations. For example, the implementation of a clear adjustment programme for new expatriates will create a positive attitude toward the organization from the beginning. The socialisation programmes should inform expatriates about the specific goals, missions, policies, achievement and values of the organizations. This would enable the personnel managers more readily to identify potential problem areas before they cause any lower commitment. It is thought that such employee

orientation programmes would increase commitment levels among newcomers to these organizations.

8. The present study recommends that organizations can enhance OC through improving organizational climate by providing employees with more authority in doing their tasks and allowing them to participate in their departments' goal setting. One of the suggestions of employees who took part in the present research stated that "there should be less bureaucracy, more delegation and empowerment". Prior studies have shown that employees who participated in setting their own goals performed better and were motivated and committed to carrying out their tasks' objectives (Makin et al., 1996). Hence, empowering and providing employees with opportunities to participate in formulating goals and decisions that concern their employment will have a positive effect on their commitment to the organization. Hoy and Sousa (1984) reported that employees were more committed to accomplishing the organizational goals when they had greater opportunities to participate in the decision making process. Organizations should also entitle non-Qataris to participate in the decision-making process and department goal-setting by conveying a supportive organizational climate that encourages involvement.

9. Some of the participating employees felt that they were not informed of the organization's future plans, projects and programmes and what major tactics are being used to achieve these plans. Other participating employees argued in the open-ended question that they did not have a clear idea of how their departments' roles and activities contributed to the overall goals and objectives of the organizations. Thus, the final recommendation would be a more systematic effort to establish clear organization communication strategies between all employees and their employers. The clarity of organizational goals is seen to be an essential factor in enhancing employees' commitment and organizational effectiveness. Clarifying organizational mandates and missions to employees will provide better performance indicators and will help in identifying the organization's general long-term strategies. It is also important to link departmental purposes with the

general goals of the organization to increase efficiency and organizational commitment.

8.5   Limitations of the Study

Although the research findings raise important considerations in the management of commitment, there are a number of limitations that should be noted.

A major limitation of the study design is that it depends largely on data which reflect the socioeconomic conditions as well as decisions of those included in the sample at the time of the survey. Employees and organizations are always changing; thus, follow up investigations would enable comparison of organizations and employees over time.

A second limitation is that the generalizability of these results may be limited because this research was conducted in a few companies of each of the public, private, and government sectors in Qatar. Generalizability of results also remains limited to this Qatari context, and extension to other environments may be misleading. Having said that, however, similar forces of opening markets due to national commitments to free trade (e.g. WTO) and nationalization goals are putting pressure on all Arabian Gulf countries to manage complex processes like the one described here for Qatar. So, the interest in this research is far reaching.

Because the researcher of this study used several instruments developed in North America and other European cultures, this transfer of scales might be seen as a possible limitation. For example, the researcher used the three dimension scales of OC developed by Meyer et al. (1993) and Job Classification Index developed by Sims, Szilagyi, and Keller (1976), developed in North America, to measure the four selected variables of job characteristics. In addition, the researcher used Overall Job Satisfaction questionnaire developed by Warr, Cook, Wall (1979) that came British context. These scales explained commitment, job satisfaction, security, and other investigated topics according to the developers' view of commitment, satisfaction, and other topics in their geographical regions. Cultural differences between Arab and Western societies, such as those identified by Hofstede (1980 and 1993) may produce

different conceptions of OC, different job characteristics, and different expectations of work, with implications for job satisfaction. This raises questions as to the validity of instruments transferred from one context to another. Ideally, the choice of scales to be used in research, in order to be effective, should be based on the ground realities of the environment in which the research is being conducted. However, no corresponding instruments exist in Qatar or any other Middle-Eastern countries. Thus, it was necessary to choose the most appropriate instruments for the measurement of the investigated topics, based on evidence of previous usage in the Middle East region and in other similar cultures and the decision made for this research are justified in chapters three and four.

Lastly, the data were all self- reported; the potential biases inherent in this research design cannot be ruled out. The sampling method may have introduced a level of undetected biases as well.

8.6   Directions for Future Research

The findings from the questionnaire and an open-ended question show that several factors affect OC of employees working in Qatar. The researcher hopes that the present study will encourage more research to be conducted on the Arab world's organizations. Thus, several areas worthy of future research can be recommended here.

This study can serve as the basis for additional research in Qatar. Other sectors should be studied using the same framework developed and used in this study in order to determine if the proposed framework is applicable elsewhere, and to determine whether the results of this research can be extended to other countries with similar cultural and socioeconomic infrastructure.

Second, this study compared and assessed OC of Qatari and non-Qatari employees in the public, private and government sector organizations in Qatar. Division of the non Qatari (expatriate) group into more specific nationalities such as European, Asian, American, and others in different organizational settings may also provide additional findings for further understanding of cross-cultural organizational factors influencing commitment.

Third, this study has been conducted at only one point of time. Another field visit would enable comparison of the employees' OC levels over time. Thus, future research should employ experimental or longitudinal designs with objective performance and effectiveness outcomes in order to establish causality and address the problem of common method variance. Longitudinal design would also allow for tests of reciprocal relationships between dimensions such as affective commitment and continuance commitment. Additionally, to improve understanding of commitment and turnover, future longitudinal studies should examine predictors of organizational commitment separately for long stay and short stay employees.

Fourth, because comparisons would provide a helpful basis for assessing the similarities and differences in aspects of employees' commitment and organizational effectiveness, it is believed that this kind of comparative study dealing with organizational commitment issues needs to be expanded further, with more antecedents and consequences of OC, in the future. For example, future research could seek additional variables to those used in this study in an attempt to determine the effect of these variables on organizational commitment. Some of the additional variables that could be investigated are job performance, organizational citizenship behaviour, work motivation, salaries, and size of organizations.

Fifth, regarding the scales used in this study, it is important that research on the integrity and structure of the scales themselves be continued. More investigators need to carry out both validity and reliability analysis in order to continue to improve the scales, to ensure that their relevance is maintained, and to establish national norms.

Sixth, the consequences of commitment need careful attention in future research. Such studies may indicate that in many organizations it might not be cost-effective to adopt vigorous programmes to improve commitment. Hopefully, this point will convince the companies that consequences of OC are an important issue – one worthy of careful management attention.

Finally, this study does not test the effect of heterogeneity (difference in objectives and interests) of employees. The study respondents are culturally not homogeneous

and thus ethnic and cultural differences should be examined separately and included as an independent variable in future research.

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257

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX (A)

Items Used in Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) according to Mowday et al. (1982):

1. I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that expected in order to help this organization to be successful.

2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.

3. I feel little loyalty to this organization.

4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.

5. I find my values and the organization's values are very similar.

6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.

7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.

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

9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.

10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I enjoyed.

11. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.

12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.

13. I really care about the fate of this organization.

14. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.

Items Used to Measure British Organizational Commitment Scale (BOCS) (Cook and Wall, 1980):

1. I am quite proud to be able to tell people that I work for organization.
2. I feel myself to be part of organization.
3. I would not recommended a close friend to join organization (Reversed).
4. To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of the organization would please me.
5. In my work I like to feel that I am making some effort not just for myself but for the organization as well.
6. I am not willing to put myself out just to help the organization (Reversed).
7. Even if organization were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer.
8. The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job.
9. I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good (Reversed).

Items 1-3 tap Identification, 4-6 tap involvement, 7-9 tap loyalty.

APPENDIX (C)

Items Used to Measure Dimensions of Organizational Commitment According to Original Scales Developed by Allen & Meyer's (1990) & Revised Scales (Meyer et al., 1993):

1) *Affective Commitment:*

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it. (A)
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
4. I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (A)
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at any organization. (R)
6. I do not feel like "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)

2) *Continuance Commitment:*

1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (A) (R)
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization in the near future. (A) (R)
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
6. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
7. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here. (A)

9. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere. B

3) _Normative Commitment (Original)_

1. I think that people these days move from company to company too often. (A)
2. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization. (A) (R)
3. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me. (A) (R)
4. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain. (A)
5. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization. (A)
6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization. (A)
7. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers. (A)
8. I do not think that wanting to be a "company man" or "company women is sensible anymore. (A) (R)

3) _Normative Commitment (Revised)_

1. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)
2. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
3. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
4. This organization deserves my loyalty.
5. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
6. I owe a great deal to my organization.

R indicates a reverse-keyed item (scoring is revised). The original scales comprise 8 items each (Allen & Meyer, 1990); the revised scales each comprise 6 items (Meyer et al., 1993). For administration, items from the three scales are mixed to form a 24- (original) or 18-(revised) item series.
A item included in the original but not in the revised scales.
B item included in the revised Continuance Scale only.

Invitation to Participate in a Research Study Investigating Organizational Commitment in Qatar's Workforce

The purpose of this study is to gain knowledge about organizational commitment and job satisfaction in Qatar's public & private organizations. Research of this type depends a great deal on the responses of eminent people like you. I am, therefore, approaching you with a questionnaire and a request for your kind cooperation in this regard.

The survey should not take more than twenty-five minutes to complete and there are no right or wrong answers. The information collected from you will be treated strictly confidentially. If you would be willing to be interviewed to talk about organizational commitment, job satisfaction and other related issues, please do not hesitate to put your name, organization, and your telephone number below.

Name (optional): _____ Tel (optional): _____

Organization (optional): _____

The information given by you will not be used for any purpose other than that required for my personal research. Results of this study may be published and/or used for future scientific research and results can be made available upon request. Requests should be sent via e-mail to balesmael_@hotmail.com

Your participation is greatly appreciated, thank you

Bader Al-Esmael

The University of Hull- United Kingdom

University of Qatar- State of Qatar

(1) Personal Questions: Please check the appropriate answer for each of the following:

(1-1) Nationality:

      Qatari _____   Non-Qatari (Specify): _____

(1-2) Gender:

      Male _____   Female _____

(1-3) Marital status:

      Married _____   Single _____   Other _____

(1-4) Number of Dependents: (_____)

(1-5) Age: (_____) Years old

(1-6) Level of education:

      High school diploma _____   College degree _____

      Postgraduate degree _____

(1-7) Sector you are working in:

      Government Sector _____   Public Sector _____   Private Sector _____

(1-8) Employment type:

      Contract with limited time _____

      Contract without limited time or No-contract _____

(1-9) How long have you been working in this organization? (_____) Years

(2) Please check the appropriate box for each of the following series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the organization for which they work, bearing in mind the following abbreviations:

(1) Strongly Disagree (2) Disagree (3) Somewhat Disagree (4) Neither Agree or Disagree   (5) Somewhat Agree (6) Agree   (7) Strongly Agree

(2-1) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-2) I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-3) I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-4) I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-5) This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-6) I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-7) It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-8) Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-9) Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-10) I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-11) One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-12) If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-13) I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-14) Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-15) I would feel guilty if I left my organization now

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-16) The organization deserves my loyalty

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-17) I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(2-18) I owe a great deal to my organization

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Strongly Agree

(3) How do you feel about total compensation including salary and fringe benefits at your organization? Please check the appropriate box for each of the following statements, bearing in mind the following abbreviations:

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

(3-1) I feel my salary is fair, considering what other employees in this organization are paid

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] Strongly Agree

(3-2) I feel my salary is fair, considering what other organizations pay

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] Strongly Agree

(3-3) I feel that my fringe benefits are fair, considering what other employees get in this organization

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] Strongly Agree

(3-4) I feel that my fringe benefits are fair, considering the fringe benefits provided by other organizations

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] Strongly Agree

(4) How do you feel about your personal growth and your achievement needs at your organization? and how do you feel about variety in your job? Please check the appropriate box for each of the following statements:

(4-1) I feel that my organization helps me maximize my skills and extends my abilities

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] Strongly Agree

(4-2) I feel that my organization gives me an opportunity to learn new things and achieve something of personal value

Strongly Disagree [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] Strongly Agree

(4-3) How much variety is there in your job?

Very little [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] Very much

(4-4) How repetitious are your duties?

Very little [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] Very much

(4-5)   How similar are the tasks you perform in a typical workday?

Very little   ☐ 1   ☐ 2   ☐ 3   ☐ 4   ☐ 5   Very much

(5) How do you feel about your job autonomy? Please check the appropriate box for each of the following statements:

(5-1)   To what extent are you able to act independently of your supervisor in performing your job function?

Very little   ☐ 1   ☐ 2   ☐ 3   ☐ 4   ☐ 5   Very much

(5-2)   To what extent are you able to do your job independently of others?

Very little   ☐ 1   ☐ 2   ☐ 3   ☐ 4   ☐ 5   Very much

(5-3)   The freedom to do pretty much what I want on my job

Minimum amount ☐ 1   ☐ 2   ☐ 3   ☐ 4   ☐ 5   Maximum Amount

(5-4)   The opportunity for independent thought and action

Minimum amount ☐ 1   ☐ 2   ☐ 3   ☐ 4   ☐ 5   Maximum Amount

(5-5)   The control I have over the pace of my work

Minimum amount   ☐ 1   ☐ 2   ☐ 3   ☐ 4   ☐ 5   Maximum Amount

(6) How do you feel about feedback on performance? and how do you feel about your task identity? Please check the appropriate box for each of the following statements:

(6-1)   To what extent do you find out how well you are doing on the job as you are working?

Very little   ☐ 1   ☐ 2   ☐ 3   ☐ 4   ☐ 5   Very much

(6-2)   To what extent do you receive information from your superior on your job performance?

Very little   ☐ 1   ☐ 2   ☐ 3   ☐ 4   ☐ 5   Very much

(6-3)   The feedback from my supervisor on how well I'm doing

Minimum amount   [1]   [2]   [3]   [4]   [5]   Maximum Amount

(6-4)   The feeling that I know whether I am performing my job well or poorly

Minimum amount   [1]   [2]   [3]   [4]   [5]   Maximum Amount

(6-5)   How often do you see projects or jobs through to completion?

Very little   [1]   [2]   [3]   [4]   [5]   Very much

(6-6)   The degree to which the work I'm involved with is handled from beginning to end by myself

Minimum amount   [1]   [2]   [3]   [4]   [5]   Maximum Amount

(6-7)   The opportunity to complete work I start

Minimum amount   [1]   [2]   [3]   [4]   [5]   Maximum Amount

(6-8)   How much does this organization provide job security

Very little   [1]   [2]   [3]   [4]   [5]   Very much

(7) Please tell us how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel with each of these features of your present job. Check the appropriate box for each of the following statements, bearing in mind the following abbreviations:

(1) Very Dissatisfied   (2) Dissatisfied   (3) Neither Satisfied nor
    Dissatisfied   (4) Satisfied   (5) Very Satisfied

(7-1)   The physical work conditions

Very Dissatisfied   [1]   [2]   [3]   [4]   [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-2)   The freedom to choose your own method of working

Very Dissatisfied   [1]   [2]   [3]   [4]   [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-3)   Your fellow workers

Very Dissatisfied   [1]   [2]   [3]   [4]   [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-4)   The recognition you get for good work

Very Dissatisfied   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-5)   Your immediate boss

Very Dissatisfied   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-6)   The amount of responsibility you are given

Very Dissatisfied   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-7)   Your rate of pay

Very Dissatisfied   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-8)   Your opportunity to use your abilities

Very Dissatisfied   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-9)   Industrial relations between management and workers in your firm

Very Dissatisfied   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-10) Your chance of promotion

Very Dissatisfied   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-11) The way your firm is managed

Very Dissatisfied   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-12) The attention paid to suggestions you make

Very Dissatisfied   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-13) Your hours of work

Very Dissatisfied   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-14) The amount of variety in your job

Very Dissatisfied   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]   Very Satisfied

(7-15) Your job security

Very Dissatisfied   □1   □2   □3   □4   □5   Very Satisfied

(8) Please check the appropriate box for each of the following statements, bearing in mind the following abbreviations:

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

(8-1)   In general changes around my organization have been for the best

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

(8-2)   I will accept any changes around my organization because any changes will be for the good

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

(8-3)   I often think about quitting

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

(8-4)   It is highly likely that I will actively seek employment at another organization within the next year

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

Finally, from your own point of view, if you had the opportunity to introduce positive organizational changes to the workplace, what changes should be taken into consideration to increase organizational commitment and job satisfaction in your organization?

Your participation is greatly appreciated, thank you

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

دعوة للمشاركة في دراسة بحث حول موضوع الإلتزام الوظيفي للعاملين في دولة قطر

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى التعرف على مدى الإلتزام والرضاء الوظيفي لدى العاملين في مؤسسات القطاع العام والخاص القطرية. إن دراسة من هذا النوع تعتمد إلى حد كبير على إستجابة الأشخاص المتميزين من أمثالكم. ولذلك، فانني أعرض لكم هذه الإستبانة طالباً مساندتكم بهذا الشأن .

هذه الاستبانة لن تستغرق أكثر من خمس وعشرين دقيقة لكي يتم تعبئتها وهي ليست إختباراً ولا تحتوي على إجابات بعضها صحيح والآخر خاطئ. وإذا كانت لديكم الرغبة بإجراء مقابلة للتحدث عن الإلتزام والرضاء الوظيفي بالمؤسسة التي تعملون بها، وغيرها من المواضيع ذات الصلة، فيرجى عدم التردد في ذكر إسمكم، وإسم مؤسستكم، ورقم الهاتف، كما هو مبين أدناه:

الإسم (اختياري): _____ رقم الهاتف (اختياري): _____

إسم المؤسسة (اختياري): _____

هذا وسوف تعامل المعلومات التي تذكرونها بكل سرية وعناية وتستخدم لغايات البحث العلمي فقط كما إنه لن يتم الكشف عن أسماؤكم أو الجهات التي تعملون لديها. وسوف يتم توفير نتائج الدراسة عند طلبها من الباحث عبر البريد الألكتروني: balesmael@hotmail.com

إن مشاركتكم ستكون موضع تقدير وعرفان، وتفضلوا بقبول فائق الإحترام،،،

بدر عبدالله الإسماعيل
جامعة هول- بريطانيا
جامعة قطر

1. البيانات الشخصية: ضع علامة (✓) في المكان المناسب:

(1-1) الجنسية: ....

(2-1) السن: ....

(3-1) الحالة الاجتماعية: ....
أعزب ____
متزوج ____
أخرى ____

(4-1) المستوى التعليمي للمبحوث: (............)
الابتدائية ____ المتوسطة ____
الثانوية ____ الجامعية ____
دراسات عليا ____

(5-1) الدخل: (............)

(6-1) الحالة الوظيفية: ....
قطاع حكومي ____
قطاع خاص ____

(7-1) الطبيعة السكنية التي تقيم فيها: ....
____

(8-1) نوع سكن العائلة: ____

(9-1) عدد أفراد الأسرة التي تعيش معهم في نفس المسكن؟ ....
(............)

2) من الأسئلة الآتية والخاصة بالسلوك الاستهلاكي أرجو الإجابة عليها بوضع علامة (✓) في المكان المناسب:

1) إلى أي مدى تعتبر أن للأسرة دوراً مهماً في تشكيل سلوكك الاستهلاكي؟ (1-2)

أوافق بشدة [7] [6] [5] [4] [3] [2] [1] لا أوافق بشدة

2) إلى أي مدى تعتبر أن للأصدقاء دوراً مهماً في تشكيل سلوكك الاستهلاكي؟ (2-2)

أوافق بشدة [7] [6] [5] [4] [3] [2] [1] لا أوافق بشدة

3) إلى أي مدى تعتبر أن "الأسرة" أكثر تأثيراً من "الأصدقاء"؟ (3-2)

أوافق بشدة [7] [6] [5] [4] [3] [2] [1] لا أوافق بشدة

4) إلى أي مدى.... (4-2)

أوافق بشدة [7] [6] [5] [4] [3] [2] [1] لا أوافق بشدة

(5-2) ان هذه المؤسسة تثير فيني بالتكبر

أوافق بشدة ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 لا أوافق بشدة

(6-2) لا أشعر بالانتماء نحو هذه المؤسسة

أوافق بشدة ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 لا أوافق بشدة

(7-2) تشكل هذه المؤسسة لي معنى كبيراً على المستوى الشخصي

أوافق بشدة ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 لا أوافق بشدة

(8-2) أشعر بأنني أشكل جزءاً من عائلة إذا تواجدت في هذه المؤسسة

أوافق بشدة ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 لا أوافق بشدة

(9-2) أشعر بالارتباط العاطفي نحو هذه المؤسسة

أوافق بشدة ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 لا أوافق بشدة

(10-2) أعتقد أنه يمكنني الانتقال بسهولة إلى مؤسسة أخرى كما هي الحال في هذه المؤسسة

أوافق بشدة ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 لا أوافق بشدة

(11-2) أشعر بأن هذه المؤسسة أمينة جداً معي

أوافق بشدة ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 لا أوافق بشدة

(12-2) لا أشعر بأي ارتباط عاطفي نحو هذه المؤسسة

أوافق بشدة ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 لا أوافق بشدة

(13-2) أشعر بأن لا علاقة تربطني بهذه المؤسسة

أوافق بشدة ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 لا أوافق بشدة

(14-2) تشكل هذه المؤسسة لي معنى كبيراً

أوافق بشدة ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 لا أوافق بشدة

(15-2) أشعر بأنني كبرت إذا انتقلت إلى مؤسسة أخرى

أوافق بشدة ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 لا أوافق بشدة

(16-2) ان هذه المؤسسة تثير فيني بالتكبر

أوافق بشدة ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 لا أوافق بشدة

297

(2-17) لن أترك الآن المؤسسة التي أعمل لديها لإحساسي بالإلتزام تجاه العاملين فيها :

أعارض بشدة ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 أوافق بشدة

(2-18) إنني مدين بالكثير للمؤسسة التي أعمل لديها :

أعارض بشدة ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 أوافق بشدة

(3) كيف تشعر تجاه الأجر الذي تتقاضاه بما في ذلك المزايا الأخرى في المؤسسة التي تعمل لديها؟ يرجى وضع اشارة داخل المربع عن كل عبارة مع ملاحظة المختصرات التالية:

1- أعارض بشدة   2- أعارض   3- محايد   4- أوافق   5- أوافق بشدة

(1-3) أشعر بأن راتبي مناسب، مقابل ما يحصل عليه موظفون آخرون في هذه المؤسسة :

أعارض بشدة ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 أوافق بشدة

(2-3) أشعر بأن راتبي مناسب، مقابل ما تدفعه المؤسسات الأخرى :

أعارض بشدة ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 أوافق بشدة

(3-3) أشعر بأن الامتيازات المادية التي أحصل عليها مناسبة، مقابل ما يحصل عليه موظفون آخرون في هذه المؤسسة :

أعارض بشدة ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 أوافق بشدة

(4-3) أشعر بأن الامتيازات المادية التي أحصل عليها مناسبة، مقابل ما تدفعه المؤسسات الأخرى :

أعارض بشدة ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 أوافق بشدة

(4) كيف تشعر تجاه نموك الشخصي والتنوع في وظيفتك في المؤسسة التي تعمل بها؟ يرجى وضع اشارة في المكان المناسب ازاء كل من العبارات التالية :

(1-4) أشعر بأن المؤسسة تساعدني على زيادة مهاراتي وقدراتي :

أعارض بشدة ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 أوافق بشدة

(2-4) أشعر بأن المؤسسة توفر لي الفرصة لتعلم أشياء جديدة وانجاز أشياء ذات قيمة شخصية لي :

أعارض بشدة ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 أوافق بشدة

(3-4) ما مقدار التنوع في وظيفتك؟

قليل جدا ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 كثير جدا

(4-4) ما مدى التكرار في واجباتك الوظيفية؟

قليل جدا ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 كثير جدا

(4-5) ما مدى تشابه المهام التي تؤديها أثناء القيام بعملك اليومي ؟

كثير جدا ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 قليل جدا

(5) ما هو شعورك تجاه استقلالك في وظيفتك؟ يرجى وضع اشارة في المربع المناسب لكل من العبارات التالية:

(5-1) إلى أي مدى تستطيع القيام بعملك بشكل مستقل عن الآخرين ؟

كثير جدا ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 قليل جدا

(5-2) إلى أي حد تستطيع التصرف بشكل مستقل عن مسؤولك المباشر في أداء مهامك الوظيفية؟

كثير جدا ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 قليل جدا

(5-3) ما مقدار حريتك للقيام بكثير من الأعمال التي تريدها في عملك ؟

كثير جدا ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 قليل جدا

(5-4) ما مقدار إعطائك الفرصة للتفكير واتخاذ الاجراء المستقل ؟

كثير جدا ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 قليل جدا

(5-5) ما مقدار سيطرتك على عملك؟

كثير جدا ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 قليل جدا

(6) ما هو شعورك تجاه التعرف على نتائج أدائك في العمل؟ وما هو شعورك تجاه اتقان مهامك الوظيفية ؟ يرجى وضع اشارة في المكان المناسب لكل من العبارات التالية:

(6-1) إلى أي مدى يمكنك التعرف على اداؤك لعملك كم هو جيد أثناء القيام به؟

كثير جدا ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 قليل جدا

(6-2) إلى أي مدى يمكنك الحصول على معلومات من مسؤولك المباشر بشأن أدائك لعملك ؟

كثير جدا ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 قليل جدا

(6-3) إلى أي مدى يقوم مسؤولك المباشر بتعريفك على نتائج أدائك لعملك كم هو جيد ؟

كثير جدا ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 قليل جدا

(6-4) ما مقدار تأثرك عند معرفة نتيجة أدائك للعمل سواء كان جيداً أو ضعيفاً ؟

كثير جدا ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 قليل جدا

(6-5) ما مدى اطلاعك على المشاريع والمهام من البداية وحتى النهاية ؟

كثير جدا ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 قليل جدا

(6-6) ما هي فرصتك لإكمال العمل الذي تبدأه ؟

قليل جدا   كثير جدا | 5 | | 4 | | 3 | | 2 | | 1 |

(7-6) ما هي درجة قيامك ولوحدك بعمل متكامل من البداية وحتى النهاية ؟

قليل جدا   كثير جدا | 5 | | 4 | | 3 | | 2 | | 1 |

(8-6) ما مقدار الأمن الوظيفي الذي توفره لك هذه المؤسسة ؟

قليل جدا   كثير جدا | 5 | | 4 | | 3 | | 2 | | 1 |

(7) يرجى وضع اشارة في المكان المناسب لكل من العبارات التالية، مع ملاحظة مايلي :

5) راضي جدا   4) راضي   3) لست متأكدا   2) غير راضي   1) غير راضي مطلقا

(7-1) رضاؤك عن ظروف العمل المحيطة :

راضي جدا | 5 | | 4 | | 3 | | 2 | | 1 | غير راضي مطلقا

(7-2) حرية إختيار طريقتك الخاصة لأداء العمل:

راضي جدا | 5 | | 4 | | 3 | | 2 | | 1 | غير راضي مطلقا

(7-3) العلاقة مع زملاؤك في العمل :

راضي جدا | 5 | | 4 | | 3 | | 2 | | 1 | غير راضي مطلقا

(7-4) التقدير الذي تحصل عليه بسبب إنجازك لعمل جيد:

راضي جدا | 5 | | 4 | | 3 | | 2 | | 1 | غير راضي مطلقا

(7-5) مدى رضاؤك عن رئيسك المباشر:

راضي جدا | 5 | | 4 | | 3 | | 2 | | 1 | غير راضي مطلقا

(7-6) مقدار المسؤولية الموكلة اليك :

راضي جدا | 5 | | 4 | | 3 | | 2 | | 1 | غير راضي مطلقا

(7-7) مقدار الأجر الذي تتقاضاه :

راضي جدا | 5 | | 4 | | 3 | | 2 | | 1 | غير راضي مطلقا

(7-8) فرصتك لإستخدام قدراتك ومهاراتك في العمل :

راضي جدا | 5 | | 4 | | 3 | | 2 | | 1 | غير راضي مطلقا

300

(7-9) الثقة في الإيجاز والثبات في المعلومات التي تقدمها:

غير راضي تماما [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] راضي تماما

(7-10) في درجة الثقة:

غير راضي تماما [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] راضي تماما

(7-11) الثقة في درجة تطابق المعلومات التي تقدمها وصدقها:

غير راضي تماما [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] راضي تماما

(7-12) الإحترام الذي توليه لك أثناء تقديم الخدمة:

غير راضي تماما [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] راضي تماما

(7-13) الثقة التي تمنحها لك:

غير راضي تماما [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] راضي تماما

(7-14) كان النصح وتوجيهك:

غير راضي تماما [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] راضي تماما

(7-15) المصداقية:

غير راضي تماما [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] راضي تماما

(8) الى أي مدى تتفق مع العبارات التالية فيما يتعلق بالخدمات المصرفية التي تتعامل معها:

(8-1) يسعى هذا المصرف الذي تتعامل معه دائما لإرضاء حاجاتك:

غير موافق تماما [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] موافق تماما

(8-2) ليست لديك أية شكوى على الإطلاق من المصرف الذي تتعامل معه:

غير موافق تماما [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] موافق تماما

(8-3) أنت راضي عن:

غير موافق تماما [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] موافق تماما

(8-4) من السهل الوصول عن طريق الهاتف إلى المصرف الذي تتعامل معه:

غير موافق تماما [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] موافق تماما

(8-5) يرتبط أداء هذا المصرف عن نجاح في تقديم الخدمات للعملاء:

غير موافق تماما [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] موافق تماما

أخيراً ومن وجهة نظركم إذا كانت لديكم الفرصة لأجراء تغيرات إيجابية في مكان عملكم ما هي تلك التغيرات التي يجب الأخذ بها لزيادة الإلتزام والرضاء الوظيفي في المؤسسة التي تعملون بها مع رجاء ذكر أية إقتراحات.

نشكركم على مشاركتكم ونقدر لكم وقتكم المبذول في إتمام الإجابة على أسئلة هذا الإستبيان

APPENDIX (E)

Appendix E (1): Item Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for Affective Commitment

Item #	Statements	N	Mean	S.D
(2-1)	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization	544	4.89	1.83
(2-2)	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	544	4.85	1.89
(2-3)	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)	544	5.08	1.89
(2-4)	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)	544	5.29	1.82
(2-5)	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	544	5.16	1.73
(2-6)	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)	544	5.24	1.76
	Component Mean and Standard Deviation	544	5.08	1.39

Appendix E (2): Item Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for Continuance Commitment

Item #	Statements	N	Mean	S.D
(2-7)	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to	544	4.74	1.91
(2-8)	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now	544	4.45	1.97
(2-9)	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	544	5.27	1.66
(2-10)	I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	544	4.27	1.82
(2-11)	One of the few negative consequences of	544	4.41	1.95

	leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives			
(2-12)	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere	544	4.40	1.99
	Component Mean and Standard Deviation	544	4.59	1.24

Appendix E (3): Item Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for Normative Commitment

Item #	Statements	N	Mean	S.D
(2-13)	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)	544	4.80	1.82
(2-14)	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now	544	4.68	1.89
(2-15)	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	544	4.47	1.99
(2-16)	The organization deserves my loyalty	544	5.28	1.78
(2-17)	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	544	4.91	1.75
(2-18)	I owe a great deal to my organization	544	4.70	1.88
	Component Mean and Standard Deviation	544	4.81	1.34

Appendix F (1): Item Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for Intrinsic Satisfaction of Job Itself

Item #	Statements	N	Mean	S.D
(8-2)	The freedom to choose your method of working	544	3.51	1.07
(8-6)	Amount of responsibility you are given	544	3.64	1.08
(8-8)	Opportunity to use your abilities	544	3.40	1.25
(8-14)	The amount of variety in your job	544	3.28	1.20
	Component Mean and Standard Deviation	544	3.46	.91

Appendix F (2): Item Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for Working Conditions Extrinsic Satisfaction

Item #	Statements	N	Mean	S.D
(8-1)	Physical work conditions	544	3.24	1.18
(8-3)	Fellow workers	544	4.10	.92
(8-5)	Immediate boss	544	3.96	1.11
(8-13)	Hours of work	544	3.63	1.18
(8-15)	Job security	544	2.95	1.24
	Component Mean and Standard Deviation	544	3.57	.75

Appendix F (3): Item Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for Individual Recognition and Management Behaviour

Item #	Statements	N	Mean	S.D
(8-4)	Recognition you get for good work	544	3.45	1.20
(8-7)	Rate of pay	544	2.92	1.28
(8-9)	Industrial relations between management and workers in your firm	544	3.44	1.17
(8-10)	Chance of promotion	544	2.73	1.23
(8-11)	The way your firm is managed	544	3.20	1.17
(8-12)	The attention paid to suggestions you make	544	3.19	1.13
	Component Mean and Standard Deviation	544	3.15	.91