"GAINING COMMITMENT IN A NUMERICAL FLEXIBILITY SITUATION"

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Abstract

Flexible employment patterns is a fast growing organisational policy. The enormous growth of temporary employment suggests that time spent in temporary employment may increasingly characterise typical career paths.

For individuals building a career within a temporary employment environment may mean something very different from building a career in a world of permanent and stable employment relationships. It is anticipated that those on temporary or otherwise precarious contracts will conceivably display lower levels of commitment to the work organisation than those enjoying job security and career advancement within the ladder of hierarchy. Indeed, the combined promise of job security and career advancement within corporate hierarchies as linked with incremental increases in authority status and pay have constituted the major rewards through which organisations have been able to elicit organisational attachment and commitment from their employees. The popularity of the concept appears to stem from its linkage with several desirable employee behaviours contributing to organisational effectiveness and efficiency. However, the HRM goals of improved employee commitment will potentially be undermined by the introduction of flexible work and employment patterns.

The purpose of this study was to identify the degree the nature and antecedents of organisational commitment for short term professionals. The main argument of the present research is that the new forms of job security rest on the base of employability security. Employability security comes from the chance to accumulate human capital – skills reputation that can be invested in new opportunities as they arise.

Our findings supported this argument and explained significant amount of variance in commitment. Additionally our findings reveal the changing nature of commitment. The emergence of "reflective" commitment put forward a new type of commitment. According to "reflective" commitment individuals develop primarily "commitment to self" which is projected to the organisation and reflects the realisation of individual and organisational pursuits.

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Introduction

Research Problem

Flexible working patterns have been the focus of considerable comment and much controversy the last decade. The spread of what the European Union refers to as "atypical" working patterns is now widely recognised and is a key issue for personnel specialists across Europe. It is a subject which has also been attracting the attention of senior line managers trade unions, national governments, the European Commission as well as academics. Much of this discussion has focused on the issue of managerial policies needed to accommodate the new employment realities.

Flexibility is often regarded as one of the competitive priorities along with cost, quality and innovation. Just as low cost and high quality have already become a requirement for market entry, flexibility might ultimately be the key to enhancing an organisation' s competitive ability.

The trend towards flexibility accompanied with downsizing rightsizing employees empowerment and flatter structures should enable organisations to get the best out of their employees. An empowered workforce should be able to achieve more than in more hierarchical structures where the power of individual contribution is more limited.
The creation of a multi-skilled short-term contract flexible workforce operating across previously rigid functional barriers should enable the organisation to adapt to market conditions. Therefore this could eventually lead to the 'virtual' organisation in which completely flexible teams are brought together for specific purposes and times. Given the competitive environment within which organisations operate, the need for flexibility, core strengths and speed of response has perhaps never been greater.

Flatter structures in particular challenge the presupposition that having a career means being promoted. In a vertical hierarchy, with many levels through which

people can progress, career development has usually involved acquiring experience and seniority gradually, with clear levels of accountability at each stage.

Temporary employment reduces the number of opportunities for vertical promotion and as yet there is no clear alternative career model which seems to be gaining ground. The main alternative model involves the gradual acquisition of skills through increasingly developmental responsibilities, at the same organisational level, yet in practice this model is often difficult to implement. There are often seemingly insuperable difficulties to be overcome by the individual who wishes to develop a lateral career path. Moreover, alternative careers, including self-employment, are seen as the risky option.

The effects of on-going restructuring include insecurity (Holbeche, L., 1994). Delayering has exploded the myth of onwards and upwards, yet there are no clear career alternatives. People are being told to manage their own careers. All of these changes are having an impact on people's morale, motivation, willingness and commitment to deliver high performance.

There is one vital factor that the economic argument to flexibility fails to take into account, namely human resource. In fact, many organisations have made a virtue out of becoming flexible. In almost every industry the real key to competitiveness lies in developing and supporting innovative products or services with excellent customer service. Technology can help but, in the final analysis, these can only be provided by people. The quality commitment and motivation of the people working within the organisation as well as the active use of the potential of the workforce are therefore directly related to business result. The financial logic suggests that returns to organisation are depended on business results, which in turn are depended on individual achievements.

Several writers have highlighted the importance of work force flexibility.
In Legge' s (1989) critical analysis of HRM concept she argues that proponents of HRM champion the work force as source of competitive advantage that may be tapped most effectively by mutually consistent policies that promote commitment

and which as a consequence, foster a willingness in employees to act flexibly in the interest of the adaptive organisation is pursuit of excellence.

Similarly Guest (1987) identifies flexibility among employees as one of four central policy goals of HRM (the others being the integration of human resource issues into strategic plans, high commitment and high quality.

However, although the notion of numerical flexibility has gained a particular significance over the past ten years it is not conceptually and empirically unproblematic.

In fact, Blyton and Morris (1992) stress that the search for lower costs via numerical flexibility is prone to clash with various objectives espoused under HRM. Prominent among these are possible conflicts between numerical flexibility - short-term employment and the pursuit of high levels of employee commitment. First it may be anticipated that those on temporary or otherwise precarious contracts will conceivably display lower levels of commitment to the work organisation than those enjoying job security particularly where there is little prospect of increased permanent employment in the organisation. This lack of attachment will be exacerbated if temporary employees are also denied access to company share ownership schemes, performance bonuses and the like, which are specifically designed to build up employees' commitment and identification with the organisation.

Indeed, the decline of the traditional organisational career through lifetime employment has consequences dramatically affecting organisational commitment. Organisations have traditionally provided a set of principles around which employees have been able to structure both their private and professional lives. Through them they have been able to experience a sense of security stability and order. Personal feelings of growth and advancement have been achieved through jobs which provide not only the opportunities for the completion of specific tasks but also a mean whereby longer-term personal goals can be achieved. Indeed, the combined promise of job security and career advancement within corporate hierarchies as linked with incremental increases in authority status and pay have constituted the major rewards in the employment relationship for the past decade.

Research has proved that it has been largely through these mechanisms that organisations have been able to elicit organisational attachment and commitment from their employees. The difficulty for managers of simultaneously employing people on precarious contracts and at the same time seeking commitment and high quality output has been widely recognised. In recent years, one of the central aims of HRM has been to increase employees' commitment to the organisation. The popularity of the concept appears to stem from its linkage with several desirable employee behaviours contributing to organisational effectiveness and efficiency. However, the HRM goals of improved employee commitment will potentially be undermined by the introduction of flexible work and employment patterns.

Despite these problems, HRM is concerned with the effective matching of human resource with business strategies, flexibility is likely to remain a central feature of HRM thinking as organisations respond to changing markets and technologies. What then are the possibilities for reconciling the contradictions between flexibility and short-term employee's commitment? This is a contentious issue and we can only begin to address it here.

Problem Significance

In response to a marked decline in promotion opportunities and increased levels of job insecurity employees react in a variety of ways. The behavioural responses they display have been characterised as a crisis of frustration and lack of commitment. Scholars have stressed that there is a tendency for those under these circumstances to invest the minimum work effort they perceive to be necessary in order to get by.

The manner in which such minimal standards are determined and legitimated and the ways under which this situation could change for the benefit of both organisation and individual represents an important area of research. Employees commitment needs to be addressed. In tough times for business, people issues often are neglected and priority is given to more pressing problems. Organisational needs take priority over employee needs every time. However there is real evidence that it is not tenable in

the long term simply to expect higher outputs from people in terms of performance with fewer inputs in terms of resources, people, training, time and support.

It is becoming increasingly obvious that employees are not adjusting as well or as quickly to the changing workplace as business might expect. Even where positive business results are being achieved, it is questionable how sustainable these are in the long term if the people producing them are unable, demoralised and unwilling to deliver to ever higher targets.

Many organisations are realising the need to address issues of employee motivation and commitment, but managers often express a sense of impotence about how to deal with them. If flexible organisations and short term contracts are here to stay, the challenge is to make these structures work. The key question now is how to make them work from the point of view of meeting employee needs, so that in turn organisational needs are met.

Human resource is perhaps the most volatile and easily damaged asset of an organisation. Well-motivated people, especially when they are also competent, are the key to outstanding performance. Flexible organisation structures can have very strong effects on employees' morale because they hit directly at what many people find most motivating like promotions and job security. However trying to motivate people can be pointless if based on mistaken assumptions. Employees, for instance, often misunderstand what the majority of employers find motivating, especially in times of change. In one survey of employers and employees, 89 per cent of employers believed their staff worked mainly for money and only 11 per cent though job satisfaction was an important factor. Employees, on the other hand, thought that the most important sources of motivation, in rank order, were: interesting job and employment security, sense of achievement, basic pay. Perhaps listening to what employees say they want can lead to a better understanding of what needs to change in order to motivate them.

Thus for employees 'intrinsic' rewards were much more important sources of motivation than 'extrinsic' rewards. Many of the 'intrinsic' motivators are badly affected in lean organisations, since many of the internal processes are at odds with

what the organisation is trying to achieve and what employees need. Judging by much of the research evidence, if extrinsic and intrinsic motivators are to flourish in organisations implementing sort term employment, a wide range of organisation factors need to be brought into line with what the organisation is trying to achieve. There is increasing evidence that unless the balance of motivating factors is right, people are starting to dedicate themselves to the organisation.

In an era when it has become increasingly fashionable for organisations to wish to gain competitive advantage not only through a flexible workforce but also through a highly committed one our findings will have particular relevance. The extent to which organisations can elicit commitment from a flexible short- term workforce will depend critically on what employees are offered in return to their commitment. The old exchange between employee and employer - job security and career advancement through the ladder of hierarchy in return for commitment - is in decline. Organisations therefore should devote rather more attention to find ways to boost the motivation morale and commitment for those on short - term contracts.

This research makes an attempt to fill the gap by defining and clarifying the factors affecting flexible work force commitment in the new organisational contexts. Additionally, the present research will contribute to theory by redefining the changing process and nature of organisational commitment as we enter the new millennium.

Much research has been conducted concerning Organisational Commitment (OC). The vast majority of studies used organisational commitment as an independent or mediating variable to examine such dependent variables as job satisfaction, tension, turnover, absenteeism. However few of them focused on organisational commitment as a dependent variable.

This gap may be a serious one given that the more is known about the causes, determinants or antecedents of organisational commitment for short- term contract employees the better the remedial or coping strategies that will be undertaken by the organisations in order to enhance the commitment of this type of personnel, since

organisations are increasingly drawing on such employment policies and practices in today's turbulent and continuously changing environment.

Historically theory and research on organisational commitment have focused on its antecedents or consequences. Until recently there have been few attempts to understand the effects of employment restructuring – numerical flexibility – on the work behaviours and attitudes of the employees affected. However little is written about how individuals can develop organisational commitment in dynamic environments characterised by decreased job security. As more is learned about the factors that affect employees' commitment an important gap in the literature on corporate restructuring will be filled. Ultimately managers should be able to handle flexible employment policies in ways that optimise outcomes for both the organisation and its people.

So in this research we shall be looking at a range of factors which are known to affect organisational commitment. We shall be looking at both the positive and negative effects of short term employment contracts on employees, and considering how these people see their career development and options. We shall examine some new ways of thinking about careers and explore some alternatives of effective career management in lean organisations. We shall consider how the very process of introducing change can be a key ingredient in activating people's motivation and commitment. We shall also address some of the real challenges of reconciling what the organisation needs with what employees need in order to develop organisational commitment. This research is about redressing the balance.

It is useful to note here that all the above mentioned research evidence will be discussed in detail in the relevant chapters.

Aim - Objectives - Research questions - Hypothesis - Propositions

The aim of this research is to examine the relationship between organisational commitment and short-term employment for professionals.

The objectives of this research are:

♦ to define the degree and nature of organisational commitment for short-term professionals,

♦ to consider the factors influencing levels of commitment for professionals in short - term contracts,

♦ to identify the relative importance of the various factors which are tested in this research.

Consequently to this end we address three questions.

1. Do professional employees in short - term contracts develop organisational commitment?

2. What are the antecedents of organisational commitment for short - term professional employees?

3. What is the relative importance of the antecedents for their commitment to the organisation?

The underlying notion of the model for the present research is a **reciprocity function** where individuals attach themselves to the organisation in return for certain rewards from the organisation. (March J. Simon 1958, Hrebiniak and Alutto 1972, Steers 1977, Mowday R. T., Steers, & Porter, 1979, Farrell D. Rusbult 1981, Angle & Perry 1983).

Professionals enter organisations with specific skills, desires and goals, and expect a work setting where they can use their skills, satisfy their desires, and achieve their goals. To the extent that the organisation is perceived as facilitating these ends, organisational commitment is likely to increase. On the other hand if the organisation is perceived as failing to provide sufficient opportunities along these lines, organisational commitment is likely to diminish (Steers 1977).

The existing literature on OC has identifed a number of factors affecting OC. However flexible employment patterns increasingly implemented in organisations

may have affected considerably the balance or the nature of the factors influencing commitment. In particular job security and career advancement are increasingly eliminated, although they were found to be strongly and positively related with OC.

Bearing this in mind the present research proposes and tests the concept of employability as remedy for the dying out traditional career advancement and job security, along with a wide spectrum of variables.

The reciprocity perspective suggests that organisational commitment is largely a function between work rewards and work values. Work rewards refer to the "benefits" that professionals receive from their jobs. (Herzberg, 1966 Kalleberg, 1977).

Consequently the central hypothesis upon which the model is based is as follows:

The greater the perceived congruence between work rewards and work values, the greater the commitment.

The above hypothesis can be analysed in a more concrete way into the following propositions.

1.   The overall impact of flexible employment strategies is to weaken power of hierarchy and loosen the employment bond between organisation and person. The impact of changes in the content and context for organisational jobs, is to reduce the necessity for long term employment with a single organisation and encourage a sequence of ever-higher jobs, perhaps in different organisations, as the only way to earn increasing career rewards. At the same time, long term employment is rapidly disappearing, leaving those who counted on it in a sea of insecurity. Even those who remain with one employer, the logic of their careers is less likely to resemble the bureaucratic pattern of an orderly progression of ever higher level and more remunerative jobs. Instead they are more likely to move from project to project rewarded for each accomplishment.

Thus if security no longer comes from being employed in permanent positions, then it must come from being employable. In the new era organisational restructuring is a

fact of life the promise of long-term employment security would be wrong one to expect employers to make. But employability security - the knowledge that today's work will enhance the person's value in terms of future opportunities - that is a promise that can be made and kept. Employability security comes from the chance to accumulate human capital - skills and reputation that can be invested in new opportunities as they arise. No matter what changes take place persons whose pool of intellectual capital or expertise is high will be likely to find gainful employment. The new forms of job security rest on the base of employability security.

Thus the higher the employability security the higher the commitment.

2.   When people understand the uncertainties of the environment, there is already a realisation that employability security is the appropriate career foundation. On this occasion employment is seen as dependent on continuing hard work and growth in skills, and security on the ability to generate income regardless of the fate or good will of any particular employer. But what makes an organisation attractive in turn is its ability to provide learning opportunities -chances to grow in skills and improve one's capability - that enhance the person's ability to keep employable. Training and retraining or challenging jobs on significant projects are more important, in this calculus than benefits programs like pensions.

Consequently it is suggested that the greater the knowledge skills and experience provided by the organisation the higher employees' commitment.

3.   For people who think about careers, the pursuit of learning opportunities and reputation may be overtaking the pursuit of promotion, as new strategies take hold. In many organisations people now work with their attention to their curriculum vitae. Assignments that used to be seen in terms of their political value in the promotion game are now assessed for their c.v. Value, viewed in terms of how they will position the person in the external labour market or how they provide learning that will help the person to build up his career

In short what people are increasingly working to acquire is the capital of their own individual reputation, instead of the organisational capital that comes from learning

one system well and meeting its idiosyncratic requirements. For many people it might be important to acquire or demonstrate a talent that a future employer or financial investor might value. Hirsch(1987), cynically advises people to 'gear to the c.v.'. He says that employees should ask themselves about every assignment: will having this experience on my CV make me more attractive to future employers?

Thus it can be suggested that the higher the reputation acquired through working for an organisation and the range of projects accomplished the higher the commitment.

It should be noted that the above propositions summarise the logic of the argument under which this thesis is constructed.

Along with the above propositions a broad spectrum of variables will be tested concerning organisational work and personal dimensions. These variables have been found in past research to be strongly related to organisational commitment.

Consequently the test of a long range of variables among which others are "traditionally" related to organisational commitment and others are not - at least up to now - will provide a comparison between tested and non tested variables which may reveal and justify the extent and the shape of the changing nature of organisational commitment. A detailed discussion about the hypotheses, variables and methods will be cited in the methodology chapter.

The thesis is structured in the following way:

Chapter 1 deals with numerical flexibility patterns in particular it defines the new flexible employment policies and presents the reasons for and consequences for their implementation. Additionally the extent and growth of such policies is reviewed. Moreover the potential compatibility between short-term employment practices and employees organisational commitment is discussed. Finally the issue of job insecurity is reviewed as the major implication of numerical flexibility.

Chapter 2 deals with psychological contract. The construct of psychological contract and its current relevant is presented. In particular, the main issues are what has changed about the psychological contract between employees and their organisations; why people are willing or not willing to work what is the emerging theory of employment and what can organisations do to continue to attract and retain the most qualified and effective employees.

Chapter 3 deals with Organisational Commitment. In this chapter a quite extensive review has been made concerning definitions of organisational commitment factors (antecedents) influencing its development. Moreover, foci and bases of organisational commitment and its development process are examined. Finally the current relevance of organisational commitment and its relationship with psychological contract is discussed.

Chapter 4 deals with HRM model relevant to our research. The market oriented ideology behind flexible employment is discussed along with its implications to employees careers. Finally basic motivation theories are discussed in relation to flexibility - short-term employment – and commitment.

Chapter 5 deals with the process of the research as a whole. The conceptualization and the operationalisation of the study are discussed and analyzed in detail. In particular, the conceptual framework underpinning this research and a number of testable hypotheses derive from it will be presented. More over the research design (strategy) along with the measurement of its of the hypothesised relationships between the possible antecedents and the OC variable are explored.

Chapter 6 presents in detail the statistical analyses performed on the data collected and the results obtained.

Chapter 7 summarises and discusses the results of the research in relation to the propositions developed in the Introduction, and in relation to the past literature. The primary research questions to be answered are discussed in the light of the findings of the present inquiry.

Conclusions

Chapter 1. Numerical Flexibility

Numerical flexibility - short term employment contracts

The last decade has seen significant changes in patterns of employment in the U.K and Europe. These changes include major developments in labour market conditions and social relations of employment (Brown 1990).

One of the developments which gained a prominent role in restructuring employment in 1980s and dominated discussion in 1990s is the notion of flexibility. Indeed, there has been in recent years a series of debates about flexibility varying considerably in their levels of analysis and ways in which the term has been employed. Flexibility itself conveys notions of adaptability, pliability and responsiveness to change, qualities which as advocated by the UK Department of Employment (1985), should be sought in the labour market in industrial relations and in patterns of work. As such it has been utilised variously to interpret changes in policy and practices taking place within individual organisations as well as in interorganisational relationships, national labour markets and international economic strategies.

In addition to such political usage, flexibility has been intensively discussed by many commentators on industrial affairs (Lau 1996) and by academics (Pollert 1988, Merger 1986, Brown 1990, Casey et al 1997, Abraham 1988, Handy 1984, Atkinson 1984).

The development of the concept of flexibility had been slow in the literature because of the relatively stable market structure and minimal competitive pressure prior to 1960s. In a stable competitive environment like decades ago, a competitive strategy simply involved defining a competitive position and then defending it. In fact, flexibility was not considered particularly important in the formulation of an organisation' s strategy (Lau 1996). Since the competitive environment has changed rapidly and unpredictably, however new knowledge and capabilities are needed to support any strategy to create sustainable competitive advantage.

Competitive advantage commonly refers to the creation of a production distribution system that has a unique advantage over its competitors.

In the last two decades, as the competitiveness problems increased practitioners and academics began to recognize that workforce flexibility was vital in supporting organisations to survive and gain competitive advantage.

Though increasingly widely used, the flexibility argument suffers from a number of theoretical and empirical shortcomings. However, we make no attempt here to outline the advantages and disadvantages of flexible working patterns. This chapter aims to establish the notion of numerical flexibility and explore how numerical flexibility - temporary employment - affects the development of organisational commitment for those employed under short term employment contracts. It is argued that, while the two concepts are regarded as contradictory a reconciliation between both could be achieved mainly through the redefinition of the perception of job security.

Development of the concept of flexibility.

The notion of flexibility in the operations of the firm seems to have been first introduced into the economics literature by George Stigler (1939). He defined flexibility as those attributes of a production technology, which accommodate greater output variation. Following Stigler, Hart (1942-1950) examined flexibility as the firms response to uncertainty, especially in the form of fluctuations in demand, but also market imperfection. The implications of demand fluctuations of the cost structure of firms were further analyzed by Mills (1984).

This branch of the literature which represents the bulk of the analysis of flexibility in economics is limited to those aspects of flexibility which have to do with the ability of firms to deal with fluctuations in demand and their output. But fluctuation in demand on the one hand represents only one aspect of the environment of firms which calls for flexibility, on the other hand the notion of flexibility as an economic and operational size seem to be inadequate to provide an organisational solution for

gaining competitive advantage. Changes may occur in a firm' s product market due to technological change: new products may emerge as well as improvements in existing products in the form of higher quality, new varieties etc.

In addition technological change may affect the production system e.g. in the form of new machinery and production methods, new systems for management and control such as computerization new skills and competencies.

Thus the notion of flexibility needs to be widened to encompass not only the ability to deal with demand fluctuations but also with human resource as the main factor contributing to organisational success.

Marschak and Nelson (1962) defined flexibility more broadly than Stigler. They suggested three alternative definitions: (1) a more flexible initial action preserves more choices for actions in the following periods; (2) a more flexible plant requires less additional cost to move towards the next position; (3) a more flexible plant generates more profits or smaller losses in moving to a new position.

Johes and Ortroy (1984) elaborated further on Marschak and Nelson's notions of flexibility. They defined flexibility as "a property of initial positions". It refers to the cost or possibility of moving to various second period positions. Vives (1986) has also shown that an increase in uncertainty leads organisations to seek a more flexible position.

It is useful at this point to distinguish between risk and uncertainty. In fact while until recently organisations had to cope with "risk" now a new "size" has entered organisations' life threatening their viability. Frank Knight (1921) uses the term "risk" to refer to those homogeneous repetitive events whose relative frequencies can be measured and the term "uncertainty" to refer to those events which cannot be assigned numerical probabilities. Given that risks are calculable it is possible at least in principle to be foreseeable. Uncertainty on the other hand, is not calculable and therefore unpredictable.

However the above mentioned literature deals primarily if not exclusively with economic aspects of flexibility such as fluctuations in demand.

The notion of flexibility extends beyond economic size. Harrigan (1985) for example refers to strategic flexibility as the ability of firms to reposition themselves in a market, change their game plans or dismantle their current strategy when the customers they serve are no longer as attractive as they once were.

Atkinson (1984a, 1984b, and 1985) made a real break through in the issue of flexibility by introducing the notion of human resource flexibility. Employment flexibility was promoted, consciously by Atkinson's (1984) discussion of the prescriptive validity of the flexible firm model. In fact the academic discussion of human resource flexibility started with the work of Atkinson.

The model of the flexible firm put forward by Atkinson focused on the type of contracts offered by employers and proposed a differentiation between a core workforce of full time permanent employees for whom functional flexibility has been appropriate, and a peripheral workforce of part-time, temporary and subcontract workers for whom numerical flexibility was relevant. A further development of the notion of flexibility adds the concept of "distancing" which includes even more peripheral non-employment relationships such as franchising self employment, home working, networking and subcontracting. Guest 1987 presenting a model of HRM included in his model four virtues as strategic integration, commitment, flexibility and quality.

Attacks on the model are led by Ann Pollert (1987, 1988a, 1988b, 1991). Pollert argued that the model is not a new theory and there is little evidence that the growth in flexibility is more than a reflection of a sectional shift to the service sector; that the core peripheral distinction is not useful and that it confuses analysis with prescription. Hakim (1990), Hunter and colleagues (1993) tended to concentrate on such issues as whether any increase in employment flexibility reflected employers' conscious strategic pursuit of flexibility or short-term expediency or whether any really significant increases could be observed at all. Although both Pollert (1987: 1988a; 1991), Hyman (1991) and Garrahan and Stewart (1992) raised ideological

misgivings about employment flexibility, this is not echoed in the bulk of managerialist writings such as Peters, Waterman (1982), Moss Kanter (1989), Charles Handy (9184). However Pollert herself (1988) argues that temporary employment has gained much publicity in recent years and the reason is that it is suggested as the solution to recession uncertainty and heightened competition.

The framework of flexibility

Definitions

According to Atkinson's (1984) model three potential sources of flexibility have attracted most attention:

1. **Numerical flexibility** generally used to denote management's ability to vary the amount of labour in response to changes in levels and patterns of demand. Strategies to effect this include use of short-term causal and temporary contracts and "hiring and firing" policies (that is, reliance on the external labour market), together with externalizing work through the use of sub-contractors.

2. **Functional or task flexibility,** referring to the adaptability and mobility of employees to undertake a range of tasks and/or employ a variety of skills and thereby respond more effectively to changing production requirements and technological developments.

3. **Temporal flexibility,-** part time - involving varying patterns of hours worked in response to changing patterns of demand or, in some cases, employee needs. Like task and numerical flexibility, a central management objective behind temporal flexibility is to increase the extent to which labour time is fully utilized.

The first approach Numerical Flexibility can be realized by two working conditions: Out sourcing and temporary employment.

For the purpose of this research we shall concentrate on temporary employment. The focus will be on short term contract professional employees. The reason is that temporary employment in professional occupations is regarded as the most radical and relatively recent change in employment patterns. Additionally temporary employment is seen as the most precarious pattern of employment compared to the other patterns of flexibility such as functional or part time. Consequently it is anticipated that temporary employment may affect considerably the levels and the nature of organazational commitment for those employed under short term contracts.

Factors encouraging temporary employment

To date empirical research on the use of external workers has been primarily descriptive (Preffer and Baron 1988) reporting statistics on the demographic characteristics of external workers (Howe 1986, Cohen and Haberfeld 1993) the kinds of jobs staffed of external workers (Sugarman 1978; Mangum, Mayall and Nelson 1985; Howe 1986) or the industries and regions in which they are employed (Gordon and Thal-Larsen 1969; Mayall and Nelson 1982; Mangum et.al. 1985).

A few studies have attempted to predict the use of temporary workers. Using a survey of 882 firms Mangum et. al. (1985) found that use of temporary workers was affected by firm size, growth or decline in firm employment levels, firm benefit levels, industry and the occupations in which the workers were employed. Their analysis focused on bivariate relationships between particular independent variables and the use of temporary workers however it is not clear whether these relationships would hold in a more complex multivariate model.

Using a survey of over 400 employers Abraham (1988) found that use of temporary workers was affected by the level of unionisation among the firms workforce and by the amount of variation in demand for the firms products.

Existing research on employment externalisation has produced few consistent findings across studies. This is because existing studies have examined extremely different determinants of externalisation. Consequently it is difficult to identify

robust findings that are likely to generalise across industries organisations and jobs. However several factors can be identified which have encouraged the increasing attention paid to workforce flexibility over the last decade, and it would be worthy to summarise the main ones here. They include:

1. Growth of competition: a series of developments perceived to be intensifying levels of competition in product markets, including: a growth in international trade in goods and services; growth in the activity of newly industrialising countries; the continued productivity gains achieved in Japan; increased liberalisation of trade in Europe and North America; and deregulation policies increasing competition in various public sectors;

2. Unpredictable product markets: more volatile and less predictable product markets due partly to an intensified search for competitive advantage via new product development; Belous (1989) argues that temporary employees are hired without expectation of long term employment and therefore can be let go without tarnishing an organisation's image. In contrast he also argues that permanent employment comes with an implicit promise of long-term employment. Workforce reorganisations that eliminate jobs tarnish a firm's reputation.

3. World recession: the effects of world recession in the early 1980s resulting in widespread reductions in workforce levels and subsequent re-casting of job boundaries; Indeed Brown (1990) argues that the recession of 1980's and the consumer's boom towards the end of the decade have caused many financial problems for both private and public sectors enterprises. Employers faced the need to cope with considerable unpredictable variations in the level of demand for their products or services, which must have made a greater degree of easy numerical flexibility attractive. Externalisation may increase a firm's flexibility in dealing with changing market conditions and organisational requirements.

First externalisation reduces many types of employment and administrative costs. Firms can hire temporary employees without increasing fringe benefits the cost of health insurance employer funded pension plans or unemployment insurance (Casey, 1997). Indeed hiring and managing permanent employees entails a variety of costs which bring a firm very limited benefits and may be viewed by the firm as

unnecessary constraints on its use of resources. A firm may try to reduce these constraints through externalisation.

Fringe benefits costs are currently 40% of total compensation (Cascio 1992). They are also the component of the total compensation that is most likely to differ significantly between internal and external employees (Applebaum, 1985)

In addition, spending on fringe benefits yields few tangible outputs for the firm making fringe benefits an obvious target for employment cost reduction (Casey, 1987). Because many external workers do not receive fringe benefits (Applebaum 1985) firms may be able to gain employment - cost flexibility by using external employees. Pressure to gain cost flexibility is likely to be greatest where fringe benefits are high. Mangum et. al. (1985) reported that firms with high fringe benefits used more temporary help than firms with low fringes.

4. New technologies: the impact of new technologies which in many cases have undermined the logic of existing job boundaries and job classifications or job qualifications and competencies. Gordon and Thal-Larsen (1969) argue temporary employment may offer a firm a way to access highly specialised skills that are needed for only a short period of time such as engineering skills that are needed only for a single project. Therefore as Larsen (1988) and Belous (1989) reported the use of temporary workforce allows a firm to offer a wide range of products in demand without risking a large fixed investment in labour.

5. High levels of unemployment: the effects of different labour market conditions - in some areas, slack labour markets and high employment allowing organisations to utilise numerical flexibility strategies;

6. State intervention-limited trade union power: a weakened trade union movement in the U.K. and elsewhere has enabled employers to pursue changes in traditional job boundaries and the extension of practices such as temporary employment formerly successfully resisted by unions in many areas of work. State intervention and deregulation policies have acted to reduce the amount of protection afforded to employees by legislation or trade union influence. Firms may also use

externalised workers to manage their relationships with unions and government. Although unions are likely to have a significant effect on the use of externalised workers the direction of this effect is difficult to predict. Firms may use externalised workers to decrease a union's power over employees. Externalised workers may be used to remind permanent workers that alternative sources of labour are readily to replace those who use unions or other means to express dissatisfaction within the workplace. The use of externalised workers to control existing union power implies a positive relationship between unionisation and externalisation: As the number of unionised workers increases organisations are likely to resist this influence by employing more workers who are outside of the control of unions. This line of argument is consistent with one of Abraham and Taylor's (1990) findings on temporary employment.

Many of these factors are relevant not only to understanding the growth in emphasis on workforce flexibility, but are also crucial to understanding the growth of the HRM project itself.

The extent and growth of flexibility

Research in the field of flexibility in Europe tends to concentrate more on the employment effect of flexible working ,that is, the notion that deregulation of employment protection and the introduction of more flexible working encourages the creation of additional employment (Boyer 1990, Blyton and Morris 1991). Elsewhere in the world, in Japan and the USA for example, the debate is notably distinct and more limited.

Despite the different legal, cultural and labour traditions around Europe there is a clear trend amongst employers in all sectors towards increasing their use of flexibility. This trend varies by country, sector and size but it is a clear and largely consistent development (Brewster et al. 1994). A few details on the most common form of temporary employment will indicate the position and provide the basis for our later analysis.

Non-permanent (temporary or fixed term) contracts play an important role in the overall labour market in Europe, their growth during the 1980's is quite dramatic; however levels and growth rates of non-permanent employment vary substantially across Europe, but remain an important feature of flexible employment patterns for many organisations. In general it is the poorer countries of the European Community, which have the highest levels of employees on such contracts. Non-permanent employment is highest in southern countries such as Greece, Portugal and Spain where the percentage of the workforce involved is over 15% and lowest in Luxembourg, Belgium and Italy at around 5% (commission of the EC 1992).

At organisational level, research shows that the use of non-permanent employment is widely used by 8 or 9 out of every 10 employers in all countries except Denmark and Turkey. The "wealth divide" however is clearer when we look at the share of those organisations in each country which are high temporary/ casual or fixed term users (those where at least 10% of the workforce are on such contracts); in Spain, Portugal, Turkey and the Netherlands more than one fifth of organisations are "high users" (Brewster et al. 1994)

Growth rates for non-permanent employment varied substantially during the 1980's increasing rapidly in some countries while remaining at a low level or declining in others (OECD, 1991)

The largest increases occurred in France where the proportion of non-permanent employment for both men and women more than doubled between 1983 and 1989 (to 9,4% of the female and 7,8% of the male workforce), Ireland, Greece and the Netherlands also show positive increases (Commission of the EC, 1992).

Belous (1989) reported that a quarter of all US workers in 1988 were non-permanent or part time employees. Davis-Blake and Uzzi (1993) noted that during the past decade organisations use of temporary workers has increased tremendously.

Feldman (1996) highlighted how entrenched temporary work has become in US economy. He continues saying that 10 years ago only 100 temporary employment agencies existed in the country and only 250.000 workers were temps, today there

close to 1.500 temporary help services and over 1,5 million temporary workers. In fact between 1991 - 1993 more than 20% of all the new positions created in the US economy were temporary jobs.

Marginson (1994) argued that a survey of multi established firms in U.K. showed that first over half of all establishments (53%) were employing at least some temporary staff and 19% reported an increase in their use since 1980.

Atkinson and Mearger (1986) showing the findings of a survey conducted in Britain by the Institute of Manpower Studies (IMS) indicates that three quarters of employers in most industrial sectors make use of temporary workers and that the use is highest among larger and faster growing organisations. In IMS sample 7,6% of the workforce were temporary workers. This proportion had grown since 1980 and was on a continuing upward trend.

However the temporary workforce has not only grown in size but also in diversity. In particular as Davis-Blake and Uzzi (1993) Belous (1989) Mearger (1986) Feldman et al (1994) note, the kind of work performed by temporary employees has also changed. Indeed Applebaum (1985) Feldman et al (1994) noted that the majority of temporary employees no longer perform unskilled clerical tasks; many are professionals such as nurses accountants engineers medical personnel business executives and consultants.

Moreover, Feldman et al (1994) point out that the nature of the psychological contract between temporary workers and their employers has changed also. Ten years ago most temporary employees were individuals who worked temporary jobs by choice for example college students working during vacations and married women with children who wanted to earn some additional income to keep their skills current or make social contacts outside of the home. Today, however, the temporary workforce is dominated by individuals who would rather not work on temporary assignments -for example college graduates who can not find permanent jobs, unemployed workers and laid off professionals who are waiting for positions more consistent with their education and previous work experience to open up.

Thus - to summarise the description of the total situation - temporary employment has.

♦ First, grown in size

♦ Second, grown in diversity (professional occupations have entered the temps world)

♦ Third, the choice of temporary job in many cases is no longer dependent on the individual personal wish or will but on external factors such as unemployment and lack of opportunities.

The expansion of the flexible workforce and the changes that have occurred over time in the nature of temporary employment have major implications for both individuals and organisations. The implications stemming from the use of a temporary workforce have received increased attention from social and governmental policy experts as well. A major debate is based on the anticipated implications of numerical flexibility on professional employees career and commitment.

Careers Transformation

Widespread internal changes in organisations are creating havoc on traditional careers. Many people are experiencing major difficulties in their attempts to adapt to the uncertainties of career life.

Change requires change. Organisations today are making abundant changes internally to cope with a highly turbulent external environment. With frequent reorganising, downsizing, rightsizing, delayering, flattening the pyramid, teaming and flexibility taking place, careers and career opportunities are in pandemonium resulting from the progressive destabilization of relationships between people and organisations.

In fact the unspoken contract between employer and employee basically assuring continued employment and upward mobility in exchange for performance and

loyalty is now broken (Rousseau et al, 1993). However, both individuals and oraganisations have needs for stability change and achievement.

Organisations should not, however, merely abandon past, static, narrow concepts about careers in favour of new, more change-oriented career concepts that are equally problematic. Instead a more powerful strategy is to incorporate older, more static career concepts along with newer, more dynamic career concepts into a pluralistic strategy for dealing with careers and organisational arrangements.

Brousseau et al (1996) and Schein (1993) put forward pluralistic frameworks that will serve as a means for coping with change and the diverse needs of organisations and people, and at the same time, as a tool for realigning individuals and organisations.

Brousseau et al (1996) suggest that both organisations and the workforce as a whole might benefit more from a pluralistic approach that combines varied amounts and types of organisational structure with an array of quite different career experience opportunities.

Organisations would retain sufficient structure to maintain certain core competencies and organisational leadership, while utilising more dynamic and less structured arrangements to meet the demands of external change.

This pluralistic approach to organisation design would naturally provide opportunities for diverse career experiences, would minimise the likelihood of pleasing one group of employees while alienating another, and would provide the basis for maintaining a diverse workforce with which to meet changing business conditions more effectively.

Over the last decades career has been defined as a steady progression toward positions of increasing authority and responsibility. Career success has been measured in terms of position in an organisational hierarchy. A pluralistic framework specifies that there are markedly different ways of defining career success and, consequently, markedly different approaches to career management and development in organisations.

Brousseau et al (1996) have found it very useful to draw upon a multiple career concept model that identifies four fundamentally different patterns of career experience. The four patterns - or career concepts - basically differ in terms of direction and frequency of movement within and across different kinds of work over time. The four concepts can be combined in various ways to form hybrid concepts that, in turn, can be used to describe many different patterns of career experience.

Distinctly different sets of motives underlie each of the four concepts. That is, individuals who differ in their endorsement of particular career concepts as descriptive of the ideal career also differ predictably in their underlying work and career-related motives.

The Linear Career Concept.

The ideal linear career consists of a progressive series of steps upward in a hierarchy to positions of ever-increasing authority and responsibility. People who see the ideal career in linear terms often find it difficult to imagine any other definition of success. The linear concept is deeply rooted in the cultural emphasis society places on upward mobility.

The motives that people with strong linear concepts bring to their careers are power and achievement. They are motivated by opportunities to make important things happen.

The Expert Career Concept.

The expert career is one involving lifelong commitment to some occupational field or specialty. Once the career choice has been made, the individual focuses on further developing and refining his or her knowledge and skills within that specialty. There are many people who view the expert career concept as descriptive of their ideal career.

People with strong expert career concepts know clearly that what they desire most in their careers is expertise or technical competence. Getting ahead means becoming more and more proficient in their specialties. The nature of the work they perform is an integral part of their self-identity. A quick linear trip up the corporate ladder could be an alienating experience for an individual with a strong expert career concept.

The Spiral Career Concept.

The spiral career is one in which a person makes periodic major moves across occupational areas, specialties, or disciplines. Ideally, these moves come every three to five years, a span that seems to permit individuals sufficient time to develop in depth competence, if not full mastery, in many fields before moving on to new ones. The ideal spiral move is from one area (e.g. engineering or research) into an allied area (e.g. product development). The new field draws on knowledge and skills developed in the old field, and at the same time throws open the door to the development of an entirely new set of knowledge and skills. Like the linear career counterparts, spirals bring numerous motives to their careers. Chief among them are personal development and creativity.

The Transitory Career Concept.

The transitory career is the least traditional one of consistent inconsistency. The ideal transitory career is one in which a person moves every three to five years from one field or job to a very different or wholly unrelated field or job. People who intentionally pursue transitory careers often do not think of themselves as actually having careers. They are merely seeking variety and independence or ensuring income to meet living expenses.

Edgar Schein (1978) in his famous career model the so called "career anchors" postulated that a person's career anchor is his/her self-concept, consisting of:
*self-perceived talents and abilities,
*basic values, and
*the evolved sense of motives and needs as they pertain to the career.

Career anchors evolve only as one gains occupational and life experience. However, once the self-concept has been formed it functions as a stabilising force, an anchor, and can be thought of as the values and motives that the person will not give up if forced to make a choice. Most of us are not aware of career anchors until we are forced to make choices pertaining to self-development, family, or career. Yet it is important to become aware of them so that we can choose wisely when choices have to be made (Edgar Schein, 1978).

In 1970s Schein showed that most people's self-concepts revolved around five categories reflecting basic values, motives, and needs: autonomy/independence; security/stability; technical-functional competence; general managerial competence; and entrepreneurial creativity. Schein carried out follow up studies in the 1980s with a wider range of occupations which revealed three additional anchor categories: service or dedication to a cause; pure challenge; and life style.

Individuals pursuing security/stability or linear career, experience the most severe problems because of the shift in organisational policies from guaranteeing "employment security" to "employability security". This shift implies that the only thing the career occupant can really expect of an organisation is the opportunity to learn and gain experience, which presumably makes him /her more employable in some other organisation. What this means internally to the career occupant is that the base of security and stability has to shift from dependence on an organisation to dependence on oneself.

Self-reliance and self-management are becoming dominant requirements for future career management. Therefore, individuals who oriented themselves initially to finding a good employer and staying with that employer for the duration of their careers have to develop a new way of thinking about themselves and locate new external or internal structures on which to become dependent. The combination of spiral, autonomy and challenge career appears to be relevant in the contemporary professional workplace.

Is flexibility compatible with organisational commitment?

The corporate career became a reality for increasing numbers of employees in the post-war decades. In this period prosperity fuelled the expansion of large- scale businesses as well as state-owned corporations. These organisations offered new and increasing job prospects for managers as well as for professionals and other technical experts. Managers in particular, found themselves working within hierarchies where pay, promotion, and security- and associated enhancements in status and responsibility- were major incentives. Satisfaction from their jobs was derived largely from their location within clearly defined career structures within which personal progress could be measured according to age, experience and achievement.

Employees generally could be reasonably optimistic about the possibilities for career progression and the associated opportunities for enjoying steadily improving living standards (Herriot and Pemberton, 1996; Feldman, 1989). Occupational and geographical mobility could be expected and most were prepared to accept the often-associated costs for their lifestyles and personal relationships (Orstein and Issabella, 1993). Indeed, as "organisation men" they were expected to adhere to work values which gave priority to corporate demands over other interests - including those of their immediate families. Even though the greater majority were married with children, the support of their partners - who were unlikely to have jobs at this time- was "automatically" assumed.

Studies conducted during this time stress the central significance of the promotion process in the working lives of managers. In Britain, for example, Goffee and Scase (1992) found managers "preoccupied" with promotion such that, "past moves and decisions were discussed largely in terms of their implications for promotion. When asked directly about their wishes for the future, at least three- quarters of the men made it clear they wanted to "move up". Similarly the Pahls (1971) noted that for managers they interviewed, "life is a hierarchy and success means moving up in it. Marking time and staying in the same position is interpreted as dropping out". Promotion held various appeals.

Early success conferred additional psychological rewards while "late" promotion or "getting stuck" could often bring anxiety and frustration and personal doubts. Indeed academic observers constructed models, which emphasised differing goals and work orientations at distinct career phases (Hall, 1976; Schein, 1978).

Increasing competitive pressures during the 1980's and the associated processes of organisational restructuring and technological change, appear to have radically altered the work experiences and aspirations of many managers. Fewer are now able to pursue "orderly" predictable career paths within large, centralised bureaucratic systems (Markham et al. 1987). Shifts toward decentralisation and attempts to develop greater task orientation have meant that managers in many economic sectors are increasingly required to work in smaller semi-autonomous business units where a premium is placed upon "flexibility" and "responsiveness". (Kanter, 1989). These "looser", "flatter" forms of organisation aim to reduce the significance of hierarchy, rules, and procedures as means for achieving co-ordination and control. Further, there is less emphasis upon rewarding managers with security and steady career progression and there are now greater attempts to offer incentives through various performance- related payment schemes (Kanter, 1989).

In this context, managers are discouraged to build up promotion expectations and instead they are now expected to behave as entrepreneurs, creating their career strategies, a fact that can heighten employees feelings of uncertainty and vulnerability. The ways in which these changes have affected the employment experiences and career opportunities of managers are related to a number of individual and organisational consequences.

Indeed, present - day conditions are characterised by a resurgence in the appeal of self-employment and the spread of contractual and consultancy - based work relationships. These changes reflect the fact that the "single organisation" career now applies to fewer and fewer professionals. As corporate directors increasingly exhort them to "manage their own careers", more are moving between organisations, as well as between employment and self-employment, rather than pursuing life-long careers within but a single corporation (Nicholson and West 1988).

It would be surprising if this increase in the inter organisational job change and loss of security has not affected employees organisational commitment. Yet there are few detailed empirical studies of their possible changing work attitudes (Markham et al., 1987).

Indeed it is fundamental to human nature that people wish to distinguish themselves from others by some marks of rank or status. Organisation career structures for most of the 20th century have largely offered opportunities for employees to progress up a layered hierarchy. In these structures moving onwards and upwards usually involved gaining recognisable symbols of distinction and power.

This career development which has shaped employee expectations to date is based on the belief often described as a psychological or unwritten contract that employees will be offered promotion opportunities and job security within an organisation as long as they continue to perform. Relatively recent organisational changes - re-engineering, downsizing, decentralisation flexibility have rocked the belief that a job can be available for life. The trend towards reducing an organisation's activities to core processes has meant that many people are now working for their former or other employer on short term contracts as part of a peripheral workforce.

Delayering has further challenged the belief that career progression will continue to be through a clearly demonstrated series of hierarchical levels. The impact of technology and the increasing automation has led to a distilling of jobs on one hand and increased demand for the multiskilled employee who can work well in teams on the other.

Conversely in major public organisations such as government departments and the NHS professional experts are now increasingly required. Although the British Civil Service has long exemplified the generalist career route it is now encouraging employees to develop professional technical qualifications in specific areas. This trend towards specialisation may represent the need to create customer-focused organisations with the increasing call for accountability.

It may also reflect the fact that even within the UK government service a lifetime of employment is no longer guaranteed. Increasingly the acquisition of business /technical or professional qualifications is seen by both employers and employees as a means of enhancing employability both within and beyond the organisation.

Resent research at Roffey Park (Holbeche 1995) has highlighted the low morale experienced by employees as their organisations undergo these changes in career structure. Morale seems worst hit over lack of job security and progression opportunities. There now appears to be clear evidence that morale in the workforce has a direct effect on productivity and ultimately on bottom-line performance.

Many organisations are responding to this by providing personal development processes to help employees adjust their career expectations and develop a new concept of career. For many employees this involves first coming to terms with the new organisational realities.

Personal development processes such as Roffey Park's PEER (Personal Exploration and Evaluation Review) allow participants to discuss the implications of organisational change for them and decide how they are going to respond, when linked with a review of the individual's strengths and weakness with respect to the competencies the organisation is looking for and an insight into their personal values employees are helped to draw up a personal development plan. The plan may well focus exclusively on the acquisition of skills and experience which will make them marketable within the organisation as well as increase the employee's job satisfaction.

What is the new career concept which employees are being encouraged to adopt? This seems to place a much greater responsibility on individuals to manage their own career. This requires people to know what they want, have a realistic sense of their strengths and weaknesses and an opportunistic approach to achieving what they want. Of course some people have always been able to do this. For others taking responsibility for managing their own careers when they have previously hoped that the employers would do that for them is a hard message to espouse. Managing one's own career in today's changing organisation involves being prepared to make lateral

moves, and overcome organisational obstacles to these moves. For whilst many employers are happy to reinforce the message of employee responsibility for career development few employees are willing to accept these messages. Frequently stigma remains attached to lateral moves and managers are sometimes unwilling to release skilled employees for "development" moves.

New forms of career are emerging such as "portfolio" careers in which individuals gradually build up a variety of skills and experience in a range of organisations. Clearly, to gain access and undertake projects in different organisations employees need the right skills experience and attitudes to succeed. The "right skills" may no longer be simply technical skills. Increasingly good communication, team leading or project management skills are called for. More than ever the ability to make things happen and become visible is helping differentiate the "winners" from losers in this changing context. Ironically, the very entrepreneurial flair which helps make these employees successful often drives them to leave organisations when the organisational systems management processes and culture move too slowly to be supportive of "new " behaviours. The most flexible and opportunistic employees lose patience with obvious gaps between strategic visions and missions and the actual practices within the organisation.

Whilst there is a noticeable decline in loyalty to the organisation in many cases, there is an increased awareness amongst employees of the need to be self-supporting in these difficult times. Many organisations are introducing fixed term contracts. Employees on such contracts are having to think of themselves as self-employed but working within an organisation for a period of time. Frequently employees are looking after their own pension arrangements to ensure that their pension rights are as mobile as they may need to be. Increasingly employees are prepared to commute long distances to work but are not willing to relocate their families at an organisation's behest. Commitment to self rather than to an organisation may well emerge more strongly as we enter the new millennium.

Some employees have acquired the skills and experience which makes them desirable within an industry. Aware of their own value they are able to command their price in the marketplace. Interestingly, some employees are increasingly

looking at the development opportunities available in a company package when they make the decisions to join an organisation. With shrinking organisations looking for ever more skills and assertive "core" workers recruiters may find it more difficult to attract and retain employees whose development needs are not being met. Similarly employees with enhanced skills will expect to be rewarded for enhanced performance over those who produce merely a good performance. It is likely that many employees will spend longer in each role than might previously have been the case. Imaginative ways of helping employees retain their motivation and commitment need to be found if flexibility -short term contracts - is not to become destructive.

As career patterns are increasingly changing, the management system is redesigned to focus on career enrichment to enable employees find meaning in their work. William Bridges (1994) sees the dawn of jobless society since jobs as we know them are disappearing. He argues that static job definitions may no longer be appropriate to rapidly changing market conditions. He believes that real opportunities for career self - management lie outside the conventional job matrix, and that organisations have a responsibility to help employees to understand their responsibility to themselves.

So how might changing working patterns and short-term contracts influence organisational commitment?

Will ongoing change and the related job insecurity lead to greater conformity and loyalty by employees to the will of employers with people being glad to get work where they can? Or will employees become increasingly independent of an individual employer with people seeing their primary loyalty being to themselves?

Will entrepreneurial employees prefer employment within an environment where they can develop their employment opportunities?

Will knowledge employees be able to command their price in the market place and employers have to find ways of attracting and retaining them by responding to their demands for further development and pay?

Will the most successful employers in this respect be those who place the needs of the employed among their first priorities or the key priority?

These are some questions portraying the potential evolution of the current situation, demonstrating paths to be followed. It is up to the organisations and individuals to decide which path to follow.

However it is argued here that employees decisions will always be determined by the feelings of job insecurity experienced. Since job insecurity is regarded as the major implication of numerical flexibility some light should be shed on this issue.

Job Insecurity

Job insecurity as a major implication of numerical flexibility

In the last few decades organisations have been confronted with many changes in their environment, caused by processes such as intensified global competition, new developments in technology and increasing customer demands, as well as the introduction of new products and services. To meet the increasing demands of the unpredictable environment in which organisations operate, the keyword for organisations has became flexibility, which often means downsizing and reframing the organisation, restructuring jobs and work processes.

Indeed in all the OECD countries, the intensification of market forces is heralding the arrival of 'lean production' in service activities requiring, among others: better deployment of capital; outsourcing of non-core activities; temporary staff; fewer staff; fewer management layers; leaner branch networks; fewer job grades; performance-related pay; and fewer processes that unify a number of related functions through extensive re-engineering.

These developments have consequences for employees, and imply that work relationships are changing (McLean Parks & Kidder, 1994). One of the most radical

consequences of the changes in the workplace in recent years has been the transformation of traditionally secure managerial and professional jobs into insecure ones. Lifetime employment was a guaranteed standard of living. In the eighties the combination of acquisitions, mergers and technological changes rendered many managerial jobs superfluous, while economic pressures led other firms to drastically cut staff for a 'lean and mean' operation. As a result, more than half a million managers in 300 companies in the US either lost their jobs or were eased out between 1984 and 1987 (Willis, 1987), and those that remained often faced new skill requirements, increased performance pressure and decreased rewards (Bardwick, 1988). Moreover, far from being the result of a temporary cyclic downturn, this change is judged by most observers to reflect a major structural transformation in business.

Professionals can no longer assume that their jobs are 'for life' but must now confront job insecurity as a feeling quite unknown to them. In fact these major changes have caused feelings of anxiety stress and insecurity, concerning the nature and continued existence of their employment (Jick 1985; Romzek 1985; Schweiger & Ivancevich 1985). Job insecurity in turn leads to attitudinal reactions, intention to quit, reduced commitment and reduced job satisfaction.

Since the late 1970s considerable efforts have been made to conceptualise job insecurity and identify its effects on employees (Cobb & Kasl, 1977; Jacobson, 1987; Ashford et al., 1989; Hartley et al., 1991). Most researchers (Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990; Hartley et al., 1991) draw on the theory of psychological stress provided by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), in order to conceive job insecurity. Lazarus' theory of psychological stress (Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) is based on the concept of cognitive appraisal; regardless of the objective severity of the danger, the occurrence of psychological stress depends upon the individual's evaluation of the situation as threatening.

Furthermore, precisely when the threat is unclear, it is the eye of the beholder, rather than the characteristics of the situation per se, that determine whether the circumstances are appraised as stressful or not. To the extent that individuals use this often inaccurate and frequently inconsistent information source to anticipate the

personal consequences of organisational changes, they may experience unwarranted insecurity (Schweiger & Ivancevich, 1985). Thus, anticipating major organisational changes should increase job insecurity. Thus, regardless of the objective danger, psychological stress and perceived job insecurity arises from the individual's assessment of the situation as threatening.

Job insecurity refers to the amount of uncertainty a person has about his or her job continuity or continuity of certain aspects of the job (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). Scholars (e.g., Klandermans, Van Vuuren, & Jacobson, 1991) have identified job insecurity as a form of work-related stress which is potentially detrimental to the individual's psychological well being, job attitudes, and behaviours.

In fact, numerous newspapers and magazine articles have presented graphic reports of the personal havoc experienced by managers whose present reality is drastically different from the expectations on which they have built their careers. In a magazine article (Business Week, September 12, 1988, p. 80), middle managers are described as 'unbelievably hurt'.

Literature on job insecurity appear to concur that anticipation of or concern about future job loss may be as traumatic as unemployment itself (Cobb and Kasl, 1977; Depolo and Sarchielli, 1986; Dooley, Rook & Catalano, 1987; Fournier & Roskies, 1988; Roskies, Liker & Roitman, 1988;Van Dijkhuizen, 1980). Job insecurity has also been identified as a predictor of increased medical consultations for psychological distress (Catalano, Rook & Dooley, 1986) and for increased disability claims for back pain (Volinn, Lai, McKinney & Loeser, 1988).

Job insecurity as a factor undermining organisational commitment.

The potential impact of job insecurity is not limited to the well being of the individual. Lean production is a double-edged sword. Although it reduces cost and improves profitability for institutions, it also undermines job security, regarded as the traditional driver of staff motivation and commitment.

Maintaining commitment is a crucial issue in situations of creating new employment deals. Because commitment is linked to the behaviour of employees in their work (service, citizenship, learning, attendance) employers will probably prefer to maintain commitment of their employees when changing the deal. But at the same time employers may want to alter the nature of expected commitment. New forms of commitment might emerge as important in creating new employment deals.

Creating the scope of improvements through flexible patterns of employment is one thing   realising it in a service environment is quite another. It critically depends on the extent to which organisations are able to increase staff motivation and commitment (Hall et al., 1997). Organisations traditionally rewarded employees with job security, in return for their employees loyalty and commitment.

Numerous studies have shown the strong positive relationships between job security and employees commitment. (Argyris, 1960; Ashford et al., 1989; Roskies & Louis Guerin, 1990; Hallier & Lyon 1996). Research has also indicated that people develop affective and attitudinal attachments to organisations over time (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979), which show up as high levels of commitment, satisfaction, and trust. Feelings of job insecurity may threaten such basic attachments to an organisation. Employees count on organisations to dependably uphold their end of the psychological contract between them (Buchanan, 1974). Perceived job insecurity may reflect an individual's perception that a organisation has abrogated the psychological contract – important features seem threatened, the job itself seems at risk, or both. Loyalty should consequently be negatively affected (Romzek, 1985). Unless a new set of effective drivers is developed, lean production carries the risk of generating more pain than gain. After all, any engine room is only as effective as the people who operate it.

Following the perception of job insecurity, attachments to work and organisation also tend to diminish. Harley et al., (1991), for example, found that fears about job security were significantly associated with lower levels of organisational commitment. Indeed concern about employment continuity could negatively affect work commitment, which, in turn, would adversely affect the organisation in which the insecure individual continues to work.

Many popular commentators have seized on this unforeseen consequence, suggesting that business may actually harm rather than help itself in its drive for increased productivity by generating a new breed of alienated managers devoid of loyalty or commitment (Business week, 1986; Hunt, 1986; Sanderson & Schein, 1986).

Here, too, the scientific literature in general, confirms the findings of reduced effort and commitment in insecure workers (Fox & Staw, 1979; Greenhalgh, 1991; Jick, 1985). Again, a major reason firms adopt guaranteed security programs is the boost such programs give to employees' job performance (Bolt, 1983; Rosow & Zager, 1985). Such programs increase performance by giving employees a sure sense of employment continuity. Conversely, organisational leaders implementing major changes often complain about decline in performance during periods of change, when employees perceive job insecurity as high and focus narrowly on personal concerns (Ackerman, 1982).

Brockner (1988) suggested an argument contrary to this prediction. Citing his own laboratory evidence, he suggested that if employees feel they can enhance their job security by working harder, job insecurity might heighten work performance. However, past research regarding work effort has not found this to be the case (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). Moreover (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984) defining job insecurity as "powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation" imply the notion that there is little a person can do to control or alter a situation in which insecurity arises. We would therefore expect perceived job insecurity to be negatively related to organisational commitment and hence job performance. The radical change in employment patterns and its strong psychological impact on those affected have major implications for employees' psychological contract.

Steers (1977) presented evidence consistent with this perspective. Individuals who perceived their organisations to be undependable in carrying out their commitments to employees were, in turn, less committed to their organisations. We assume that job insecurity would be negatively related to both employees' commitment and their trust to a firm (Forbes, 1985). These relationships occur primarily because insecure

employees loose faith in the dependability of organisations, and their attachment to the firms may diminish accordingly. Such employees may also become more self-interested (Freedman, 1986; Romzek, 1985; Rosow & Zager, 1985).

An important outcome of job insecurity was reduced job performance (Mooney, 1984). Organisational changes are perceived as violating employees' psychological contract causing them to experience lack of control and attendant anxiety (Tagiuri, 1979). Changes sometimes threaten such contracts because jobs will, in fact, be either dramatically altered or eliminated. Since job insecurity has a profound effect on employees commitment, organisations should develop a new set of effective drivers. A closer scrutiny of psychological contract and its current development may reveal important information not only about the nature of employee employer relationship but also about the process by which unfortunate human implications could be avoided.

Conclusions

The meaning of "corporate" career changes in substance as well as in promotion opportunities. The concern of employment security as embodied in the notion of a job for life is now outmoded, even in Japan as well as in Europe and USA. The old contract, involving exchange by the organisation of security, steady employment and career development of employees, in return for their loyalty and commitment, appears to have been broken by a range of practices, such as outsourcing downsizing, the use of the contract culture, flexibility and the growth of temporary forms of employment.

There is clearly a continuing trend towards employers seeking greater flexibility in the pattern and organisation of work. Temporary employees working continues to grow and to some extent this is at the expense of full-time permanent jobs. Some types of flexible working, particularly temporary work, are less a matter of choice than an alternative to full-time permanent work.

There is some evidence that employees feel insecure though the extent of insecurity may has been exaggerated, as it is not matched by detectable labor market trends. However, this feeling of insecurity no doubt reflects an awareness that even large organisations may be powerless to protect employment in the face of adverse trading conditions, and has little to do with the nature of the employment contract itself.

Flexible employment contracts have always been used for commercial reasons; as competitive pressures have increased, employers have been less willing to carry employees through periods of low demand. The 'job for life' is likely to be increasingly hard to find, whether for professionals or others.

Job insecurity will continue to be an issue of great concern for a large number of individuals in an era of economic austerity and rapid organisational transformations. It is crucial for managers, professionals and researchers to better understand the job insecurity phenomenon as there is a compelling amount of evidence which has established that job insecurity can have an impact on the effective functioning of organisations (Greenhalgh & Jick, 1989, Greenhalgh, 1991). Further more there are a number of losses of traditional values as long-term employment security disappears. A prominent loss constitutes the loyalty of employer to employee and employee to employer.

Feldman (1988, 1994) suggested that many managers and professionals have a new set of career values. They no longer assume the organisation has unilateral control over their careers, nor that organisations will take care of their employees in a parental fashion. This new careerism has led to some positive consequences for employees: more critical self-analysis; more assertiveness in seeking feedback; more refusals of transfers and promotions that subvert career goals. However, the new careerism may have several potentially negative consequences for organisations as well.

Employees may be less likely to be job involved and committed to their organisations, as employees do not expect to stay in their current positions very long. Life at work may be marked by more inauthentic interpersonal relations and concern with image management as employees strive to create the aura of success. There may

be a greater short-run orientation to business decisions, as employees pay more attention to get the next job than to long- term business goals. How can we sustain productivity, quality, and innovation? These circumstances stem from the mutual commitment of employer and employee. Can commitment be managed under precarious employment and limited job security?

This would be the problem indeed if nothing replaced the traditional values. But rigid forms of employment security can be replaced by the more flexible employability security. This suggests, for one thing, an extension of social safety nets to help people cover the costs of transition. A society that encourages investment in human capital via continuing education, training, and support for venture creation can help people feel secure even when they move across companies or invent their own jobs. And corporate loyalty -surely a mixed virtue in the past in any case- can be replaced by a needed emphasis on professional standards and personal ethics.

Hence, research efforts which seek to add to our understanding of factors which may help to alleviate the strains associated with job insecurity can contribute significantly in the design and implementation of organisational interventions to assist individuals in dealing with this form of work related stress.

Economic viability relies on the performance of the people employed: "the product is irrelevant the key to success is always how you treat people so that they are motivated committed productive and in turn treat your customers well" (Harvey-Jones, 1988).

Chapter 2. Psychological Contract and the new deal in employment

Introduction

In the decades following World War II, constant economic expansion created jobs and raised living standards. New work force entrants looked forward to stable and productive work lives, followed by comfortable retirements.

In this beneficial environment as implicit employment contract evolved between companies and employees. It was understood that employees who did their jobs well (i.e., did what was asked of them) could count on employment until retirement. They would receive increasing wages; benefits would be provided; and job opportunities and promotions would come to those deserving. Work life was predictable and, for the most part, good.

All this has changed in the 1980s and '90s. Increasing global competition, pressures on profits and marginal business are some of the factors, which have combined to alter the face of the economic landscape. Over the last fifteen plus years we have seen bankruptcies, mergers, downsizing, "rightsizing", reduction in work force which have brought about the rewriting of psychological contracts between organisations and employees.

Most organisations today have arrived at an understanding with their employees, which says, "We'll employ you for as long as we need your work contributions for us to succeed in business. We have no obligation to employ you beyond that point". For employees who entered the work force with expectations of lifelong employment, this radical alteration of the psychological employment contract has been shocking and traumatic. Moreover the new comers in the employment life for example young graduates have grown up with the assumptions of the lifelong model of employment. Virtually all employees have faced the need to adjust their employment expectations.

However employers know that making a successful adjustment to this change has enormous implications in terms of sustained competitive advantage based on the ability to access and retain a committed and skilled work force. Human resource professionals will find themselves caught in competing loyalties as their roles in this change process evolve. This chapter offers insight into the changing psychological contract and its impact on employee – employer relationships. In particular it explores the emerging new psychological contract redefines its content and principles and provides evidence based on recent research revealing coping mechanisms towards adjustment.

Psychological contract

The concept of psychological contract was first used by Argyris (1960) and subsequently by Levinson et al. (1962) and Schein (1978; 1989). It refers to the perceptions of mutual obligations to each other held by the two parties in the employment relationship, the organisation and the employee. Such perceptions may be the result of formal contracts, or they may be implied by the expectations which each holds of the other.

These expectations are communicated in a multitude of subtle or not so subtle ways (written documents, oral discussion, organisational practices or policies, and so on) (Roussaeu & Greler, 1994; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). These varied sources imply that the psychological contract is a very broad construct, encompassing not only obligations established via a formal or an implied contract, but also perceived obligations and expectations that result from more implicit means. Indeed Rousseau (1989) made a clear distinction between psychological contracts, composed of expectations held by an individual that may or may not be shared by others, and implied contacts, which consist of commonly understood or shared expectations.

In other words psychological contract is defined as expectations about the reciprocal obligations that compose an employee-organisation exchange relationship. More specifically, they define a psychological contract as a set of beliefs about what each

party is entitled to receive, and obligated to give, in exchange for another party's contributions (Levinson et al., 1962)

Mutual obligations are the essence of the employment contract (Rousseau, 1989) defining the relationship between employee and employer. Employees agree to make specific contributions to an organisation in return for benefits from the employer (Nicholson & Johns, 1985). Recent trends in the nature of these mutual obligations have received considerable attention. Managers have decried the decline of employee loyalty, while at the same time work force members have been counseled to eschew reliance on job security or employer commitment and to "pack their own parachutes" instead (Hirsch, 1988).

MacNeil's (1985) typology of contracts can be used to categorise psychological contracts. MacNeil argued that there are *two contract types: transactional and relational*. Transactional contracts focus on short-term monetizable exchange involving little or no emotional commitment by the employee. Relational contracts in contrast involve open-ended less specific agreements that establish and maintain a relationship based on affective interdependence.

The transition occurring in the employment relationship, the last several years, gave rise to a renewed interest in the psychological contract between employee and organisation (e.g., Lucero & Allen, 1994); McLean Parks & Schmedemann, 1994;, Robinson et al., 1994; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). These works clarify and emphasise several aspects of psychological contract that distinguish them from related constructs.

The changing content of the psychological contract

During the last decade organisations have been confronted with increased competition and globalisation of market. Therefore they have been forced to seek to remain competitive by improving productivity technology and cutting costs. Organisations have increasingly reduced their workforce and removed some of the entitlements such as job security regular promotion up the ladder of hierarchy annual

wage increases. Restructuring also involved reduction on grades and flatter hierarchies resulted in reduced opportunities for promotion.

The flexible, delayered, slimmer organisation constantly changing to suit its volatile and shifting markets can no longer offer the secure employment and career progression of traditional structures. However these were perceived - by employees, whose perceptions of their psychological contract were formed in previous years - to be the main obligations that they were owed by their organisations in exchange for their own loyalty, conformity and effort. The consequences have been predictable. Individuals have felt angry at the unilateral breaking of the psychological contract and at the same time insecure, having lost trust in the organisation. Overall, they have lost their previous feelings of commitment to the organisation.

In turn organisations lost something they had taken for granted at a time when they desperately need the commitment of their employees to help them compete and survive (Kissler, 1994). Indeed the massive amount of organisational change that took place in the 1980s damaged considerably the employment relationship. Implementing changes while discounting human needs can be dangerous for organisational survival and success.

Such issues of motivation and morale are fundamental at present, since lean organisations need effort and commitment to get the work done, and at the same time a willingness to take risks in pursuit of innovation. Organisations realised they didn't just need more efficient processes and technology in order to compete but also motivated and committed people.

The above considerations raise enormous implications for human resource management. The changing psychological contract is crucial to the nature of careers and the treatment of people as key organisational assets in the next decades. What will organisations expect of their employees when they are faced with even greater competition, internationalisation and integration of functions? And what will employees expect of their employer when faced with increased career risk and uncertainty? How can the two sets of expectations be reconciled?

These are only a few questions, but they represent key problems that human resource managers face as they try to renew and redefine the principles and content of the psychological contract, which aim at ensuring employees commitment in the 1990s.

Psychological contracts, made up of employees' beliefs about the reciprocal obligations between them and their organisation, lie at the foundation of employment relationships (Rousseau, 1989; Schein, 1989). Yet the increased reliance on temporary employees and the change in life style – are having profound effects on employees' psychological contracts (Kissler, 1994; Morrison, 1994).

In the post war decades most people enjoyed a sense of stability and permanence within the organisation. The organisational structure was clear and employees could accurately foresee their current and future career within the same organisation. This clarity created a great deal of predictability and security for employees, and fostered their loyalty and commitment to the organisation. In addition the promise of job security, powerful, probably led employees to see their own long-term interests as intimately bound up with the long-term fortunes of the organisation. It is likely that this encouraged them to invest time and effort acquiring knowledge about their organisation's specific products, markets, technology and customers, on the assumption that such knowledge would be useful to them, as well as their organisation, in the future.

In return for this loyalty and commitment, the employer would provide a tenure, offer regular advancement opportunities, provide annual wage increases, reward outstanding or loyal employees with higher-paid posts, provide benefits, and invest money in the education and development of employees, being reasonably confident that their newly acquired skills would not be immediately lost to another company. In other words, the relationship between employer and employee was well tied. The employee received job security and the employer, in turn, acquired a stable committed staff ready to go the extra mile as Herriot at al (1995) put it. Hence there is considerable evidence that the nature of the psychological contract has changed dramatically in light of the employment conditions described above. Perhaps the most important change has been the huge decline in job security offered to employees as the "old deal" gives way to the "new deal".

Contract Violation

The variety of trends – restructuring, downsizing, increased reliance on temporary workers, demographic diversity, and foreign competition – are having profound effects on employees' psychological contracts (Kissler, 1994; Morrison, 1994).

The state of turbulence and uncertainty make it increasingly unclear what employees and organisations owe one another, because traditional assurance of job security and steady rewards in return for hard work and loyalty no longer exist in most cases (Sims, 1994). Organisations caught unable to fulfil all of the promises that they make to employees (McLean Parks & Kidder, 1994). The result is a perception on the part of many employees that the terms of their psychological contracts have not been adequately fulfilled (McLean Parks & Schmedemann, 1994; Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994). The term that has been used for this belief is psychological contract violation. Yet this is an important issue to understand, because the experience of violation can have serious individual and organisational implications. Researchers have found that violation decreases employees' trust toward their employers, satisfaction with their jobs and organisations, perceived obligation to their organisation, and intentions to remain (Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

Moreover violation has been found to have a negative impact on employee behaviour, causing potentially valuable employees either to reduce their contributions to their organisations or to exit the employment relationship altogether (Robinson et al., 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). In a recent study, authors found that extra-role or citizenship behaviour in particular may suffer following violation (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). There is also evidence that in extreme cases of violation, employees may seek revenge or retaliation, engaging in sabotage, theft, or aggressive behaviour (Fisher & Barron, 1982; Greenberg, 1990). Violation also may lead to expensive lawsuits, which, if publicised, may damage an organisation's external reputation (McLean Parks & Schmedemann, 1994). In light of the above information it is of both practical and theoretical importance to understand how

psychological contract violation could be avoided. Psychological contracts therefore can play a key role in employees motivation and commitment (Rousseau, 1989).

Although psychological contract violation has been discussed by several authors, its conceptualisation has been unclear. On one hand, violation has been defined, particularly in empirical studies, as the perception that one's organisation has failed to fulfil one or more obligations composing one's psychological contract (Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau & Mclean Parks, 1993). This definition suggests that violation is cognitive, reflecting a mental calculation of what one has received relative to what one was promised. On the other hand, the term violation conveys a strong emotional experience. Violation has been described as involving "feelings of betrayal and deeper psychological distress [whereby]... the victim experiences anger, resentment, a sense of injustice and wrongful harm" (Rousseau, 1989).

This description implies that violation goes far beyond the mere cognition that a promise has been broken, and it is reasonable to assume that employees perceiving that their organisation has failed to fulfil an obligation experience the strong affective response associated with the term violation. Consistent with research on emotions (e.g., Oatley, 1992) is the argument that feelings of violation are distinct from the cognitive evaluations that underlie them and that a complex interpretation process intercedes between the two.

However the term violation is the emotional and affective state that may, under certain conditions, follow from the belief that one's organisation has failed to adequately maintain the psychological contract. This conceptualisation is consistent with research within the psychology literature, in which emotions are viewed as based on cognitive appraisals of particular events (Frijda, 1988; Oatley, 1992, Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988). Thus, violation is an emotional experience, yet it arises from an interpretation process that is cognitive in nature.

In turn, employees will resist changes not only because they are painful, but also because they will perceive the change to violate the implicit contract, and thus to be unjust or unfair. Yet it should be noted that the violation of transactional or relational

contract may differ appreciably. Violation tends to create mere inequity in transactional exchange. Such inequity may be resolved by adjusting transactional obligations to restore the balance between mutual contributions. In contrast violation of relational obligations may affect and destroy the relationship itself. Accordingly the damage to the relational obligations caused by violation may often be irreparable.

The new employment reality involves disappointment frustration and distress stemming from the perceived failure to receive something that is both expected and desired (Ortony et al., 1988; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). In addition central to this experience are feelings of anger, resentment, bitterness, indignation and even outrage that emanate from the perception that one has been betrayed or mistreated (Ortony et al., 1988; Pousseau, 1989; Schein, 1965).

Under the new employment trends it is increasingly unclear what employees and organisations owe one another, because traditional assurance of job security and steady rewards in return for hard work and loyalty no longer exist in most cases (Sims, 1994). Second, the state of turbulence and uncertainty makes it difficult for organisations to fulfil all the obligations that they make to employees (McLean Parks & Kidder, 1994). Yet more than ever the organisation needs the employees commitment in order to succeed. The pressure is to do things better.

Making a successful adjustment to this change has enormous implications in terms of sustained competitive advantage based on the ability to access and retain a committed and skilled workforce. Organisations faced with such pressures are desperately asking, how can we elicit and maintain the loyalty and commitment of our employees when job security promotion opportunities and career entitlements are in decline?

Is there anything to replace the above longstanding employee values in order to avoid the feeling of contract violation and its subsequent detrimental consequences such as cynicism and lack of commitment? What is the content of the emerging new psychological contract upon which the exchange relationship between employee and employer will be based on?

Next heading will present recent research revealing the coping strategies organisations suggested to maintain organisational commitment under the new employment realities.

Reviewing the new deal: coping mechanisms

Russel L Curtis (1989) identified that organisational cutbacks have important theoretical and practical implications for employees and organisations. Retrenchments leading to staff reductions or use of temporary staff are a common occurrence in business. These initiatives tended to exacerbate the existing problems, especially those of employees morale, trust, depression, and productivity.

Problems of morale, trust, and rumors are common to retrenching organisations (Behn, 1980; Gilmore, 1983 a, b; Greenhalgh 1982), especially throughout the lower organisational rungs. Cynicism, as a product of subverted ideals (Goldner, Ritti, & Ference, 1977), is commonly reported for cutback settings. In turn, cynicism expands and crystallizes resistance and distrust. Persons who escape severance may also suffer. Krantz (1985) has observed a "survivor's syndrome" wherein those spared "feel guilty and ambivalent about keeping their posts." During 1986-1987, personal accounts of guilt, remorse, nervous tension, etc were extensively reported in newspapers throughout the oil producing Southwestern states, especially in New Orleans and in Houston.

Inferences here have been anticipated. Rapid organisational change under conditions of declining resources can generate all of the responses of emergency and insecurity. Fear, suspicion, and conflicts ensue. Behn (1980) has noted that "retrenchment invariably erodes an organisation's morale."

Increasing insecurity typically detracts from trust (Hall, 1982), creates a climate of negative messages and unfavorable news directed downward (Hall, 1982), and, as a sum of interactive effects, is joined by lowered morale (Champion, 1975). In turn, morale becomes more problematic by losses of influence, participatory access, supportive or positive "news" and trust. Secrecy may be employed, especially where

decisions are contested (Pfeffer, 1978). For the employee at risk, the emotional responses tend to sum as fear and guilt. Written accounts from members of several public and private organisational settings in a large Southwestern city now operating under emergency reductions indicated fear of losing jobs, performance anxiety if reassigned, guilt when retained while others were released, and a distrust of managers directing the reorganisations.

Distrust is expressed even for those conditions designed to ameliorate the shocks of crisis reorganisation. Many employees formally included in the processes (meetings, task forces and written recommendations) perceive their roles as inauthentic or as cynical pawns in a pre-designed outcome (Gilmore, 1983),. And some employees, especially those in public bureaucracies with participatory provisions, find themselves in the conflicting position of engaging in deliberations which will either downgrade their positions or force their own terminations.

As Rubin (1984) has observed, "the longer term consequences [of retrenchments] include a more hostile relationship between management and labor and the substitution or an incentive system for quality of work life as a spur to productivity." At this point in the organisational history of retrenchments and cutbacks, such results may be inevitable. Solutions may lie beyond organisations as single units. Many who direct the changes are themselves constrained in the process.

However Brockner et al., (1993) found that in response to the perceived threat of further layoffs, unstable employment employees low in trait self-esteem were more likely than their high self-esteem counterparts to: (1) feel worried, and (2) translate their feelings of worry into increased work motivation. In general, survivors or temporary employees react more negatively (e.g., their organisational commitment suffers) when: the layoffs are judged as relatively unfair, and the changes in working conditions are experienced more as threats rather than opportunities.

At first blush, the results suggest that downsizing organisations may be better off with low self-esteem employees. After all, low Ses felt more worried when perceived threat was high, and were more likely to translate their feelings of worry into increased work motivation. In addition to the question of whether it is feasible to

selectively choose low Ses as survivors, it is far from certain that a downsizing organisation would be better served by low self-esteem survivors or temps. There may be some hidden costs attached to the high motivation shown by the worry-laden low Ses. Perhaps low Ses become extremely focused only on those activities that will enable them to keep their jobs, and neglect other tasks that will help the organisation achieve its short and long-term goals. Put differently, and somewhat ironically, low self-esteem employees who experience threat-produced worry may simultaneously become more involved with their job and less committed to the organisation.

Daniel Feldman (1996) examines the issues involved in managing careers in downsizing firms from both the organisation's and the individual's perspective and suggests some useful strategies such as internal and external mobility through updating training that individuals can employ to manage their careers during changes in employment patterns. Increasing internal job mobility may have some of the same benefits, as does external mobility for employees' careers within downsizing firms.

By seeking out opportunities to develop new competencies in different areas, employees may make themselves more valuable to their present firms and at the same time, make themselves more valuable in the external labor market should they decide to leave. In addition, employees who have had some cross-functional assignments may be more readily redeployed if layoffs occur in their units and may be more desirable as managers of restructured units encompassing a broader array of activities.
For employees who work in fixed term contracts firms, seeking out cross training in other functional areas may be an especially judicious career strategy. On the defensive side, cross training helps employees retain internal mobility should layoffs or involuntary redeployments occur. On the proactive side, cross training may increase employees' external marketability should they be laid off or otherwise choose to seek more attractive job opportunities elsewhere.

The issue of retraining is somewhat more complex. In some cases, improvements in technology have made some jobs obsolete or have tremendously curtailed employment in particular industries. In other cases, major changes in labor markets

have created an oversupply of labor, which will take years to dissipate. In still other cases, major changes in consumer markets have led to excess pools of labor; for example, the U.S. probably has too many workers currently employed in the defense and aerospace industries relative to customer demand. Under these circumstances, seeking retraining may be the only realistic alternative to employment or underemployment.

Kaufman (1995) describes an innovative approach to retraining displaced technical professionals. These individuals were retrained to become certified math and science teachers for junior and senior high schools, where they are in great demand. Firms such as Digital Equipment, IBM, Kodak, Polaroid, and Rockweel International have participated in this program, along with over a dozen other firms.

Whether employees seek cross training or retraining, it is critical that they focus on developing skills, which are relatively easily transferable across organisations and industries. Perhaps ironically, developing extensive organisation-specific skills may delay or forestall the likelihood of being laid off – but once laid off, having extensive organisation specific skills can be an impediment to finding new employment externally. Consequently, employees should focus their efforts on getting cross-training in areas where there are the greatest opportunities for skill transfer in the outside labour market.

Not surprisingly, employee loyalty to corporations undergoing successive restructurings and downsizings is low; it is difficult for employees to feel committed to some organisation whose continued existence is in doubt (Hirsch, 1987). As a result, the traditional tactics of trying to build corporate loyalty through orientation and socialization programs may be less likely to succeed (Noer, 1993). Instead, downsizing firms may wish to increase employee attachment by building up commitment to the work itself through training and self esteem (Hackman & Oldham, 1980) or to the work team through trust (Wanous, Reichers & Malik, 1984). In other words, it may be easier to create positive attachment to more immediate stimuli (such as the job or the work group) than to create commitment to an amorphous, distant, and sometimes threatening corporate entity through short term practices or vague promises.

Winstanley & Ebadam (1997) have focused on survivors of downsizing and delayering getting their views about the impact of these changes on their careers and their perceptions of how the new career paths could and should be forged. The survey has revealed a number of issues.

Although many employees preferred employability to job security, and had a horizontal focus rather than vertical one, may were still likely to be demotivated by lack of promotion. In the context of downsizing industry, these are important issues if employers are to continue to motivate their key staff while managing on-going severance programs. Employers need to understand their employees' needs and aspirations if they are to develop appropriate career management policies. Employees differ in their career orientations and motivations.

A number of HR initiatives are suggested to tackle these all-too common effects of downsizing and delayering. These initiatives included a management development program the Corporate Management Review program (CMRP) – together with other self-development initiatives such as assessment centers and open learning centers. The employer needs to explain the company's situation and motives to employees and listen to their aspirations and fears. This might prevent individuals from becoming more instrumental in their contact orientation, and foster greater trust. Open learning centers, assessment centers and continuous appraisals may address some of the issues of poor communication.

Finally, rather than the individual' 'going the extra mile' (as Herriot and Pemberton (1995) put it), the onus is on the organisation to do so to tackle the widespread view that career prospects are worsening and avoid wider demotivation.

Stiles et al., (1997) examine performance management process as a key contribution to describe and explain levels of commitment and trust in three large U.K. organisations which are undergoing large scale change.
The changing market conditions have, however brought to an end the promise of job security and defined career paths. The major moves the firms have made in light of this have been (i) to decentralize and devolve power to business unit managers, and

(ii) to restructure the performance management system in order to maintain commitment. The main planks of this strategy have been to increase incentives, engender greater employee voice and participation (particularly in the appraisal process) and redefine development to embrace the notion of employability. In terms of the fairness and accuracy of the performance management systems, the evidence suggests that employees are largely disenchanted. Lack of negotiation in objective setting, question-marks over the achievability of targets, variability and inconsistency in appraisal, lack of opportunities for development, in particular career development, and a large degree of mystification over the working of the appraisal-pay linkage, were indicative of this concern.

Any organisational change can be viewed as producing incidents of contract violation, with new policies and processes making statements which are at odds with the status quo (Rousseau and Parks, 1993). The problem with the three companies studied is that employees, to a large extent, have interpreted the changes negatively. This is in part due to the fact that the old contract has produced *certainty and consistency* and there will naturally be resistance to the changing of such a relationship. But the manner of the introduction of the new contract has done little to restore the good faith of employees.

The neglect of procedural justice – granting employees involvement in determining decisions about change, giving input during objective setting and performance evaluations – has been a serious weakness in reshaping the performance management processes, and employees feel disenfranchised by the change process (and the new contract making process), consequently holding less trust in the firm's senior management. The result has been employee passivity ('you can ignore this change because there will be another initiative along next year') and, in some cases, withdrawal ('just keep your head down and try to survive'). As a consequence, morale and commitment have suffered.

Indeed such is the extent of the violation of the old contract, it is unlikely that trust and commitment will be easily recovered.

Rajan & Eupen (1994, 1996) conducting research on 150 organisations assessing the extent to which the concept of job security is being replaced by one of employability

found that three in five institutions have been replacing traditional security by employability 'to some extent', in the last three years.

In the process, institutions appear to be giving a new meaning to the term security, through a circular process with multiple sequential objectives:

♦ To weaken the culture of lifetime employment in delayered downsized organisations;

♦ To improve internal employability under a new culture which enables staff to perceive their employers as customers of their (labor) services;

♦ To encourage staff to perceive themselves as 'self-employed' persons with strong commitment to retain their customers' business;

♦ To acquire progressive skills that facilitate this new relationship, while preparing them for careers inside and outside their current organisations.

The changes constitute a departure from the notion of jobs-for-life to one based on a flexible employer-employee relationship. Under the implicit contract of previous decades, both sides displayed a strong sense of loyalty to one another as a matter of unspoken truth. Now, under an evolving relationship, loyalty can be 'earned' openly in a market-type environment where the "content of exchange" is supposed to be clear and understood.

As such these changes mark a move away from a paternalistic towards a performance culture from providing life-time employment in one institution to improving an individual's employability in many others. That, at any rate, was the intention when rationalization started in organisations in 1990s. However the process has been long on intentions and short on deliverables. The main reasons were first institutions' actions have had a greater impact on internal rather than external employability. A majority of the institutions have been concerned about preparing individuals for the needs of their own employees and not preparing staff for life after their current job. This observation applies to all the industries in the financial sector.

Furthermore, the loss of long-established trust caused by the culture shift has made it hard to manage the inevitable ambiguity caused by a mammoth change. The problem

has been compounded by the implicit nature of the culture change process itself. Many of the staff still need to be convinced about the redefinition of the term security. That means corresponding changes in values and ensuring commitment to these changes. Tackling cynicism and improving staff motivation by designing a new reward system and a winning culture. Unless this is done, the current initiatives on employability will amount to nothing other than a cyclical response, which will do little to improve the individuals employability and organisational performance. In all, the existing cases describe damaged relations and dysfunctional authority structures in retrenchment settings.

Consequently what unites the above presented research is two things. First all point to a perception of promises not kept and unfairness in how decisions are made. In other words, a neglect of procedural justice and trust. Secondly there is a belief that any kind of new psychological contract or new deal need a process of training ensuring employability. Thus employability security and trust are the emerging coping mechanisms for the new deal.

Employability Security

In recent years much rhetoric has been devoted to the concept of Employability Security (Kanter 1992; Herriot & Pemberton 1995; Waterman 1994) This is because Employability security is regarded as the new face of job security or the remedy for job insecurity experienced by employees on insecure employment contracts.

At the same time, new value trends and changing workforce demographics have resulted in revised expectations from the employees themselves. Social trends seem to bring about significant shift in employee attitudes and values relating to career management, leadership styles, rewards and motivation. (Sparrow & Hiltrop. 1994). According to the new generation of professionals workers want more opportunities for development, autonomy, flexibility and meaningful experiences. They want to participate fully in the work environment. react adver ely to rigid hierarchies and denounce a lack of involvement in decisions affecting them.

Recent surveys carried out by the International Survey Research (1991) in Britain show that young people brought up in an atmosphere of peace and relative affluence are more concerned with their quality of life, are more critical of employers and authority, and seek jobs which are challenging as well as useful for society. Older workers, particularly those over 50, are more likely to emphasise the Protestant work ethic, whereas the young value independence, imagination, tolerance and responsibility. In addition the increasing employment of women and the growing number of dual career couples are shifting the balance between the family and the workplace, creating increased demands for more autonomy and more flexibility in the way individuals are treated. Apparently among professionals the ideal job is seen as offering flexibility, autonomy, responsibility, variety and opportunities for training and development, than career advancement through rigid hierarchies.

However job insecurity is still present. To the extent that job insecurity has become a relatively permanent state for larger numbers of employees, and that it has been shown to have a negative effect on an individual's job attitudes, work behaviours, and psychological health, it is important to identify the factors that may reduce or eliminate the detrimental effects of job insecurity or, to put it differently, is there anything to replace job security?

According to Moss Kanter (1992), organisations need to switch incentives from careers, status and promotion to personal reputation, teamwork and challenging assignments. They have to find ways of making work sufficiently challenging and involving so that it becomes a source of loyalty which translates into a new kind of security, which she calls " Employability Security". This is the promise that the employee's skills will be enhanced, and access to other tasks and assignments will be facilitated. Their knowledge and skills should be transferable across organisations or better still across sectors. Moreover as employees desire their security from their employability particular attention should be paid to the rapid technical obsolescence occurring in recent years. Updating skills is a real necessity. Professionals are only in demand for as long as they have to offer additional value to organisations.

In the new era of employment, employees are employed as long as they add value to the organisation, and they are personally responsible for findings new ways to add

value. Increasingly, people are being pushed to maintain their personal income and employability, by planning, building, and leading their own development, and professional reputation, and learn to manage their own careers (Handy, 1989).

In return, the employee has the right to demand interesting and important work, have autonomy and resources to perform it well, receive pay that reflects their contribution, and get the experience and training needed to ensure their employability. What matters now are job enrichment, employability and providing the opportunity for employees to develop the skills and perspective to take care of themselves.

With the increasing use of information technology to systematise their knowledge, and with their dependence on organisational resources to be able to practice their profession, professionals have a dependence upon organisations for employment which may match the organisation's dependence on them for what they have to offer. It is possible that their major offer is now the ability to innovate rather than the exercise of specific occupational skills (Van Maanen & Barley, 1984).

Professionals tend to have an identity of which their profession is a major component. They frequently define career in terms of occupational progress and reputation rather than organisational promotion. Indeed, many professionals may be regarded as having failed professionally when they become managers. They acquire professional rather than organisational norms during their formation, and their prime concern is with the self-managed achievement of good work rather than with advancement.

Some management thinkers are arguing that instead of the traditional focus on employment, the focus should be now on employability. In other words, we should forget about remaining desperately in one job, one organisation, or one career path. What matters now is having the competitive skills required to find work when we need it, whenever we can find it.

Entering into a new contract the employer and the employee share responsibility for maintaining – even enhancing – the individual's employability inside and outside the

organisation. Under the old contract, employees entrusted major decisions affecting their careers to a paternal organisation. Often, the result was a dependent employee and a relative static workforce with a set of static skills. Under the new contract, employers give individuals the opportunity to develop greatly enhanced employability in exchange for better productivity and some degree of commitment to company purpose and community for as long as the employee works there. It is the employee's responsibility to manage his or her own career. It is the organisation's responsibility to provide employees with the tools, the open environment, and the opportunities for assessing and developing their skills. And it is the responsibility of managers at all levels to show that they care about their employees whether or not they stay with the company. The result is a group of self-reliant workers – or a career-resilient workforce – and a company that can thrive in an era in which the skills needed to remain competitive are changing at a dizzying pace (Waterman, 1994).

By a career-resilient workforce, we mean a group of employees who not only are dedicated to the idea of continuous learning but also stand ready to reinvent themselves to keep pace with change; who take responsibility for their own career management; and last but not least, who are committed to the company's success. For each individual, this means staying aware about markets trends and understanding the skills and behaviours the company will need in short and long-term. It means being aware of one's own skills - of one's strengths and weakness – and having a plan for enhancing one's performance and long-term employability. It means having the willingness and ability to respond quickly and flexibly to changing business needs.

Over the long run, companies have a lot to gain from encouraging career resilience. But there is also an immediate reason to adopt this approach: employees are beginning to demand it, say corporate leaders. People are angry these days when they find that they lack the skills needed to get another job. People are angry when their employees break the old contract and offer nothing to take its place. Organisations need to give employees the tools to benchmark their skills and experience with what the job market inside and outside the company is demanding.

We are not saying that a company should relinquish its rights to judge what skills it needs in its workforce in order to be competitive, and what training that involves. What we are saying is that, in addition, all employees should have the right to demand the training and challenging work experiences they need to update their skills. They have a right to minimise the risk of winding up stuck in a dead-end or vulnerable job. In other words, employers should be partners in the continuous process of benchmarking and updating skill.

Training and development are important elements in the make-up of psychological contract, not only because they act as inducements for employees to maintain commitment to the organisation, but also in terms of employer expectations, who consider the development of highly-trained workers with firm-specific skills as a major factor for securing competitive advantage (Hamel & Prahalad, 1995). Further, there is the symbolic value of training and development which is relevant to psychological contract, since they serve to demonstrate the values the company places on employees (Rainbird, 1994). The provision of good training and development opportunities is viewed as a characteristic dimension of a relational contract (Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994).

The provision of long-term career paths, too, is considered a clear constituent of a relational contract (Rousseau, 1996), but the restructuring activity means that the idea of an organisational career has to be redefined (McGovern et al., 1995). In addition to spelling out that career movement would consist more of lateral, rather than vertical, moves, a key message from employers was that career development is now the responsibility of individuals, and not that of the organisation. Individuals were expected to network and "push themselves forward" if they wanted promotion (McGovern et al., 1995).

However employees viewed the idea of employability with scepticism (e.g. "it's a management cop-out"; "it's a rationalisation of the fact they have no plan or processes"). Richard Pascale (1995) stresses more cynically that employability can be seen as a convenient figleaf to hide the loss of opportunity while organisations are actually rather powerless to offer anything else. He for instance has called employability "empty rhetoric, the sound of hand clapping....an ill thought-through

concept with more hope than substance". In careers, the lack of promotion opportunities, and an unwillingness to accept that lateral moves were as important as vertical ones, brought great dissatisfaction with the career process. Employees also felt that they had little real influence in developing their own careers. And still wanted a clear direction from the organisation.

However organisations have to embrace the notion of the employability. Previously, the organisations would provide development opportunities, absorbing much of the anxiety employees might otherwise face (Rousseau & Greller, 1994). Now with changed circumstances, the firms are replacing the old promise of job security with the promise of developing skills, which would make them employable in the external labour market. The traditional job security is being replaced by employability security, hence many people will have to reconsider their career aspirations and abilities. Perceptions of fairness in the reward process are crucial if rewards are to function as a motivator for employees (Storey & Sisson, 1993) and are central to the psychological contract.

Trust

Although the topic of trust has long been of interest to organisational scholars, a variety of workplace trends have led to a renewed focus on its nature, antecedents, and consequences (Whitney, 1994; Kramer and Tyler, 1995; Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995). As organisations have become flatter and more team-based, organisational authorities' surveillance of their subordinates has given way to less dictatorial modes of interpersonal influence. Perhaps now more than ever, managers' effectiveness depends on their ability to gain the trust of their subordinates.

Trust is the notion that conveys the underlying philosophy 'of faith in people'. Trust is defined as a belief held by an individual that the word, promise or oral or written statement of another individual or group can be relied on (Peter, 1987). Peter (1987) also argues that there is no better way to generate commitment to build excitement in the job and release energies than through trust.

People considered to be trustworthy behave in ways expected of them in the absence of surveillance. They do not merely comply with external forces, such as surveillance pressures, but have internalised the behaviours (Kelman, 1961). Although trust is important in many interpersonal relationships in work organisations (e.g., McAllister, 1995), the focus here is on employees' trust for people in authority positions, such as their immediate supervisor or members of higher levels of management. Studies have shown that trust in organisational authority influences a variety of subordinates' work attitudes and behaviours. In general, employees are more supportive of or committed to authorities, and the institutions that the authorities represent, when trust is relatively high (Whitney, 1994; Kramer & Tyler, 1995). Support for organisational authorities may be manifested in a variety of ways. People who feel supportive of organisational authorities are likely to be: (a) satisfied with their relationship with the authorities, (b) committed to the organisation, and (c) willing to behave in ways that help to further the authorities' goals and, by extension, the goals of the organisation. For instance, Konovsky and Pugh (1994) found that employees were more likely to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours when they were relatively trusting of their supervisor.

The building of mutual trust in an organisation is one of the hallmarks of successful organisation. For organisation to be trusted this requires clear goal-setting-communication involvement sound policies consistently applied and respect for people. Employees feel trusted when they employ a degree of accountability for results, autonomy, discretion, sharing information, having a say on organisational policies and practices.

Satisfying these demands requires openness and a genuine commitment by managers to honesty, two-way communication, and delegating authority and responsibility to the lowest possible level. Clearly, winning trust without the traditional job security can be very difficult. However, all employees deserve at least an explanation of how that change will affect them and what the company will or will not do to help.

A classic problem for managers is how to maintain their subordinates' support when making decisions that lead to relatively unfavourable outcomes for the affected parties. Research findings suggest that by showing themselves to be trustworthy,

managers may be able to maintain support, at least temporarily, even when making decisions that lead to relatively unfavourable outcomes.

Moreover, Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler, Martin, (1997) have discovered that when the organisation candidly explains its problems to employees, their commitment to the company and their work increases, even if the news is bad. Consequently, moving from concealment to openness is one of the main leadership challenges of the 1990s. The development of a climate of trust between organisation and employees is critical if commitment is to be gained.

Conclusions

The discussion in this chapter suggests a number of important messages for organisations. Flexibility does not offer any shortcuts to securing efficiency. In order to manage the flexible workforce, managers need to establish a positive psychological contract. This means, for example:

♦ recognizing the need to build employee commitment and loyalty through involvement, consultation and communication

♦ providing training and career development opportunities for all employees

♦ implementing personnel policies that ensure fair and equal treatment.

The IPD research (1996) shows that simply reducing the size of the workforce in order to reduce costs is fraught with risk. Organisations may need to make difficult judgements about balancing skills, employment costs and product or service quality. Genuine 'lean systems' depend on maintaining a high level of trust between managers and employees: the necessary changes in behavior cannot simply be imposed. Research into psychological contract (Holbech, 1994) shows that 'a history of redundancy or lay-off in the work place is by far the most important negative influence on relations in employing organisations'.

In these circumstances it is not entirely surprising that some of the people who originally took the lead in urging managers to downsize and employ contract

employees have subsequently concluded that 'if all you do is cut then you will eventually be left with nothing. Corporate anorexia or amnesia are just two of the possible consequences. The pressure on managers to reduce costs will undoubtedly continue. Unfortunately there is little research evidence available at this stage showing how organisations have successfully managed the process of flexible employment patterns and organisational commitment.

Therefore employers may be unable to secure employees' commitment and maintain their competitiveness unless they can offer employees a degree of commitment of their own. Provided flexible employment practices are adopted and managed as part of considered strategy, they can bring practical benefits to both *employers and* employees.

Chapter 3. Organisational Commitment

Definition of organisational commitment (OC)

A review of literature on organisational commitment reveals that a substantial amount of time and energy has been devoted to the conceptualisation and definition of this topic. In fact the concept of organisational commitment has been defined in several different ways (Becker 1960, Porter Mowday & Boulian 1974; Mowday, Porter & Steers 1982; Reichers 1985; Kanter 1968; Hrebiniak & Alutto 1973; Sheldon 1971; Meyer & Allen 1987;)

The term commitment enjoys an increasing interest in sociological discussion prior to 1960. Sociologists use it in analyses of both individual and organisational behaviour. They use it as a descriptive concept to mark out forms of action characteristic of particular kinds of people or groups. They use it as an independent variable to account for certain kinds of behaviour of individuals and groups. They use it in analyses of a wide variety of phenomena; power, religion, occupational recruitment, bureaucratic behaviour, and so on. In spite of its widespread use, the appearance of the concept of commitment in sociological literature has little formal analysis and little attempt to integrate it explicitly with current organisational theory. Instead, it has been treated as a primitive concept, introduced where the need is felt without explanation or examination of its character. As is often the case with unanalysed concepts used in an ad hoc fashion, the term has been made to cover a wide range of common sense meanings with predictable ambiguities.

However Becker (1960) first attempted to analyse and define the concept of organisational commitment as "consistent behaviour". His theory of organisational commitment known as "side bets theory" explains the mechanisms under which a person is "engaged in consistent lines of activity". Becker's notion of "side-bets" posits that people become locked into particular courses of action because of past investments (e.g. non-transferable pension funds) which would be lost if the course of action were terminated. Therefore commitment is viewed as a tendency to

"engage in consistent line of activity" (Becker 1960) based on the individual's recognition of the costs associated with discontinuing the activity.

Similarly, Salancik (1977) has described the process by which individuals come to develop a sense of psychological ownership of their actions, and hence a commitment to following them through. For example, people feel that an employee ought not to change his job too often and that one who does is erratic and untrustworthy hence he or she is unwilling to risk his or her reputation by leaving the job. Therefore Salancik (1977) views commitment as a desire of "internal consistency" defining it as "a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs which sustain them". Due to this desire for internal consistency, an individuals attitudes and beliefs may not be simply determinants of behaviour but also *consequences of it*.

This approach assumes that an act once performed is itself irrevocable (although the consequences of the act may of course be revoked). Salancik (1977) argues that this is because the context within which one acts is of crucial importance to the commitment one feels to one's actions. Four contextual conditions determine one's commitment to one's actions: explicitness revocability publicity and volition. The more explicit an action, the more difficult it is to reverse, and the more publicly and voluntarily it is made the more committing it will be due to one's greater psychological investment in it.

As Oliver (1990) suggests both Becker's and Salancik's ideas are subsumed, as it has been mentioned, under the behavioural approach to commitment, although the mechanism underpinning either is slightly different. Namely Becker (1960) argues that concrete investments encourage commitment by increasing the material costs of withdrawal. The notion of side bets is used to explain how one can become locked into a course of action because withdrawal would mean that the investment would be lost. The common element in both theories is the cost of withdrawal, but according to Becker's notion the withdrawal cost is material while Salancik's is psychological.

Following Becker's concept Kanter (1968) defined "cognitive continuance commitment" as that which occurs when there is a profit associated with continued

participation and a "cost" associated with leaving the organisation. For Stebbins (1970) continuance commitment is the "awareness of the impossibility of choosing a different social identity because of the immense penalties in making the switch". Hrebiniak and Alutto (1973) considered it the unwillingness to leave the organisation for increments in pay, status, or professional freedom or for greater collegial friendship.

Another distinct approach to the phenomenon is the attitudinal approach. According to this commitment is the "affective attachment" definition reflected by the work of Potter, Steers, Mowday, Boulian (1974). According to their conceptualisation organisational commitment is viewed as an affective response resulting from an evaluation of the work situation which links or attaches the individual to the organisation. Porter, Steers, Mowday, Boulian (1974) define organisational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in a particular organisation. Conceptually it can be characterised by at least three factors;

A strong belief in, and acceptance of organisational goals and values,

A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of organisation, and

A strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation.

According to the above definition commitment is conceived as an attitude which reflects the nature and quality of the linkage between an employee and an organisation. The attitude theorists view commitment as something like a "black box" the contents of which are determined by a range of organisational and individual factors such as personal characteristics role related futures, structural characteristics and work experiences. These determine levels of commitment, which in turn affect outcomes such as turnover, punctuality, job effort performance and supportive behaviour towards the organisation. The mechanisms by which the "inputs" affect level of commitment imply the principles of an exchange function. Exchange theory is relevant to the attitudinal approach to commitment in that it is reasoned that employees offer commitment in return for the receipt (or anticipated receipt) of rewards from the organisation.

Although the affective attachment is perhaps best represented by the work of Porter and his colleagues (1974), similar views of commitment were taken by Kanter (1968) who described cohesion commitment as the attachment of an individual's fund of affectivity and emotion to the group and defined it as the willingness of social actors to given energy and loyalty to the organisation. Buchanan (1974) conceptualised commitment as partisan affective attachment to the goals and values of the organisation to once role in relation to the goals and values and to the organisation for each own sake, apart from each purely instrumental worth.

Lee (1971) defined a related concept, organisational identification, as "some degree of belongingness or loyalty". Most of these scholars conceived of commitments as involving some form of psychological bond between people and organisations, although there is little consensus as to a useful operational index of the concept.

A third approach less common but equally viable has been to view commitment as a belief about one's responsibility to the organisation. Wiener (1982) defined commitment as the "totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests", and suggests that individuals exhibit behaviours solely because they believe it is the "right" and moral thing to do. In other words personal norms are defined as internalised moral obligation and important contributors to behaviour including terminating employment with an organisation.

Mowday et al 1982 considering the various typologies of commitment found in the literature divided commitment into attitudinal and behavioural types. Each of the two commitment types reflects a distinct approach to the phenomenon. The attitudinal approach is represented by the work of Buchanan (1974) Steers (1977) and (Mowday et al., 1982), and is regarded as an affective or emotional attachment to the organisation. According to the attitudinal approach, commitment develops as a result of some combination of an individual's work experiences, perceptions of the organisation, and personal characteristics, which lead to positive feelings about an organisation and in turn becomes committed (Mowday et al., 1982). Further explanation is offered under the exchange theory in which persons with positive

attitudes are predisposed to offer commitment in exchange for anticipated future rewards (Angle & Perry, 1983).

In contrast the behavioural approach to commitment is largely concerned with the process by which individuals come to develop a sense of commitment to their own actions related to the organisation (Becker 1960, Kiesler 1971, Salancik 1977). In the behavioural approach, a person attains a state or position of commitment as a result of engaging in committing behaviours-behaviours that, in effect, make it costly to subsequently reserve a position or disengage from some line of activity. Salancik (1997) articulates the behavioural approach in the phrase, "To act is to commit oneself". Committing acts could include building up a non-*transferrable retirement* fund, *accruing vacation time*, gaining academic tenure, or making statements in support of some issue or objective. A binding cost would be the thought of contradicting or reversing a previously expressed position (Salancik, 1977). It could be argued that behavioural approach is more associated to transactional relationship while attitudinal is associated to relational one.

Whatever the differences or similarities are between the various conceptualisations of organisational commitment Meyer and Allen (1987) contended that the various approaches tend to reflect three general themes: a) affective attachment to the organisation, b) perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation, and c) an almost moral obligation to remain with the organisation. These conceptualisations are integrated in a three-component model of commitment developed by Meyer & Allen (1987, 1991) which represents the attitudinal and behavioural approaches (Porter's Becker's & Salancisk's) respectively. This model labelled as "affective" "continuance" and "normative "commitment model ties together what has been three separate streams of commitment research or definitions.

The affective component of organisational commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation. One of the most popular conceptualisations of affective commitment, set by Porter and Smith (1970), portrays a highly committed individual as one who has: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of organisational goals and values; (2) a willingness

to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organisation; (3) a strong desire to remain member of a particular organisation.

The continuance component of commitment is based on costs that an employee associates with leaving the organisation. This approach stems from Becker (1960) who claimed that individuals engage in a consistent line of activity due to the perceived cost of doing otherwise. Thus, continuance commitment is based on expectations of immediate or future rewards and cost contingencies in comparison to available alternatives. Employees with high continuance commitment engage in certain behaviours, not because they feel that it is the right thing to do or because they want to do it, but because they believe that they will derive some reward(s) or minimise the cost(s) from doing so.

The normative component reflects an employee's feelings of obligation toward the organisation. Individuals committed to the organisation on a normative basis engage in activities on the basis of a sense of duty. They behave in accordance with organisational goals because they believe it is the "right and moral thing to do" (Wiener, 1982). Those employees who have been led to believe, via various organisational practices, socialisation efforts, or their personal history, that the organisation deserves their loyalty; will be likely to have a strong normative commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1987)

Thus according to this model an employee who is affectively committed engages in certain activities because s/he wants to; an employee who reflects continuance commitment engages in those behaviours because s/he needs to in order to avoid certain costs or gain certain rewards; and, an employee who is normatively committed engages in certain behaviours because s/he should. It seems reasonable that an employee can experience all three dimensions of organisational commitment to varying degrees, and therefore the dimensions of organisational commitment might interact.

In the present research organisational commitment is viewed as an affective response as it is defined by the work of Porter et al., 1974. The reason for employing this type of commitment is dictated by the nature of the study and resembles those surveyed.

Moreover analysis and justification in detail will be presented in the methodology chapter.

The importance of organisational commitment

The importance of organisational commitment can be attributed to three main reasons:

1. Organisational commitment is positively related to desirable organisational outcomes such as low turnover, punctuality, low absenteeism etc.
2. Organisational commitment is regarded as the "instrument" through which organisations will respond to economic recession and gain competitive advantage.
3. The nature of organisational commitment -compared to job satisfaction- is regarded more global and more stable attitude than job satisfaction.

Commitment: Achieving the way to desirable outcomes

As already mentioned considerable attention has been focused recently on the concept of organisational commitment. This is indicated by the growing number of theoretical and empirical studies found in the social science literature. Research interest in organisational commitment appears to be due to the construct's presumed relationship with a number of desirable outcomes (Bateman & Strasser,1984; Ouchi & Wilkins 1985). For instance, high levels of organisational commitment are believed to be associated with low turnover (Hom, Katerberg & Hulin 1979; Porter et al 1976; Koch & Steers, 1978; Angle & Perry, 1981) limited tardiness and low absenteeism (Smith, 1977; Steers, 1977) and high job performance (Mowday, Porter & Dubin,1974; Porter et al; 1976 Steers, 1977).

Commitment: The "instrument" for organisational response to changes

These desirable outcomes are becoming increasingly difficult to accomplish due to fundamental changes in the market economy. Pressing changes such as economic recession and market competition urge all organisations towards greater reliance on commitment. In fact these fundamental forces make the management challenge ever more pressing and creating commitment will be more and more be seen to be an essential part of any response. This is confirmed by research (P. Martin, J. Nicholls 1987) on behaviours contributing to the success of the organisations. This research reveals that those behaviours that are most important to the success of organisations are the ones that cannot be obtained by compulsion but by commitment.

These results which imply the need for voluntary action - as opposed to compulsory highlight the reconsideration of organisational policies with respect to strategies eliciting commitment. P. Martin & J.Nicholls (1987) express the following strong belief: "there is no doubt that a tremendous reservoir of talent and enthusiasm exists to be tapped in workforces everywhere" appropriate policies are applied.

Commitment: The "reliable" concept

Commitment viewed as an attitude differs from the concept of job satisfaction in many ways. To begin with, commitment as a construct is more global, reflecting a general affective response to the organisation as a whole. Job satisfaction on the other hand, reflects one's response either to one's job or to certain aspects of one's job. Hence commitment emphasises attachment to the employing organisation, including its goals and values, whereas satisfaction emphasises the specific task environment where an employee performs his or her duties Nicholls (1987).

Moreover, organisational commitment is more stable over time than job satisfaction. Although day-to-day events in the work place may affect an employee's level of job satisfaction, such transitory events should not cause an employee to re-evaluate seriously his or her attachment to the overall organisation. Available longitudinal evidence supports this view (Porter et al., 1974). Commitment attitudes appear to

develop slowly but consistently over time as individuals think about the relationship between themselves and their employer. Satisfaction, on the other hand, has been found to be a less stable attitude over time, reflecting more immediate reactions to specific tangible aspects of the work environment (Smith 1997, Porter et al., 1974).

Antecedents of Organisational Commitment

Much of the research on organisational commitment has sought to identify those variables that predict and influence the affective links between individuals and organisations. As previously discussed commitment is a global attitude that results from environmental organisational sense of support and a feeling that one's efforts are acknowledged and reciprocated by the organisation. Those global features that contribute to identification, a perception of favourable exchange, and reciprocity should influence employees' organisational commitment.

One set of factors that is found to influence commitment is **job characteristics**. In particular, based on prior research, organisational commitment is related to job challenge (Buchanan 1974; Hall and Schneider 1972); amount of feedback provided on the job (Steers 1977); Porter & Miles 1973), opportunities for social interaction (Sheldon, 1971) salary levels (Ritzer & Trice, 1969) task identity significance (Steers 1977).

Another set of factors influencing commitment is the employee's **work experiences** during his or her tenure in an organisation such experiences are viewed as a major socialising force and as such represent an important influence on the extent to which psychological attachments are formed with the organisation. Experiences that have been found to influence commitment include group attitudes toward the organisation (Buchanan, 1974; Patchen, 1970), organisational dependability and trust (Buchanan, 1974; Hrebiniak, 1974), perceptions of personal investment and personal importance to an organisation (Buchanan, 1974; Patchen, 1970; Sheldon, 1971), and rewards or realisation of expectations (Grusky, 1966).

Position in the hierarchy and tenure in the organisation have also had positive relationships with commitment (Sheldon, 1971; Stevens et al., 1978;). With increased tenure, age, and hierarchical level, an employee is more likely to develop more identification with organisational goals and have more investments in maintaining membership with that organisation.

Moreover selection and training practices, equity (Rhodes & Steers, 1981), opportunities for promotions and perceptions of fairness of the promotional process (Kanter, 1989) were positively related to organisational commitment. Several demographic variables have theoretical and empirical relationships with levels of organisational commitment. Age was found related to organisational commitment (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Stevens et al., 1978; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Steers, 1977).

All the previous categories of variables are hypothesised to have positive relationships with organisational commitment. All relationships have theoretical support and some degree of empirical support.

Steers (1977) proposed a model concerning the antecedents of employee commitment to organisations. In particular the antecedents examined were personal characteristics (need for achievement, age, education) – job characteristics – (job challenge, task identity, optional interaction, and feedback) and work experiences – group attitudes, organisational dependability personal importance. The study was carried out among 382 hospital employees and 119 scientists and engineers.

Morris & Steers (1980) identified that the effects of variations in organisational structure on organisational commitment had been largely overlooked. Relationships of several aspects of organisation structure with organisational commitment were examined within a multiple regression framework for 262 public sector employees. A set of 6 variables included in their study were: decentralisation (perceived participation in decision making); formalisation (the extent to which the employee was aware of written rules and procedures concerning the job); supervisory span of control; span of subordination (the number of supervisors who initiated work for a given employee; perceived functional dependence; and work group size. As a set the

six structural variables accounted for significant variation in organisational commitment for the vocationally heterogeneous sample studied. Overall, these results suggest that future model-building efforts should take organisation structure into account as one potentially important dimension of influences on organisational commitment.

Angle and Perry (1983) suggested two competing causal models to explain organisational commitment. In particular two general types are developed: one that considers the locus of commitment to reside in the attitudes and actions of the individual, **member based model**, and one that considers commitment to be a function of the way the member has been treated by the organisation, **organisation based model**. Thus the two general approaches are distinguished by whether it is the member or the organisation that is considered to be the initiator of actions that lead ultimately to an increase in the member's organisational commitment.

The member based model stems from both Salancik (1977) theory and Becker (1960). According to this model it is argued that the member based model focuses on what the member brings to the organisation (prior behaviour experiences personal characteristics) as well as what he/she does in the organisation (investments or side bets). The organisation-based model is a logical alternative to the member-based model, one in which the actions that underlie the commitment process occur at the organisational end of the individual-organisation exchange. A prospective member brings needs and goals to an organisation and agrees to supply her or his skills and energies in exchange for organisational resources capable of satisfying those needs and goals.

Both the member-based model and the organisation-based model has found empirical support. If organisational commitment is largely a matter of reciprocation between individual and organisation, then the extent of employee commitment may rest largely in management's hands. The data suggest that the principal antecedents of commitment may be well within management's capacity to influence. The personal variables in this model were Protestant work ethic and growth need strength, and the environmental variable was perceived job scope. The result of this

study indicated that the proposed person-environment fit model is useful for predicting job involvement, but not organisational commitment.

According to the findings organisational commitment is related only with the environmental factor of perceived job scope. Yet perceived job scope is just one environment factor to consider. Since organisational commitment focuses on the individual's feelings toward the larger organisation, other environmental factors need to be considered, for example, supervision and work group cohesiveness (Mowday et al., 1982), or relevant constituencies such as customers and clients (Reichers, 1985).

Ogilvie, (1987), suggested that Human Resource Management Practices (HRMPs) of an organisation have direct influence on commitment. It was hypothesised that HRMPs would be more strongly related to commitment than demographic, job characteristic, social environment, or supervisory variables. The perceptions of the merit system accuracy, and the fairness of promotions in this research accounted for the most variability on organisational commitment. Tenure and organisation and task identity were also significant predictors.

Mathieu and Hamel, (1989), developed a causal model of organisational commitment drawing on previous theory and research. The model includes variables from each of the four categories of antecedents identified in previous research (i.e., personal needs, job characteristics, role states, and work experiences), as well as employees' job satisfaction and mental health. It was tested using survey responses from a sample of non-professional employees and a sample of professionals. The findings indicate that although several antecedents of organisational commitment and job satisfaction generalise across employee populations, other influences stemming from individual variables differ substantially depending on the two types of employees examined.

Brooks & Seers, (1991), investigated the matching of two clusters of predictors of organisational commitment to five career stages within a sample of 1536 employees. The effect of team cohesion was stronger during the second stage, task challenge was stronger during the third stage, supervisory behaviour was stronger during the fourth

stage, and organisational climate was stronger during the fifth stage while self-efficacy failed to predominate during the first stage.

Thompson Kopelman & Schriesheim, (1992) conducted a comparison of commitment among self and organisationally employed men. In this study, it was hypothesised that self-employed individuals, because of greater physical, emotional, and financial investment in their jobs, would report higher levels of organisational commitment, job involvement, and work salience than would individuals employed by organisations. This prediction was supported for the organisational commitment variable but only non-significant trends were obtained for job involvement and work salience.

Organisational Commitment: the concept's evolution process

In the past decade, the construct of organisational commitment has occupied a prominent place in organisational behaviour research (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Salancik, 1977; Staw & Ross, 1978). Unfortunately, as Morrow (1983) has pointed out, "the growth in commitment related concepts has not been accompanied by a careful segmentation of commitment's theoretical domain in terms of intended meaning of each concept or the concepts' relationships among each other." By her count, there are over 25 commitment-related concepts and measures. Staw (1976), for instance, has noted that the value of commitment as a separate construct distinct from other psychological concepts such as motivation, involvement, or behavioural intention remains to be demonstrated. The lack of consensus is manifested in a remarkable variation in how commitment is defined and measured. Here an attempt is made to present research about the concept's development

The concept of organisational commitment has been researched extensively as value laden entity. Reichers, (1985) extended the commitment literature putting forward the commitment's reconceptualization by focusing on its recipients. According to his view, commitment is a process of identification with the goals of an organisation's multiple constituencies. These constituencies may include top management, customers, unions, and/or the public at large. This approach may represent a natural

evolution of the commitment construct, from a general concept concerned with the organisational goals and values, to a more specific formulation that specifies those goals and values which serve as foci for multiple commitments. The advantages of this approach include: (a) The focus of the nature of organisations as political, constituent entities fills a conceptual gap in the commitment literature; (b) the relative complexity of this approach, as compared to previous global conceptions of commitment, may more realistically reflect the nature of employee-organisation attachments as individuals actually experience them; (c) the focus on multiple commitments raises some previously unasked questions concerning the potential for conflict among commitments and its effect on the individual's relationship to the organisation.

A multiple commitment perspective strongly suggests that the commitment experienced by any one individual may differ markedly from that experienced by another. The concept of a commitment profile suggests itself as a way to capture all the foci and relative strengths of multiple commitments. Thus, an individual's organisational commitment may be primarily a function of the perception that the organisation is dedicated to high quality products at a reasonable price; another person's commitment may depend to a great extent on the individual's belief that the organisation espouses humanistic values toward employees. A global measure of organisational commitment might reveal both employees to be equally committed to the organisation, yet the focus of the two commitments is entirely different. A multiple commitment approach could aid in organisational diagnosis and intervention procedures that could pinpoint the strength, presence, or absence of particular commitments. Knowledge of the source(s) or type(s) of commitment that may be largely responsible for the individual's job performance may allow for the prediction of changes on commitment levels or foci.

Perhaps the most significant question that the present approach to commitment raises deals with the potential for conflict that may exist among commitments. To the extent that the organisation pursue the conflicting goals of multiple constituencies, individuals who are committed to these constituencies may suffer from conflicts over the direction that their energies and loyalties should take. That is, commitment to one group may imply the necessary abandonment of other identifications with other

groups. This form of conflict may be more fundamental than simple role conflict concerning appropriate job-related behaviours. Rather, the potential conflict among multiple commitments involves the self-concept and identity of individuals, because the set of identifications and commitments an individual experiences is an integral part of the self. Individuals may attempt to resolve these conflicts by withdrawing from the organisation, and thus continued relationships between commitment and turnover could be expected. But in this case, turnover would result not from decreased organisational commitment per se, but from the conflict engendered by too much intense organisational commitment. Individual conflict resolution styles would play a major role in determining the commitments withdrawal relationship.

Finally the concept redundancy that has characterised organisational commitment may be decreased when commitment is conceptualised and measured as a multifaceted construct that possesses multiple foci. Global organisational commitment demonstrates disturbingly high statistical overlap with concepts such as job involvement, job attachment, and career satisfaction (Morrow, 1983). It seems reasonable to suggest that specific commitments to particular goal orientations may demonstrate less redundancy with other concepts than has been true for measures of global commitment in the past.

It has been argued that current approaches to organisational commitment ignore the multifaceted conceptions of organisation that have been prominent among organisational theorists. The addition of this macro perspective on organisations, coupled with what is known regarding reference group and role theories, suggests that commitment should be reconceptualized to reflect multiple commitments to the goal orientations of the multiple groups that constitute the organisation. This approach may represent the next step in the natural development of the construct from a general to a more specific orientation. It presents commitments in a way that may be more closely aligned to the individual's actual experiences in organisations, raises questions about the relationship between conflict and commitments, and may serve to differentiate commitment more fully from related constructs.

O' Reilly & Chatman (1986) focusing on the underlying motivators or bases of psychological attachment to the organisation specify these motivators of

organisational commitment using notions of psychological attachment and the various forms such attachment can take. Numerous differences in the approach to commitment research exist, however a central theme that continues to appear is the individual's psychological attachment to an organisation - and the psychological bond linking the individual and the organisation. Although the term commitment is broadly used to refer to antecedents and consequences, as well as the process of becoming attached and the state of attachment itself, it is the psychological attachment that seems to be the construct of common interest.

The lack of consensus in previous research can be attributed, in part, to a failure to differentiate carefully among the antecedents and consequences of commitment on the one hand, and the basis for attachment on the other. For instance, some investigations have explored the processes through which one becomes committed (e.g., Galanter, 1980; Salancik, 1977; Staw & Ross, 1978) or the impact of individual and organisational influences on this process (Angle & Perry, 1983; Steers, 1977). Other studies have explored the consequences of commitment manifested in attitudes and behaviours such as proximity seeking and long tenure (Hom, Katerberg, & Hullin, 1979; Rusbult & Farell, 1983; Werbel & Gould, 1984), expressions of positive affect and loyalty (Kanter, 1972; O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1980), motivation and involvement (Mowday et al., 1982; Scholl, 1981), and behaviours such as performance and obedience to organisational policies (Angle & Perry, 1981; Galanter, 1980).

But what is the basis for one's psychological attachment to an organisation? One important mechanism in the development of psychological attachment is the process of identification (e.g., Bowlby, 1982; Sanford, 1955; Stoke, 1950; Tolman, 1943). From this perspective, attachment to an individual, object, group, or organisation results from identification with the attitudes, values or goals of the model; that is, some of the attributes, motives, or characteristics of the model are accepted by the individual and become incorporated into the cognitive response set of the individual (Kagan, 1958). The degree to which an individual identifies with a model can, of course, vary, as can the reasons for his/her attachment and its manifestation.

Thus although organisational commitment has often been used in a global way to encompass antecedents, processes and consequences of attachment, organisational commitment is conceived as the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organisation; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalises or adopts the characteristics or perspectives of the organisation. This approach calls attention to the fact that the underlying dimensions or bases for attachment may vary within and across individuals. It also differentiates the state of attachment from both its antecedents and its consequences.

Kelman (1958), in an investigation into the basis for attitude change, constructed a taxonomy of this sort, noting that individuals can accept influence in three conceptually distinct ways: **(a) compliance or exchange, (b) identification or affiliation, and (c) internalisation or value congruence.** Compliance occurs when attitudes and behaviours are adopted not because of shared beliefs but simply to gain specific rewards. In this case, public and private attitudes may differ. Identification, in Kelman's term, occurs when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship; that is, an individual may feel proud to be a part of a group, respecting in values and accomplishments without adopting them as his or her own. Internalisation occurs when influence is accepted because the induced attitudes and behaviours are congruent with one's own values; that is, the values of the individual and the group or organisation are the same.

Thus, the basis for one's psychological attachment to an organisation may lie on three independent foundations: (a) compliance or instrumental involvement for specific, extrinsic rewards; (b) identification or involvement based on a desire for affiliation; and (c) internalisation or involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organisational values. These differences may represent separate dimensions of commitment.

The importance of having organisational members whose psychological attachment is based on more than simple compliance has recently been underscored by Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) in a study of organisational citizenship behaviour. They note that many critical behaviours in organisations rely on acts of, altruism, and spontaneous unrewarded help from employees.

Membership that shares the organisation's goals and values can ensure that individuals act instinctively to benefit the organisation (Ouchi et al., 1985; Williamson, 1975). Without a psychological attachment predicated on more than simple material exchange, reduced effort is also possible. Furthermore, it is postulated that commitment rooted in identification and internalisation will be related to extra role or behaviours whereas compliance-based commitment will not be.

Overall, the sizeable literature on commitment supports its importance as a useful construct for understanding a range of critical behaviours in organisations. The study reported here has examined three forms of psychological attachment and argued that they constitute the bases for organisational commitment. The results suggest that, as postulated, the nature of one's attachment may vary, and that these variations can be differentially associated with important organisational attitudes and behaviours.

In a model of commitment developed by Meyer & Allen (1987) three approaches outlined and were labeled 'affective', 'continuance', and normative' commitment. The affective component of organisational commitment, proposed by the model, refers to employees emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organisation. The continuance component refers to commitment based on the costs that the employees associate with leaving the organisation. Finally, the normative component refers to employees feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation.

Although common to these approaches is a link between the employee and organisation that decreases the likelihood of turnover, it is clear that the nature of that link differs. Employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment remain because they need to and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they ought to do so.

Therefore there are differences between the various conceptualisations of commitment. These differences involve the psychological state reflected in

commitment, the antecedent conditions leading to its development, and the behaviours (other than remaining) that are expected to result from commitment.

However affective continuance and normative commitment are best viewed as distinguishable components, rather than types, of attitudinal commitment; that is, employees can experience each of these psychological states to varying degrees. Some employees, for example, might feel both a strong need and a strong obligation to remain, but no desire to do so; others might feel neither a need nor obligation but a strong desire, and so on. The 'net' sum of a person's commitment to the organisation, therefore, reflects each of these separable psychological states.

Nick Oliver (1990) argues that commitment is best understood as an exchange and an accrual phenomenon. In other words, an individual's level of commitment to a given target is a function of actual or anticipated rewards and past investments – material and psychological – vis-à-vis the commitment target. Conceiving of commitment in this way offers a framework, which draws on ideas from both the attitudinal and behavioural approaches to commitment. Rewards and investments may combine additively to provide an estimate of the level of commitment an individual will show.

The 'investment' component of the model specifically draws on the ides of Salancik (1977) and Becker (1960), as does the behavioural approach to commitment. This approach seems to offer considerable scope for advancing the understanding of commitment in organisations. First, the concepts of exchange and investments are explanatory concepts, and not simply correlates of commitment. This study thus set out to explore the extent to which organisational commitment could be explained by a combination of the rewards offered by the organisation, investments (material and psychological) made by the members, and alternative employment opportunities open to the members. Oliver's commitment construct seems quite reasonable since no type of commitment employees may experience, can exclude any other.

Becker (1992) stresses that the concern for distinguishing the contributions of foci and bases of commitments contrasts markedly with the conventional view of commitment, which is that employee attachment involves "the relative strength of an

individual's identification with an involvement in a particular organisation"
(Mowday, Porter & Sreers, 1982). Commitment so defined has most often been
measured via the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by
Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian in 1974; congruent with the unidimensional
view underlying the instrument. The OCQ assesses commitment along a single
dimension (Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981). In summary, the conventional
approach, although the most widely used in both research and practice (Mathieu &
Zajac, 1990) does not in theory or practice acknowledge the multiple commitments
that employees may have, nor does it distinguish among motives for psychological
attachment.

The primary purpose of his research (Becker 1992) was to determine whether or not
the concepts of foci and bases of commitment add substantively to the conventional
perspective. It has not been demonstrated that these concepts add anything to the
understanding of the phenomenon of individual's attachments to organisations
beyond what is explained by the conventional view. This is an important issue
because if the reconceptualization of commitment, with its complications in theory
and measurement, does not more adequately tap employee attachment, the principle
of parsimony would suggest that the conventional perspective with its simpler
conceptualisation and measurement is preferable. However the conventional view of
work-related commitment is concerned exclusively with organisational commitment
and is vague with respect to the role of bases of commitment.

As previously noted, researches have commonly used the OCQ to measure
conventionally conceived commitment. By demonstrating that commitment to foci
other than an organisation, and bases of commitment, account for variance in key
depended variables above and beyond that accounted for the OCQ. The result of this
research support the reconceptualisation of employee attachment as a phenomenon
with multiple foci and bases. These results suggest that researchers and practitioners
should revise their views and measures of commitment.

Becker and Billings (1993) used distinctions among foci and bases of commitment to
develop four profiles of commitment and examine the extent to which differences in
these profiles predict other variables or consequences.

The profiles suggested are: (1) The Locally Committed employees who are attached to their supervisor and work group, (2) the Globally Committed (who are attached to top management and the organisation), (3) the Committed (who are attached to both local and global foci), and (4) the Uncommitted (who are attached to neither local nor global foci). The profiles are differentially related to intent to quit, job satisfaction, personal organisational behaviours, and certain demographic and contextual variables.

This provides additional support for the reconceptionalization of commitment as a multifocus multibasis phenomenon. Congruent with this reconceptualization, recent authors have called for the development of commitment profiles (Allen & Meyer, 1990, Becker, 1992; Reichers, 1985). Reichers suggests that profiles reflecting the foci of commitment could 'aid in organisational diagnosis and intervention procedures that could pinpoint the strength, presence or absence of particular commitments'. Allen & Meyer (1990) recommend that profiles based on the motives for commitment could 'differentiate employees who are likely to remain with the organisation and to contribute little' (1990). Backer & Billings (1993) developed and empirically examined simultaneously the usefulness of foci and bases of commitment. The major contributions of this study are the demonstration that interpretable patterns of commitment exist and the findings that these commitment profiles are differentially related to other attitudes and behaviours in predictable ways.

Additional consequences of the different profiles should be explored. For example, while most work has shown that overall commitment to the organisation is not strongly related to performance or productivity (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Randall, 1990), it is possible that certain patterns of commitment do influence these variables. In fact, given that goal-setting often occurs at the supervisor and work group level, we would hypothesise that the Committed and the Locally Committed would have higher levels of performance than the Globally Committed or the Uncommitted. This seems especially likely since the Committed and Locally Committed tend to internalise the goals of their supervisor and work group. Prior investigations on the

commitment performance relationship may have been confounded by the failure to distinguish among different commitment profiles.

Randall (1996) tried to clarify and simplify the existing typology of organisational commitment by offering an approach to understanding organisational commitment as a notion that is grounded on the basic meaning of the word "commitment" In particular she attempted to eliminate the distinction - affective continuance normative – and replace them with a singular concept of commitment. She argues that commitment to a particular entity is a distinct phenomenon, albeit a complex one, that may differ depending upon how certain factors, pertinent to all commitments, are perceived and evaluated by an individual. A central argument of this paper is that rather than there being different "types" of organisational commitment, there is an underlying commitment to some party along with some understanding of terms. Then there is the strength of the commitment associated with a person's ongoing evaluation of that commitment, affected in turn by the history and reasons behind the commitment and current feelings and attitudes about the commitment. This approach to commitment allows both that commitment can change and that more than one commitment to an organisation can be made and evaluated differently (e.g., one related to membership, one related to job effort, and others related perhaps to support of people or to promoting the company image outside of work). A person may become committed to the goals and values of an organisation but subsequently elect to support similar goals at a different organisation. Such "goal commitment" is different from membership commitment and is actively sought by organisations in certain industries (e.g., software, advertising, consulting) which thrive on new ideas and "new blood". The model further suggests that as time passes it will be current factors, current circumstances, and recent behaviours that have the more direct and greater effect on the nature and strength of the commitment than will be its original development process.

The essence of a commitment is an obliging force, which requires that a person honour the commitment, even in the face of fluctuating attitudes and whims. However, persistent attitudes in one direction or the other will be likely to affect the strength of the commitment – how one rates its significance relative to other commitments – and the effort that the individual puts forth in meeting the terms.

Positive evaluations will incline a person to engage in behaviours consistent with an expansive interpretation of the terms, while negative evaluations can lead to someone meeting the "letter of" the terms, and, over time, a move to renegotiate terms or terminate the commitment.

Consequently Randal (1996) examining popular concepts and "types" of organisational commitment and common factors that pertain to all commitments argues that a commitment is best conceptualised as a single, fundamental construct that may vary according to differences in focus, terms, and time-specific evaluation.

The present research draws on Porter's et al., (1974) conventional view of commitment, maintaining the organisation as the focus of commitment.

The Relationship between Organisational Commitment and Psychological Contract

An individual's potential for commitment, can be affected by employee expectations and experiences at work. An organisation must meet employees' implicit expectations about their work experiences if it hopes to elicit employee commitment. If employees' expectations are met, then they are more likely to develop and sustain organisational commitment.

Each individual develops a unique relationship with the organisation where he or she works based on unvoiced expectations about the work experience. These expectations comprise a psychological contract. These expectations are referred to as psychological because they focus on more subtle aspects of the work relationship than those covered in explicit employment contracts. These expectations constitute a contract because both parties consider their expectations to be part of the bargain struck when they mutually agreed to form a relationship.

The terms of psychological contracts change over time. As organisational environment, employment pattern and personal circumstances change, the implicit needs and expectations of organisations and employees can change as well. People

who once found jobs acceptable because of the opportunities for promotion may later feel a need for better treatment from their supervisors or the need to work in a more stimulating environment gaining experience or reputation.

As needs and expectations change, psychological contracts must be renegotiated. Such renegotiations are most likely to occur during times of change for the organisation or the individual. If the adjustment in expectations is not mutual, then there may be a feeling of betrayal similar to that of a breach contract. In other words, if the agency's expectations for its employees change (say, it needs increased effort from them), but its employees do not adjust their expectation accordingly (they do not share the expectations that they contribute greater effort), then the psychological contract is strained. As a result the organisation may feel let down because its employees do not adjust accordingly. Or the employees may feel the organisation has changed the "rules of the game" because it now expects behaviours from them that they never agreed to contribute.

Conclusions

The concept of organisational commitment (OC) has grown in popularity in the literatures of industrial/organisational psychology and organisational behaviour. The concept has received a great deal of empirical study both as a consequence and an antecedent of other work-related variables of interest.

Mowday et al. (1982) have suggested that gaining a greater understanding of the processes related to organisational commitment has implications for employees, organisations, and society as a whole. Employees' level of commitment to an organisation may make them more eligible to receive both extrinsic (e.g., wages and benefits) and psychological (e.g., intrinsic job satisfaction and relationships with coworkers) rewards associated with membership. Organisations value commitment among their employees, which is typically assumed to produce high performance and organisational success. In fact committed employees may be more likely to engage in "extra-role" behaviours, such as creativeness or innovativeness, which are often what keeps an organisation competitive (Katz & Kahn. 1978). From a larger

perspective, a society as a whole tends to benefit employees' organisational commitment in terms of national productivity or work quality or both.

With the increased popularity of the concept of commitment, one observes a proliferation of foci, types, definitions, and measures of the construct. Morrow (1983) discussed the fact that there are several different foci for work commitment, including (a) value or personal (e.g., Protestant work ethic); (b) career; (c) job (e.g., job involvement and job orientation); and (d) union, in addition to focus on one's organisation. Reichers (1985) advanced a similar position and argued for a multiple constituency model of organisational commitment. Both Morrow and Reichers illustrated the importance of clarity with respect to the foci, or referents, of commitment research.

Organisational commitment 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 or linking of the individual to the organisation. The definitions differ in terms of how this bond is considered to have developed. The most commonly studied type of OC has been attitudinal, most often measured with a scale developed by Porter and his colleagues (Mowday, Steers, & Porter. 1979; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulran. (1974). Attitudinal OC is defined as the relative strength of an individual involvement and identification with the organisation.

The second most popular form of OC studied has been calculated commitment. Built upon the work of Becker (1960), calculative OC is defined as "a structural phenomenon which occurs as result of individual-organisational transactions and alterations in side-bets or investements over time" (Hrebiniack & Alutto, 1972). In this sense, individuals become bound to an organisation because they have side bets, or sunk costs (e.g., a pension plan), invested in the organisation and cannot "afford" to separate themselves from it. Researchers have most frequently used a scale developed by Hrebiniak and Aluto (1972) to measure this form of OC.

Other types of OC have emerged, including normative commitment (Wiener, 1982) and organisational identification (Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970). Normative commitment describes a process whereby organisational actions (e.g., selection,

socialisation procedures) as well as individual predispositions (e.g., personal-organisational value congruence and generalised loyalty or duty attitudes) lead to the development of OC (Wiener, 1982).

It should also be noted that attitudinal and calculative commitment are not entirely distinguishable concepts, and that the measurement of each contains elements of the other. Further, one may be drawn initially to an organisation because of exchange relationships (i.e., calculative OC), yet develop attitudes consistent with maintaining membership (i.e., attitudinal OC). This suggests that the two processes may become more closely linked over time.

However both approaches propose different models of how commitment develops over time where the two forms of organisational commitment are sufficiently distinct to permit comparisons between their relative relationships with other variables of interest. Morrow and McElroy (1986) have argued that, although related, the various forms of work commitment are both conceptually and empirically distinct.

In this research we try to find the degree and the nature of commitment of short-term professionals. We consider OC as a resulting state or bond between employees and organisation. It is upon this concept of OC as a resulting state that we focus our attention here.

Chapter 4. HRM and flexible employment

The HRM model for the actual research

Over the last decade, in both the UK and USA, the vocabulary for managing the employment relationship has undergone a change. 'Personnel management' has increasingly given way to 'human resource management' (HRM). It may be found first in writings of US academics and managers (for example, Tichy et al., 1982; Fombrun et al., 1984; Beer et al., 1985; Walton and Lawrence, 1985; Foulkes, 1986, Armstrong, 1987; Fowler, 1987) and UK academics (for example, Hendry and Pettigrew, 1986; Guest, 1987; Miller, 1991; Storey, 1989; Torrington and Hall, 1987).

In discussing personnel management in theory it should be possible to identify a wide range of models with reference to HRM. However on closer examination of these definitions, two different emphases can be identified. In fact two of the most widely adopted models of human resource management are the "hard" and "soft" versions. These are based on opposing views of human nature and managerial control strategies. At the risk of some stereotyping and oversimplification, the hard model is based on notions of tight strategic control reflecting a 'utilitarian instrumentalism' while the soft model is based on control through commitment more reminiscent of 'developmental humanism', (Storey, 1989; Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990).

Guest (1987) and Storey (1992) in their definitions of soft-hard models of HRM view the key distinction as being whether the emphasis is placed on the human or resource. Soft HRM is associated with the human relations movement, the utilization of individual talents (developmental-humanism). This has been equated with the concept of a high commitment so that behavior is primarily self-regulated rather than controlled by pressures external to the individual and relations within the organisation are based on high levels of trust' (Wood, 1995).

Employees are regarded as proactive rather than passive inputs into productive processes; they are capable of 'development', worthy of 'trust' and ' collaboration', to be achieved through 'participation and informed choice' (Beer and Spector, 1985).

Soft HRM is also associated with the goals of flexibility and adaptability and implies that communication plays a central role in management (Storey and Sisson, 1993). The stress is therefore on generating commitment via 'communication, motivation and leadership' (Storey, 1987). If employees' commitment yields 'better economic performance' it is also sought as a route to 'greater human development' (Walton, 1985). In this model, then, the focus is on HR policies to deliver 'resourceful' humans (Morris and Burgoyne, 1973), that is, on human resource management.

In contrast the 'hard' model stresses HRM's focus on the crucial importance of the close integration of human resources policies, systems and activities with business strategy (Fombrun et al., 1984). This requires that personnel policies, systems and practices are not only logically consistent with and supportive of business objectives, but achieve this effect by their own coherence (Hendry and Pettigrew 1986). From this perspective, the human resource, the object of formal manpower planning, can be just that, largely a factor of production, along with land and capital and an 'expense of doing business', rather than 'the only resource capable of turning inanimate factors of production into wealth' (Tyson and Fell, 1986). This perception of 'resource' appears to underline Torrington and Hall's model of HRM, with its reference to appropriate factors of production ('numbers' and 'skills') at the 'right' (implicitly the 'lowest possible') price. In their model, too, the human resources appear passive ('to be provided and deployed') rather than 'the resource of creative energy in any direction the organisation dictates and fosters' (Tyson and Fell, 1986). Therefore the 'hard' model emphasizes the 'quantitative, calculative, and business strategic aspects of managing the headcount resource in as "rational" a way as for any other economic factor' (Storey, 1987). Its focus is ultimately human resource management.

These two perspectives on HRM are viewed as opposing: 'what is striking is that the same term [HRM] is thus capable of signalling diametrically opposite sets of assumptions' (Storey, 1992). However, both Guest and Storey, while explicitly

acknowledging this dichotomy, incorporate both when constructing their own HRM 'model' or 'theory'.

Guest (1987) put forward a four component HRM model. The main dimensions of the HRM model involve the goal of strategic integration; flexibility/adaptability; commitment; and quality. According to this model human resources policies should be integrated with strategic business planning and used to reinforce an appropriate (or change an inappropriate) organisational culture, that human resources are valuable and a source of competitive advantage, that they may be tapped most effectively by mutually consistent policies that promote commitment and which, as a consequence, foster a willingness in employees to act flexibly in the interests of the 'adaptive organisation's pursuit of excellence' through quality. In this paper, Guest (1987) draws on both hard and soft dimensions in constructing his 'theory' of HRM which contains reference to four HRM 'policy goals', including 'strategic integration', which is clearly associated with his interpretation of the hard model, and 'commitment', which is associated with his view of the soft model. Thus, Guest acknowledges a difference between the concepts and assumptions of soft and hard HRM, but abandons the distinction when embarking upon theory-building. Similarly, Storey (1992), identifies his four key features of an HRM approach as incorporating both soft elements such as commitment, and hard elements such as strategic direction.

In this model of HRM, Guest (1987) sees flexibility as having three components: relating to organisational design, job design and employee attitudes and motivations. Organisations, to have the capacity to manage planned change and to be adaptive to uncertainties and unanticipated pressures at all levels should seek flexibility via organic structures, extensive decentralization and delegation of control and, therefore, through the design of jobs. Job design should seek to achieve 'functional flexibility' among the workforce (Atkinson and Meager, 1986). Furthermore, 'the issue of flexibility can be taken further – for example, in relation to core and periphery workers, the nature of the employment contract (Guest, 1987). Guest concludes by suggesting that flexibilities in organisational and job design can only be achieved if employees display 'high organisational commitment, high trust and high levels of intrinsic motivation'.

In fact a central issue of Guest's (1987) normative model of HRM is the development of employee commitment to the organisation. The rationale behind this can be found in the assumption that committed employees will be more satisfied, more productive and more adaptable (Guest, 1987). Explicitly, commitment is contrasted favourably with the 'behavioral compliance', seen as characteristic of employment relationships under conventional personnel management (Ogbonna and Wilkinson, 1988, 1990). Commitment is portrayed as internalized belief, as generating constructive proactivity, of 'going one step further' on the part of employees. Compliance, in contrast, is seen as maintained by externally imposed bureaucratic control systems, as generating reactive rather than proactive behaviors, of working to contract, of even 'working to rule'. The development of commitment has been seen as intimately connected to that other major concern of HRM, the management of cultural change.

These rather different emphases are not necessarily incompatible (Legge, 1995). An organisation which pursues a strategy of producing high value-added goods and services, in a knowledge based industry and adopts a policy of value – added growth rather than asset management (Capelli and McKercie, 1987), treating employees as resourceful humans to be developed by humanistic policies makes good business sense. This is conveyed in the definitions of Hendry and Pettigrew (1986) and of Beer and Spector (1985), Walton (1985) and by Guest (1987). But when the organisation chooses to compete in a labor intensive market, by cutting cost, generating profits through increasing market share, the HR policies that may be most appropriate to 'driving strategic objectives' are likely to involve treating employees as a variable input and a cost to be minimized. This is far away from the employee relations philosophy embodied in models of Beer and Spector (1985), Walton (1985) and Guest (1987).

The key in the 'hard' model is that of 'integration'. But 'integration' appears to have two meanings; integration or 'fit' with business strategy and the integration or complementarity and consistency of 'mutuality' employment policies aimed at generating employee commitment, flexibility, and quality. This double meaning of integration has been referred to also as the 'external' and 'internal' fit.

The incorporation of both soft and hard elements within one theory or model is highly problematic because each rests on a different set of assumptions in the two key areas of human nature and managerial control strategies. The soft model of HRM is founded on the concepts of commitment, flexibility and quality, although these are similarly ambiguous and open to debate (Purcell, 1995). Keenoy (1990) argues that the goals of quality, flexibility, commitment and integration presented in Guest's (1987) soft model of HRM may well not be mutually compatible and, in practice, may be difficult to achieve. Prieto (1993) notes that there are three types of flexibility; numerical (flexibility in the number of people in the workforce), wage (where wage adjustments can be linked to profits), and functional (where there is a broadening of skills). These three types of flexibility, he argues, are all very different and may even be contradictory. While flexibility is frequently presented as a desirable attribute for both organisations and individuals, Prieto (1993) argues that the more coercive side has been downplayed. For instance, numerical flexibility may include the use of short-term contracts or temporary assignments as a means to alter the size of the workforce, at the expense of more permanent forms of employment that may be more attractive to employees. This can therefore affect levels of commitment. There is also confusion surrounding the notion of commitment, and it is unclear whether the desired form of commitment is to the organisation, work group, immediate supervisor, union or occupation, and the interaction and potential conflict or compatibility between the two different components (flexibility and commitment) as they have been put forward in Guest's model (1987) have not been addressed in HRM literature (Legge, 1995).

Guest's model of HRM provides the theoretical argument where this research is based. Flexibility through short term employment may represent the organisation's alignment to business strategies and market ideology objectives at the expense of human rights. Commitment on the other hand may represent an organisation' s effort to ensure human resource involvement on the assumption that committed employees are necessarily more productive. Namely the present research will focus on both components (flexibility and commitment) and will try to establish the relationship between them. Questions of how organisational commitment might be developed

and what IIR policies appear to be conductive to organisational commitment will be considered in exploring their relationships.

Flexible workforce: the market ideology of employment

The 1980s were marked by the increased globalisation of markets, and intensification of competition (Sisson, 1989, 1990; Blyton and Turnbull, 1994). The rise of the Pacific economies with relatively cheap labour has posed a massive challenge to European and US economies. The shift of control from hierarchy to 'market' economies not only further enlarges the international economy but, given relative labour costs, represents another competitive threat.

This globalisation of markets, facilitated by Information Technology, speeded up world-wide communication, and the emergence of multinational companies, operating on a world-wide basis. This has resulted in an international division of labour, where regions specialise according to their source of competitive advantage (cheap, low-skilled labour providing low-cost assembly; well-educated, high-skilled knowledge workers providing high - value - added goods and services (Nolan and O'Donnell, 1991). This intensification of international competition has forced many companies to become more strategically aware.

Organisations are confronted with a series of dilemmas surrounding investment policy and working practices. The 'hard' model looks to the integration of human resource policies with business strategy. 'Soft' HRM policies speak of generating greater employee flexibility and commitment. The desirability of the model of the 'commercial enterprise' – that is, the privately-owned firm operating in a free market economy – found expression in policies aimed at extending the domain of the 'free market' and intensifying competition therein. Such policies included a rejection of Keynesian demand management economic policies, aimed at the maintenance of full employment.

Levels of employment then find their own 'natural' level through the operation of the forces of supply and demand in the market place. Firms' survival and growth

depends on their 'leanness' and 'fitness' in dealing with the rigours of the marketplace, no longer sustained by artificially protective fiscal measures.

For organisations formerly protected by public funding and ideologies at odds with the market place there has been institutional reform designed to introduce market principles and commercially modelled forms of organisation. Hence, in the UK, the 1980s and 1990s saw the privatisation of state-owned industries and public utilities and the introduction of quasi-markets in the organisation of public services (for example, the 'opting-out' of schools, 'trust' status and 'fund management', purchaser-provider relations in the NHS, market-testing in the Civil Service, competitive tendering in local authorities). Expressive of these changes has been the introduction of the concept of 'customer' into situations where the terminology of professional dominance (c,f., 'student', 'patient', 'client') previously prevailed. Public or private sectors 'meet the demands of the "sovereign consumer" who has become the new and institutional imperative' (Keat, 1991).

Now clearly major criticisms can be raised about many of the assumptions that lie behind this vision of enterprise culture and the politico-economic policies that have been adopted in its pursuit. But as a political rhetoric presenting a particular gloss to the intensification of competition discussed earlier its message is consonant with assumptions embodied in both the 'hard' and 'soft' models of HRM. The individualistic values (and anti-union bias) that pervade the thetoric of the enterprise culture are consistent with the individualistic and unitarist values of stereotypical normative HRM models. Its emphasis on the primacy of the market and the need to create enterprising individuals and firms to compete successfully in the marketplace finds echoes in the 'hard' model's emphasis on external integration – of the match between strategy and environment, and of HRM policy, procedures and practices with business strategy. The image of enterprising individuals as keen to take responsibility, goal oriented and concerned to monitor their progress toward goal achievement, motivated to acquire the skills and resources necessary to pursue these goals effectively, seeing the world as one of opportunity rather than constraint (Keat, 1991) is consistent with the values of commitment and flexibility embodied in the 'soft' model. One could argue too that the rhetoric about the sovereignty of customer is consistent with the ideas about quality, also central to the 'soft' model. However

the ideas about competitive advantage that pervade HRM and the models of excellence still raise questions about employees' commitment and the policies which could enable organisations to elicit such desirable attitudes.

While the theory may argue positively about the compatibility of certain HRM aspects the reality may remain unclear. In fact employees need flexible use of labour, for certain periods of time and in particular they use flexible contracts, in order to ensure the most economic use of labor. There is evidence that employers are less willing to invest their resources in the training of employees who will not be in a position to provide a long time, long term payback of that investment. The labour that an organisation employs is, in nearly all cases, the most expensive item of its operating costs. There is increasing pressure on operating costs. In the private sector, competition, particularly internationally, is getting tougher. In the public sector, ever-tightening financial constraints mean that organisations here too are having to use their most expensive resource in ever more cost-effective ways. There are obviously benefits for employers in matching more closely the work they pay for and the work they get done. Arguably, however, the major benefit of the use of flexibility for organisations lies in the transfer of cost and risk from the organisation to individuals and to the state, or to society as a whole. However the transfer of the costs means that flexible work is often low paid. It is the individual and the family who bear the cost of working on contractual arrangements instead of permanent. In addition, these employees may well be expected to arrange for and to pay for their own training and skill updating. The transfer of risks means that many individuals and the families that they support cannot be sure of employment much beyond the immediate future.

Since mid 1980s the commitment to flexibility has had an important influence on the UK's employment policies. As the UK economy has emerged from the recession of the early 1990s, and under unemployment has continued to fall, the realisation is that there will be no return to the labor market of the 1960s and 1970s. In 1991, for example, the Employment Department's overall aim was stared as being 'To support economic growth by promoting a competitive, efficient and flexible labor market' (Employment Department Group, 1991). In the opinion of successive Conservative governments, other European countries have imposed an unacceptable level of

regulation on their labor markets. The Labor government elected in 1997 maintains this stance. A majority of members of the European Union has high non-wage labour costs and employment legislation in those countries places constraints on an employer's ability to hire and fire. This has produced relatively low increases in employment and continuing high levels of unemployment. In the UK, the government has adopted a deregulatory agenda which, while leaving intact the bulk of employment protection legislation passed in the 1970s (or ever expanding it at the margins), has weakened trade unions' ability to take industrial action, repealed the legislation on wages councils and increased the length of time employees have to work for an employer before they can bring a claim for unfair dismissal. The longer-term significance of these changes is however not clear. Major studies, for example by the Royal Society of Arts (1995), have focused on ' the future of work', with the implication that work as we know it may be disappearing. Many of these issues cannot be separated from changes in the nature of work in society. Although the direct effect of these policies is unclear, they have underlined the decline of employment as a social human right and implied the market ideology in the current employment relationship. The fundamental shift in the nature of the employment relationship heralds far reaching effects in terms of employees' motivation and commitment.

The implications of market ideology - numerical flexibility - for employees

Flexibility – short-term employment and the new organisational structures (flat hierarchy) have produced wide-ranging effects, some positive but mainly negative, on employees. Interesting differences of reaction from different groups and the relative strength of reaction is linked with the amount of control over the situation the individuals feel they have. For instance, why the organisations use fixed term contracts, there was a wide discrepancy between employees about the reasons. As Holbeche (1997) argues some people were much more likely to give a 'strategic' sounding reason such as 'we are going global', while others were less likely to highlight such reasons. For them the overriding reason was cost-cutting. This seemed to color how they perceived they were affected. If people thought that the reason for

the change was just cost-cutting they reported having lower morale, more staff leaving, fewer promotion prospects and less responsibility. They were more likely to think of themselves as victims of other people's incompetence than were other people who could see a more strategic reason for the change.

Lack of career advancement

Some of the greatest effects of flexible organisation structures are being felt on individual careers. Whilst most people are aware that objective career patterns which include job security and promotion on seniority are a thing of the past, their own expectations and reactions to this situation (their subjective career) may not have accepted the change. Research suggests that many people still aspire to remaining with their current employers for many years and most hope to be promoted. This is even more marked in people who are described as 'high-flyers'. Very few expect to develop sideways, even if their experience to date has included periods of lateral development.

Typically people feel that opportunities for advancement are not present, or are only there for the privileged few. For those aspiring to reach the next level there was a common perception that the gaps between levels had widened, making it very difficult for people to acquire the necessary skills and experience to bridge them.

Status

Traditional hierarchies have always had clear and distinct marks of privilege attached to rank. In the military, uniforms, saluting and officers' messes are visible symbols of superior rank. In an office environment, such symbols are perhaps more discreet but are none the less obvious. Marks of privilege include such precious commodities as cars, parking spaces, more money, bigger desks. more space, even an office. Perhaps most precious of all, there is usually more interesting work, greater choice and influence and prestige within the organisation.

Status is a particularly sensitive issue. People have always sought to have their marks of distinction noted by others. The notion of hierarchy goes down deep and there are many cultural variations on this. In Europe, hierarchy has been reflected in all forms of employment and institutional life of generations.

Career self-management

Temporary employment and a host of organisational restructuring have fundamentally challenged the old career structure. Few people these days believe that a job is for life. Flatter structures in particular have challenged the idea that career development is 'onwards and upwards'. The idea that the organisation will look after career development seems irrelevant.

Many organisations have discovered that conventional career planning has not worked well in the past few years. Career planning based on a stable state and employee loyalty seems inappropriate. In some cases, organisations have wished to be honest with their employees and encouraged them to take more responsibility for managing their own careers. The trouble is that few employees seem to come to terms with this reality. Taking responsibility for managing your career can be extremely threatening to people who may be half way through what seemed an assured career path. Particularly for people who were attached to occupations such as banking or the civil service because of the job security and career development implied in these once most stable of institutions.

Careers seem to be threatened for those people who have perhaps spent twenty years or more with one employer, where they have built up considerable expertise, but whose appeal on the job market may be limited precisely because their experience is limited to one employer. Similarly, people who have built up pensionable service with one employer can incur severe financial penalties when changing pension schemes on changing jobs. Only those whose skills and desirability to prospective employers put them in a strong negotiating position are able to avoid losing out financially. Telling people that they are responsible for managing their career in such

circumstances often appears to be an abandonment of loyalty towards staff, unless the employer is prepared to help employees see how they might best do this.

The career self-management implication seem to have far reaching effects within the broader infrastructure of society. For people to be able to manage a career, which will increasingly include changing employers, periods of self-employment and various form of flexible working such as contract work, true independence and responsibility will come from having financial security and good health provision. On the health front (Holbeche, 1997), recent changes in the management and funding of the National Health Service in the UK have encouraged people to be more, not less, dependent on private health insurance, which is usually provided by an employer. Job flexibility is still an obstacle when people apply for mortgages. People who are on fixed-term contracts find getting a mortgage difficult. For most people the option of self-employment becomes too risky to be seriously contemplated because long-term security seems bound up with employment. This encourages a degree of dependency on the employer which the ' manage your own career' message does not take into account.

The aforementioned implications give rise to serious considerations about the motivational policies organisations should deploy if employees' commitment is to be gained. The current relevance of popular theories of motivation is explored given the widespread change in employment patterns due to the implementation of flexibility – temporary employment. This is what follows.

Motivation theories and flexible employment

It may be useful to look at some well-known theories of motivation for possible explanations for the many perceptions of flexible employment.

One set of theories talks of expectancy and takes into account that people have different needs. An example is the so-called 'motivation calculus', which assumes that when an individual experiences a need he or she is usually ready to perform in order to satisfy that need. However, before expending the energy and effort required

to do this, the individual makes perhaps unconsciously a calculation based on the expected outcome or reward for the effort made. If the reward is not likely to satisfy the need, it is unlikely that the individual will make the effort required. If the reward is great but the effort required to achieve it is too great, the need remains but the task can seem hopeless and demoralization can occur. For a virtuous cycle of need-performance-reward to be established, the balance has to be geared to the individual's circumstances, competencies and expectations on the one hand and to what the organisation needs and can offer employees on the other.

Consequently, the theory suggests that people have to believe that they have the capacity to improve performance. Yet in organisations deploying flexible working patterns, how clear are the skills, competencies and experiences required for success, and do people generally have a good level of self-awareness of their own skill levels? People also have to believe that improved performance will not be unduly costly in terms of energy, effort or social cost. In temporary employment, how clearly are work levels defined and processes clarified so that people are able to work smarter, not harder? People have to know that improved performance will result in demonstrably good results – measurable and perceived as improved.

However, people can make extra effort, which is then taken for granted and becomes expected as the norm. People also have to know that results will be seen as a positive contribution, that results will be rewarded and that the reward will be relevant and equitable. In flexible organisations, with ongoing change and few opportunities for promotion and job security on which the motivation calculus can be based, poor motivation, overwork and failure to deliver superlative performance may all be symptoms of the breakdown of that balance of psychological contract hence commitment.

Another set of theories looks at the satisfaction of needs. Abraham Maslow's famous **'Hierarchy of needs'** suggests that human needs are organized in a series of levels, a hierarchy of importance, starting with physiological and safety/security needs, followed by social needs (Maslow, 1943). Higher level needs relate to the self, both for self-esteem and self-fulfillment. Consequently, the satisfaction for self-

actualization or self-fulfillment, is interdependent with lower needs, though the higher level need may emerge before the lower need has been completely satisfied.

Applying the theory to organisations using short term contract, which typically are characterized by lack of job security and promotion opportunities, the interplay between different levels of need may perhaps be seen in the continuing aspiration for promotion when there are few or no opportunities available. Promotion is also associated with satisfying their higher-level needs. Even when there is continuing employment uncertainty, some people may still aspire to promotion. Taking on extra work may be a means of self-protection rather than a means of satisfying other ambitions. If security is threatened, interesting work in itself may not be considered satisfying.

Herzberg also describes motivation in terms of satisfaction, and his theory assumes that a satisfied employee will be a productive employee (Herzberg, 1966). Herzberg argues that the factors which produce satisfaction for people at work are different from the factors which cause dissatisfaction. Extrinsic factors, such as company administration, management, relationship with peers, bosses and subordinates, are more likely to result in dissatisfaction and are known as 'hygiene' factors. Intrinsic factors, such as achievement, growth, recognition, responsibility, the challenge of the work itself, are more likely to produce satisfaction and are therefore called 'motivators'. From an organisational standpoint, the theory suggests that manipulating intrinsic factors into job design is more likely to increase job satisfaction. Manipulating extrinsic factors will not lead to satisfaction, but merely the absence of dissatisfaction.

Applying this theory to organisations using short-term contracts, the balance between the possible negative effects on motivation of extrinsic factors and the strongly motivating effects of intrinsic factors must be found. It would therefore be argued that people who are not experiencing the satisfaction of intrinsic needs, such as the opportunity for growth, through promotions and career status may find alternatives satisfying self-esteem, possibly through expertise and job achievement.

The incorporation of both soft and hard elements within one theory or model is highly problematic because each rests on a different set of assumptions in the two key areas of human nature and managerial control strategies.

Many of these assumptions can, in fact, be traced back to the work of McGregor (1960), who used the terminology 'hard' and 'soft' to characterize forms of managerial control. McGregor was concerned with how to foster an organisational environment conducive to innovation. He concluded that most managerial control strategies were based on views of human nature contained in Theory X (e.g. that people dislike work), leading to tight managerial control through close direction. This is the emphasis within the hard model on strategic direction, integration, and performance management techniques such as appraisal.

Theory Y, on the other hand, introduces the notion that 'man will exercise self direction and self control in the service of objectives to which he is committed' (MacGregor, 1960, p.326). If people are assumed to be in pursuit of self-fulfilment through work, then management's aim should be to foster individual growth and development in order to realise the potential of its 'human resources' (sic). He continues, 'the principle of integration demands that both the organisation's and the individual's needs be recognized' (p. 329). This has a surprising degree of similarity with the current soft version of HRM, resting on the notions of commitment and self-direction, with the dual aims of meeting the needs of the organisation and the individual. MacGregor's argument was that it is our view of human nature (Theory X or Theory Y) which ultimately influences management control strategies.

Soft models of HRM can be compared with the Theory Y approach. The soft version assumes that employees will work best (and thereby increase organisational performance) if they are fully committed to the organisation (Beaumont, 1992; Dunham and Smith, 1979; Guest, 1987, 1988; Legge, 1995a; Lundy, 1994; Walton, 1985a). Hope (1994) notes that 'the employee working under an HRM system would not merely comply with the organisation's wishes, but positively and affectively commit themselves to the aims and values of their employees, and thereby give added value through their labour. The soft model emphasizes that this commitment will be generated if employees are trusted, if they are trained and developed, and if

they are allowed to work autonomously and have control over their work (Guest, 1987; Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990; Kamoche, 1994; Mahoney and Deckop, 1986; Purcell, 1993; Purcell and Ahlstrand, 1994; Tyson et al., 1994). In other words, the strategic dimension of the soft model, in contrast to the hard model, is that control comes through commitment (Purcell, 1993).

Conclusions

Human resource management has frequently been described as a concept with two district forms: soft and hard. These are diametrically opposed along a number of dimensions, and they have been used by many commentators as devices to categorise approaches to managing people according to developmental-humanist or utilitarian-instrumentalist principles (Legge, 1995).

The terms have gained popularity although, from a theoretical point of view, the underlying conflicts and tensions contained within the models have not been sufficiently explored and, from a practical perspective, available empirical evidence would suggest that neither model accurately represents what is happening within organisations (Storey, 1992; Wood, 1995).

The present research draws on Guest's soft model of HRM and explores the compatibility between two dimensions of the model; flexibility and organisational commitment.

The impact on employees of flexibility is rarely considered and has not been subject to detailed investigation. As such, little is known about how employees respond to these changes and what effect these practices have on employee commitment. Can employees on short-term contracts maintain commitment? This is an important question as poorly committed workers have been found to be less motivated and involved (Farrel and Rusbult, 1981; Stumpf and Hartman, 1984).

However the new strategic approaches to management are based on the proposition that enterprises need to develop more flexible and skilled workforces. Additionally a

number of writers have argued that organisations will need to adopt strategies that enhance employee commitment if they are to be competitive in the 1990s (Walton, 1985; Womack et al., 1991).

Given the increase in contract employment in recent years (Brewster, 1994; Capelli et al, 1987; Pfeffer and Baron, 1998) and the cost of having a poorly committed workforce (Mottaz, 1988), it is surprising that few studies have investigated the linkages between flexibility and employee commitment.

This empirical study will enable us to review and challenge the theoretical foundations upon which the two dimensions; flexibility and commitment (Guest model, 1987) are based.

Chapter 5. Research Methodology

Research methodology deals with the process of the research as a whole, namely the conceptualisation and the operationalisation of the study are discussed and analysed in detail. In particular, the conceptual framework underpinning this research and a number of testable hypothesis derived from it, will be presented. Moreover the research design (strategy), along with the measurements of each of the hypothesised relationships between the possible antecedents and the OC variable are explored and evaluated.

Organisational Commitment Definition Used for the Actual Research

The nature of employees' commitment to their employing organisation has long been a topic of great interest to organisational researchers. The foregoing literature review has revealed that the concept of organisational commitment has been defined and measured in several different ways. The most widely used approach has been that of Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974). They developed the organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to measure what they concluded was a unidimensional construct (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979).

More recent research has focused on the issue of multidimensionality of commitment. Angle and Perry (1981) found two distinguishable dimensions in the OCQ which they labeled "value commitment" and "commitment to stay". The differentiation between the commitment dimensions found by Angle and Perry (1981) reflects the basic distinction between two types of commitment noted by a number of researchers (e.g. Stevens, Beyer and Trice, 1978; Morris and Sherman, 1981; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Mayer and Schoorman, 1992).

Angle and Perry (1981) demonstrated that the dimensions of commitment were differentially predictive of important organisational outcomes.
In fact as Mayer and Schoorman (1992) point out, the distinction between continuance commitment and value commitment parallels March and Simon'' (1958)

ongoing decisions to participate and to produce, respectively. Moreover Meyer (1989) in her work stressed that it is the nature of commitment that counts and differentiates behaviour. She determined that affective commitment was positively related to job performance whereas continuance commitment was negatively related.

Schechter (1985) found continuance commitment significantly correlated with turnover intent, while value commitment significantly correlated with self-ratings of performance, extra-role behaviours, and satisfaction with organisation. Hence the affective or value commitment was positively related to job performance whereas continuance or behavioural commitment was negatively related.

Relying on the above considerations we could argue that organisations implementing short-term contract policies ought to prefer to pursue the kind of commitment resulting in high levels of performance and extra role behaviours rather than resulting in maintaining membership in the organisation. It is reasonable to assume that organisations with short-term contracts might be less willing to generate "stay" or "continuance" commitment and more willing to generate value or affective commitment.

Consequently in the present research organisational commitment is defined according to the approach put forward by Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974). Porter at al, (1974) defined organisational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation. It can be characterised by at least three factors: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. Before such a concept can be operationalised, however, greater understanding is required concerning the process by which commitment is formed in view of the changing employment patterns and how commitment may influence subsequent behaviour in organisational settings.

The main reason for employing Porter's affective definition of commitment is that it is considered relevant and consistent with the research issue itself as well as those surveyed.

In particular the aims of this study are:

♦ To reveal the degree and nature of organisational commitment for professionals employed in short term contracts,

♦ To identify the antecedents of their organisational commitment,

♦ To assess the relevant strength of those factors influencing commitment.

The selection of the above definition of organisational commitment used for the actual research is dictated by two interrelated factors as organisational pursuits: active loyalty; job performance.

First there is the nature of loyalty expected and pursued by organisations, second the desirable outcome of performance expected through commitment. More specifically it is argued that is now commonplace for organisations to seek the full energy, creativity, innovativeness and commitment of their employees. It is not enough to have a talented work force. Employees must now also be "committed" to the organisation and its goals. Organisations are aware that they must excite and engage minds and cultivate attitudes, if competitive advantage is to be gained. "Talent can be hired but commitment must be earned".

Employers need to shift from compliance to commitment and the emphasis on employment relationship shifts from control and passive loyalty to "active commitment". Employees that merely perform tasks in accord with a program and in compliance with a set of workplace rules are no longer desired. The notion of a fully committed workforce should not imply passive compliance when the employer's goals or practices deviate from the engaged employee's sense of correctness. The employee who has lost confidence in his employer, or who no longer believes in what the employer is trying to accomplish, must undertake to change what is not appropriate or to seek alternate employment. Passive resistance or malicious compliance, two techniques sometimes employed by the resisting employee, undermine productivity and are forms of punishing the employer for failing to meet the employee's expectations.

The affective conceptualisation of organisation commitment used for this research refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation (Porter et al., 1974) hence may contribute to the above mentioned organisational pursuits. In contrast the continuance conceptualisation is based on costs that an employee associates with leaving the organisation. This approach stems from Becker (1960) who claimed that individuals engage in consistent lines of activity due to the perceived cost of doing otherwise.

According to Meyer and Allen (1987) an employee who is affectively committed engages in certain activities because she or he wants to, while an employee who reflects continuance commitment engages in those behaviours because she or he needs to in order to avoid certain costs.

Consequently, one might expect the on-the-job behaviour of those who are affectively committed to the organisation to differ from that of employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment. Those who value and want to maintain membership should be willing to exert considerable effort on behalf on the organisation (Mowday et al., 1982). In contrast, those who feel compelled to remain to avoid financial or other costs may do little more than the minimum required to retain their employment. Thus the behavioural expression of organisational commitment and its strength may be highly dependent on the specific conceptualisation of organisational commitment adopted.

It is worth noting that Becker's (1960) side-bets theory of commitment represents mainly the "old deal" in employment where stable employment patterns were based on the exchange of job security and career advancement in the ladder of hierarchy for loyalty compliance and membership maintaining. Today job security and career advancement are disappearing and membership or tenure is no more among the desirable organisational pursuits. In other words Becker's definition of commitment seem not so valid to the current situation while Porter et al's. affective conceptualisation of commitment seems to be the most relevant to the current situation ensuring or promising additional employees' effort through active loyalty.

However, as Mathieu and Zajac (1990) stress, Porter's definition is classified as an attitudinal (affective or value) type of commitment although it does not draw exclusively on that construct. Indeed the commitment factors referred to above draw also on continuance commitment. This unified construct will lead us to identify the first of the three objectives of this research – the degree and the nature of organisational commitment - without preventing the exploration of possible other types of commitment.

Model's conceptualisation for the present study

Having selected and justified the organisation commitment definition used for the present study it is important to understand the model's conceptualisation or in other words the causes of commitment.

In particular in order to satisfy the second research objective – to identify the antecedents of organisational commitment for short-term professionals – we should ask how commitment is developed and what motivates contemporary professionals to generate commitment given a history of change and an uncertain future.

A central theme that emerges from the work on the affective conceptualisation of organisational commitment is the notion of exchange, where individuals attach themselves to the organisation in return for certain payments from the organisation March & Simon, 1958; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Steers, 1977; Mowday & Steers, 1979; Farrel & Rusbult, 1981; Peters, Bhagat, & O'Connor, 1981; Mowday et al., 1982; Angle, 1983). Individuals enter organisations with specific skills, desires, and goals, and expect a work setting where they can use their skills, satisfy their desires, and achieve their goals. To the extent the organisation is perceived as facilitating these ends, organisational commitment is likely to increase. On the other hand, if the organisation is perceived as failing to provide sufficient opportunities along these lines, organisational commitment is likely to diminish (Steers, 1977).

At the heart of this exchange is an implicit agreement that has been referred to elsewhere as the "psychological contract" (Kotter, 1973). In contrast to the explicit

set of rights and obligations that ordinarily comprise a legal contract, the psychological contract is a rather vague arrangement in which many obligations remain unspecified. Even so, specific expectations do exist on the part of both parties and, to the extent that there is a balance or match between what the organisation provides and the member's expectations, the member's satisfaction appears to be maximised (Kotter, 1973).

The primary mechanism that explains how perceived equitable treatment of the individual by the organisation (which leads to a state of satisfaction) can culminate in a member's commitment to the organisation is reciprocation. This mechanism is based on the norm of reciprocity, which has been said to be one of the most ubiquitous norms in human society (Gouldner, 1960). According to this norm, people are strongly prone to reciprocate the good works of others. Since some of the contributions to the exchange that organisations typically expect of their members include taking on the values and goals of the company as one's own, conformity, and loyalty (Kotter, 1973), members will offer their commitment in reciprocation for the organisation's having held up its end of the psychological contract.

Moreover according to Holland "people find environments reinforcing and satisfying when environmental patterns resemble their personality patterns."Holland (1985a) defines this construct as "congruence." Numerous studies (e.g., Assoline & Meir, 1987; Gottfredson & Holland, 1990; Mount & Muchinsky, 1978; Spokane, 1985; Tranbrg, Slane, & Ekeberg, 1993) have found congruence to be positively associated with job satisfaction, stability, and success.

One of the assumptions of Holland's theory is that "people search for environments that will let them exercise their skills and abilities, express their attitudes and values, and take on agreeable problems" (Holland, 1985). Holland further suggests that when individuals change careers, they search for a work environment compatible with their personal structure. Therefore, his theory predicts that adults changing career generally move to a more congruent environment.

The notion of exchange combined with the notion of congruence as introduced by Holland, represents a central theoretical framework for understanding different

vocational behaviours and explaining variation in organisational commitment. Additionally this framework implies a person's environment-fit model and provides the basis upon which the model predicting organisational commitment for the present research can be built.

The present study draws heavily on Holland's theory of congruence and March & Simon's of exchange. The congruence and exchange perspective suggests that organisational commitment is largely a function of work rewards and work values. It is widely accepted that work attitudes such as work satisfaction or organisational commitment are largely a function of work rewards and work values (Vroom, 1960; Locke, 1976; Katzell, 1979; Kalleberg, 1977; Mowday et al., 1982). Work rewards refer to the intrinsic and extrinsic benefits that employees receive from their jobs (Herzberg, 1966). Moreover, work rewards are the key determinants of work attitudes, although they do vary in terms of their effects (Kalleberg, 1977; Angle & Perry, 1983). The relative importance of the various rewards for determining work attitudes depends on the individual's work values. Work values refer to what the employee wants, desires, or seeks to attain from work (Locke, 1976). There are standards that the individual uses to assess or judge the work situation. The greater the perceived congruence between work rewards and work values, the more positive the work attitudes.

If the above reasoning is valid, then the present problem is to determine the precise manner in which (variables) work-related rewards and values influence organisational commitment. According to the reciprocity function used in the present study, work rewards and work values are the key explanatory concepts that account for variation in organisational commitment (see figure 1).

It is assumed that a directional hypothesis can be offered presenting the logic under which the research has been conducted. "The higher the perceived congruence between work rewards and work values the higher the commitment."

MODEL PREDICTING ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

```
┌─────────────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────┐
│ Individual Characteristics  │ ───────▶ │   Work Values    │
└─────────────────────────────┘          └──────────────────┘
```

Age
Sex
Marital Status
Education
Type of Employment (tenure / short - term)
Total Time Employed (tenure / short - term - contracts)

```
┌─────────────────────────────┐          ┌──────────────────┐
│      Work Experiences       │ ───────▶ │   Work Rewards   │
└─────────────────────────────┘          └──────────────────┘
```

Job Dimensions
Organizational Dimensions
Career Dimensions
Social Dimensions

```
┌──────────────────────┐
│   Organizational     │
│    Commitment        │
└──────────────────────┘
```
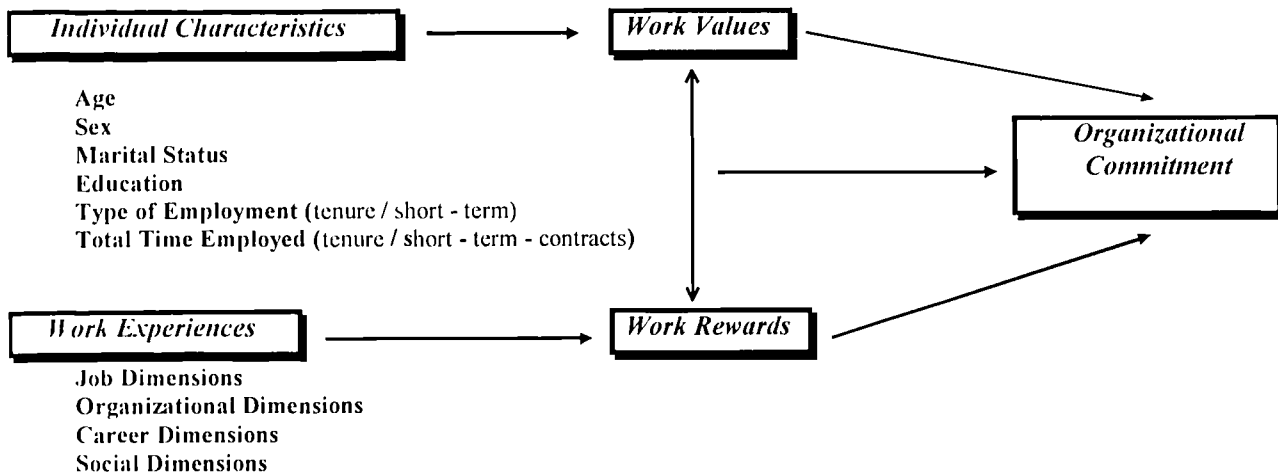
Figure 1

Work rewards – Values Predicting Organisational Commitment

The model focuses on four clusters of work rewards. These clusters are :

◆ **organisational dimensions.**

◆ **job dimensions**

◆ **career dimensions**

◆ **social dimensions**

The work rewards selected for inclusion in this research were those found in previous research to correlate with affective organisational commitment, and those that emerged from the pilot study carried out for this research.

In particular:

Organisational dimensions refer to those rewards provided by the organisations for the purpose of facilitating or motivating task performance. These rewards include **management receptiveness organisational trust equity, personal importance.**

Job dimensions refer to those rewards directly associated with "doing the job". They are derived from the content of the task itself and include such factors as **task challenge, task identity, task feedback, task autonomy, task involvement.**

Career dimensions refer to the extent to which individuals perceive organisations as providing opportunities like professional development, reputation etc for building **employability security.**

Social dimensions refer to those rewards derived from interacting with others on the job; they are based on the quality of interpersonal relationships and include such factors as **friendship opportunity and peer cohesion.**

From the perspective of reciprocity function work rewards are the key antecedents of organisational commitment (Steers, 1977; Mowday et al 1982; Angle, 1983) However, the rewards do vary in terms of their effects. The relative importance of the various rewards for determining organisational commitment depends on the individual's work values. Work values refer to what the employees want, desire or seek to attain from work (Lock 1976; Kalleberg 1977). Each individual has his/her own perception and uses his/her own standards to assess the work situation.

According to the reciprocity perspective model, work rewards and work values are the key explanatory concepts that account for variation in commitment. Thus organisational commitment is the variable whose variation the researcher is seeking to explain; this is the so called **dependent variable** while work rewards - values are used to explain variation in the depended variable (commitment); these are the so called **independent variables.**

Finally personal characteristics commonly found in other models are included in the model. These are age, sex, marital status, level of education. Personal characteristics are supposed to produce variation in commitment not as direct explanatory concepts

but as variables correlating and affecting commitment indirectly, through the different levels of work rewards and values that stem from them (personal characteristics).

One particular advantage of the work reward - value reciprocity model is that it directs attention to both work rewards and work values in the analysis of organisational commitment rather than emphasising one at the expense of the other.

Hypotheses
Organisational Dimensions

Management receptiveness and personal importance. The current emphasis on programs of employee involvement, communication, participative management, voice expression and management receptiveness has become an important issue in organisations (Leana & Florkowski, 1992). The opportunity to express one's opinions and arguments is an essential element in the experience of self-esteem personal importance affecting favourably and, consequently, attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in organisations (Lind & Tyler, 1988). For instance, voice expression in decision-making situations has been shown to relate to perceived management receptiveness procedures and endorsement of leaders and authorities (Tyler, Rasinski & Spodick, 1985). Organisational practices that encourage participation and voice expression in essential decisions are likely to lead to perceptions of personal importance and self esteem.

Moreover honest and frequent communication generates perceptions of fairness and trust among employees, upholding the perceived procedural contract (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Failure to communicate important information, in contrast, particularly during times of organisational unrest, violates the contract, resulting in unmet expectations, fear, distrust, and, ultimately, cynicism (Schweiger & De Nisi, 1991; Shore & Tetrick, 1995). In situations of infrequent or inadequate communication, employees will seek other means for reducing uncertainty, such as reliance on rumours and other informal communications. Periods of organisational turmoil are often

heightening employee's tension and negative attitudes. Moreover, attempts by management to hide the real situation serve only to exacerbate employees' contempt, distrust, damaged self-esteem and lack of personal importance generating low levels of commitment toward management (Rosnow, 1988).

Hypothesis 1: the higher the perceived management receptiveness and personal importance of the employee the higher the commitment.

Trust: Although the topic of trust has long been of interest to organisational scholars, a variety of workplace trends have led to a renewed focus on its nature, antecedents, and consequences (Whitney, 1994; Kramer and Tyler, 1995; Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995). As organisations have become flatter and more team-based, organisational authorities' surveillance of their subordinates has given way to less dictatorial modes of interpersonal influence. Perhaps now more than ever, managers' effectiveness depends on their ability to gain the trust of their subordinates.

People considered to be trustworthy behave in ways expected of them in the absence of surveillance. They do not merely comply with external forces, such as surveillance pressures, but have internalised the behaviours (Kelman, 1961). Although trust is important in many interpersonal relationships in work organisations (e.g., McAllister, 1995), the focus here is on employees' trust for people in authority positions, such as their immediate supervisor or members of higher levels of management. Studies have shown that trust in organisational authority influences a variety of subordinates' work attitudes and behaviours.

In general, employees are more supportive of or committed to authorities, and the institutions that the authorities represent, when trust is relatively high (Whitney, 1994; Kramer & Tyler, 1995). Support for organisational authorities may be manifested in a variety of ways. People who feel supportive of organisational authorities are likely to be: (a) satisfied with their relationship with the authorities, (b) committed to the organisation, and (c) willing to behave in ways that help to further the authorities' goals and, by extension, the goals of the organisation. For instance, Konovsky and Pugh (1994) found that employees were more likely to

exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours when they were relatively trusting of their supervisor.

A classic problem for managers is how to maintain their subordinates' support when making decisions that lead to relatively unfavourable outcomes for the affected parties. Research findings suggest that by showing themselves to be trustworthy, managers may be able to maintain support, at least temporarily, even when making decisions that lead to relatively unfavourable outcomes. (Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler, Martin, 1997).

Hypothesis 2: The higher the employee's trust in the organisation the higher the commitment.

Job Dimensions

Autonomy, skill variety, task identity, and feedback. Fundamental to the employment relationship is that every employee needs an opportunity to demonstrate competence. Each wants to do something meaningful and to do it well. This is a basic need of the human condition. Employees need to believe that they have meaningful roles in solving a problem or providing services that need to be solved or provided. Doing something useless does not meet this need. If the need is not met, eventually employees will lose interest and withdraw from engagement with the work. They will lose self-esteem, and morale will deteriorate. On the other hand, employees who have meaningful opportunities to be heard on issues of significance and who are dealt with fairly when they take advantage of that opportunity will retain interest in the tasks and are far more likely to engage their creative ability and energy.

According to the Minnesota theory of work adjustments (Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1968), each individual seeks to achieve and maintain correspondence with his/her work environment. To the extent that there is a high degree of fit between the individual and the work environment (in terms of ability requirements and reinforcement system), the person is predicted to remain at his/her job (high tenure).

In addition to the vocational behaviours of occupational choice and tenure, a person-environment fit approach has focused on work outcomes related to the job design. According to the Job Characteristic Model, Hackman and Oldham (1976) found that individuals with a higher need for personal growth respond more positively to jobs (in terms of satisfaction, performance, and intrinsic work motivation) which are perceived to be high in scope. High-scope jobs possess the following job characteristics: autonomy, skill variety, task identity, and feedback.

Stumpf and Hartman (1984) found that higher perceived person-job congruence was significantly positively related to organisational commitment. Furthermore, cross-sectional studies have linked such a person-environment fit model's components to organisational commitment; Hall and Schneider (1972) and Angle (1983) found a person's higher order needs to be positively related to organisational commitment. Steers (1977) and Verderber, Green, and Baugh (1981) found significant positive relationship between perceived job characteristics (e.g., feedback, autonomy, task identity) and organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: the higher the autonomy, skill variety, task identity, and feedback the higher the commitment.

Career Dimension

Employability security: According to Moss Kanter (1992), organisations need to switch incentives from careers, status and promotion to personal reputation, teamwork and challenging assignments. They have to find ways of making work sufficiently challenging and involving so that it becomes a source of loyalty which translates into a new kind of security, which she calls " Employability Security". This is the promise that the employee's skills will be enhanced, and access to other tasks and assignments will be facilitated. Their knowledge and skills should be transferable across organisations or better still across sectors. Moreover as employees desire their security from their employability particular attention should be paid to the rapid technical obsolescence occurring in recent years. Updating skills

is a real necessity. Professionals are only in demand for as long as they provide additional value to organisations.

In the new era of employment, employees are employed as long as they add value to the organisation, and they are personally responsible for finding new ways to add value. Increasingly, people are being pushed to maintain their personal income and employability, by planning, building, and leading their own development and professional reputation and learning to manage their own careers (Handy, 1989).

Entering into a new contract the employer and the employee share responsibility for maintaining – ever enhancing – the individual's employability inside and outside the organisation. Under the old contract, employees entrusted major decisions affecting their careers to a paternal organisation. Often, the result was a dependent employee and a relative static workforce with a set of static skills. Under the new contract, employers give individuals the opportunity to develop greatly enhanced employability in exchange for better productivity and some degree of commitment to company purpose and community for as long as the employee works there. It is the employee's responsibility to manage his or her own career. It is the organisation's responsibility to provide employees with the tools, the open environment, and the opportunities for assessing and developing their skills. And it is the responsibility of managers at all levels to show that they care about their employees whether or not they stay with the organisation. The result is a group of self-reliant workers – or a career-resilient workforce – and an organisation that can thrive in an era in which the skills needed to remain competitive are changing at a dizzying pace.

By a career-resilient workforce, we mean a group of employees who not only are dedicated to the idea of continuous learning but also stand ready to reinvent themselves to keep pace with change; who take responsibility for their own career management; and last but not least, who are committed to the organisation's success.

Hypothesis 4: the higher the employees' employability the higher the commitment.

Social Dimension

Friendship opportunities/peer cohesion. Individuals consider the nature of their treatment by managers and other employees as a criterion of fairness in a friendly environment (Bies & Moag, 1986). Honesty, ethicality, politeness, willingness to help should the need arise and respect in interpersonal dealings are prominent factors in employees's perceptions of justice and friendship opportunities. Behaviours that violate norms of politeness are viewed as unfair because the basic normative rules of organisational members are valued in their own right (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Hence, expectations that employees will treat one another with courtesy and respect become ingrained in the employee's cognitions as standards of behaviour (Bies & Moag, 1986). When these standards are not honoured, perception of interpersonal injustice or hostility will result, thus leading to negative attitudes such as dislike and distrust toward organisation or peers (Bies & Moag, 1986); Lind & Tyler, 1988).

Hypothesis 5: the higher the friendship opportunity and peer cohesion the higher the commitment.

Personal characteristics

Age, sex, marital status and level of education. Few studies have touched on the issue of education to date so there has been no detailed or comprehensive analysis of the education- organisational commitment relationship. As a result, little is known about the impact of education on organisational commitment. Moreover in view of the rising educational level of the work force which engages in short-term employment and insofar as organisational commitment may have important consequences for work performance, absenteeism, and turnover, information regarding this relationship would seem to be of considerable practical importance. The existing research results regarding the relationship between education and organisational commitment are inconsistent. Several studies indicate that organisational commitment varies directly with educational level (Lee, 1971; Steers & Spencer, 1977).

The bulk of the research of this topic, however, suggests that education is inversely related to organisational commitment (Grusky, 1966; Wrebinak & Alluto, 1972; Steers, 1977; Koch & Steers, 1978; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Angle & Perry, 1981, 1983). Moreover, there is also little agreement about the reason for this relationship. One common explanation is that more professional employees have greater opportunities for alternative employment than their less educated counterparts and as a result are less committed to the organisation (Angle & Perry, 1981). Another popular notion is that professional workers tend to be less committed to the organisation because they are more committed to their profession or trade (Steers, 1977; Mowday et al., 1982). Finally, some argue that the more educated workers have higher expectations which the organisation simply is unable to meet (Steers, 1977; Mowday et al., 1982). Taken together, the research results clearly indicate that some sort of relationship exists between education and organisational commitment. However the nature of this relationship and the reasons for it remain unclear.

While the existing research on education and organisational commitment does not shed much light on this issue, some insights regarding this relationship may be obtained from the literature on work satisfaction. The available evidence in this area indicates that education may have important negative, as well as positive, effects on work satisfaction (Gruenberg,1980; Glenn & Weaver, 1982; Mottaz, 1986). Generally, the findings suggest that education may increase work satisfaction by increasing the availability of both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, but at the same time, may reduce work satisfaction by developing work values that are unfulfilled in the workplace. Since work satisfaction and organisational commitment are distinct, but related work attitudes (Porter et al., 1974), it is suggested here that the nature of the relationship between education and organisational commitment, as well as the reasons behind it, may parallel the research findings on education and work satisfaction.

Here we argue that the more educated professionals develop less organisational commitment because they can more easily find alternative employment.

Hypothesis 6: The higher the level of education the lower the commitment. This hypothesis relies on two arguments: first that the more educated professionals

develop low levels of organisational commitment because they can more easily find alternative employment; second low commitment is due to the organisational difficulty of meeting high expectations of highly educated professionals.

Research Strategy

The available literature on Research Methodology varies widely in its degree of specificity, from the most general to the most specific detail, about how to employ a particular research strategy.

Any scientific investigation in the social or natural sciences must begin with some structure or plan. The plan derives from the aim of the investigation and the way the investigator chooses to approach and execute the research.

This plan is the so called **research strategy.**
"Research Strategy or research procedure refers to the way in which one particular empirical study is designed and carried out, in particular defines what notions about the task of sociological research are embodied in the approach used, what type of research design (model) is used and which particular combination of available research techniques   (operationalization) and data analyses is employed. (Bulmer, 1978; Rose, 1977; Bell, 1989).

Therefore **Research strategy** defines :

♦ the type of research

♦ the research approach

♦ method – tool (operationalization)

♦ variable selection

♦ variables measurements

♦ sample definition

♦ questionnaire

Research type

The basic reason why social scientists conduct research is to find things out. However one can immediately envisage different purposes of inquiry. That is to say one might want to discover merely the empirical outlines of some situations i.e. the factual details on a subject about which there is a general ignorance. A fact gathering research would be answering questions of **"how many" "how much" "what number" "what percentage"**

or

one might want to discover not merely the empirical facts about a situation but to go further to answer questions about what causes those facts to be as they are. A research with this purpose would be answering the questions of **"why" "what caused"**.

The two types of purposes or questions correspond to a basic distinction that is frequently made by researches between so called **descriptive** and so called **explanatory** or **causal studies**.

The former describes the patterns of variations in a particular phenomenon within a number of individuals while the latter seeks to account in explanatory terms for such patterns of variation. Therefore, according to the questions or the purpose of the research two distinct types can be shaped **descriptive and explanatory**.(Bulmer 1984; Rose, 1971; Kidder et al., 1991)

Descriptive studies may focus upon individual variables (e.g. univariate) or upon combinations of variables (e. g. multivariate) . However explanatory studies are necessarily at least bivariate, viz. concerned with two variables, because at least a second variable (A so called independent variable) is needed to account for the variation in a first variable (the so called dependent variable).

A dependent variable is therefore one whose variation the researcher is seeking to explain, and an independent (or explanatory) variable is one used to explain the

variation in the dependent variable. Therefore, a descriptive study tries to explore, and in the process to describe, the relationships among variables, while an explanatory study attempts to interpret such descriptive relationships.

The research under way, as its aim mentioned above, tries to understand and explain variation in organisational commitment and can be categorised as **explanatory** type research. The explanatory nature of this research will become more clear later on in the measurements section.

It is evident that the explanatory research type matches perfectly to the problem under investigation. The dependent variable whose variation we are seeking to explain is the OC, while the independent or explanatory variables are four clusters of variables, organisational dimension; job dimension; career dimension; social dimension; presented earlier in this chapter. Consequently, we seek for a systematic relationship or a so called correlation between the dependent and explanatory variables. Namely, we are seeking to define how OC is correlated with the four distinct clusters of variables we chose to investigate in our research.

In correlational studies, data on two or more variables are obtained and an attempt is made to determine whether or not the variables are correlated. Correlation refers to the degree to which two variables consistently vary in the same direction(positive correlation), or in the opposite direction (negative correlation).If two variables are positively correlated one tends to be high when the other is high and low when the other is low. A negative correlation exists when one variable tends to be high when the other is low, and vice versa (Denzin et al, 1994).

Furthermore, the next stage in a research strategy process-after the formulation of theoretical propositions and the identification of the dependent and independent variables- is the choice of the particular research approach to be used.

Research Approach

The research approaches most commonly identified in the literature can be subsumed under three major types : experimental which covers the subjects of experiments and quasi- experiments; non experimental which is sometimes referred to as survey; and field research a term which is used more or less as a synonym for participant observation, although strictly speaking this type of approach could also be included under the second type (Bryman, 1989; Morse, 1994; Yin 1994)

In an experimental research approach, a researcher manipulates one or more independent variables to observe the effect on the one or more dependent variables. It involves the allocation of individual research subjects randomly to one or two groups, a so called treatment (or experimental) group that receives the experimental treatment, and a so called control group that does not. Any difference between the two groups after the application of the treatment should be attributable to the effect of the treatment.

An explanatory research type can be labelled as experimental or non experimental study. The difference between these two research types concerns the degree to which experimenter or investigator controls that which he or she studies. The experimental approach occurs when the subjects (people or social system) and conditions, events or situations to be studied are manipulated by the investigator.

That is the investigator does something to affect the subjects studied and then determines the effects of those manipulations. Such studies involve comparison of subject behaviours or characteristics under the various conditions being investigated. The key to experimental design is that the investigator assigns subjects to conditions rather than observing them in naturally occurring situations.

The non experimental design differs in the degree to which the investigator manipulates subjects and conditions. In the non experimental research approach, the researcher usually observes relationships between two or more variables as they exist, without trying to manipulate them. The investigator may identify conditions, but subjects of the study are not assigned to them. Rather various observations are

made of the subjects who may naturally fall into conditions. The research approach employed for the present study can be characterised as non experimental study since "subjects" "conditions" and "causes" involved are examined and assessed with "no manipulation" as in non experimental studies occurs. The non experimental research approach will become more obvious later when the treatment of variables is discussed.

It remains true that the most extensively used non experimental research approach is the survey, which is also the most widely practised alternative to experimentation.

Survey research can be classified according to its purpose as : descriptive and analytic. The purpose of the former is to count. It counts a representative sample and then make inferences about the population. In most descriptive surveys the principal consideration is sampling. In contrast, the purpose of the analytic survey is to explore relationships between particular variables. Oppenheim (1979) suggested that the analytic survey " is less oriented towards representativeness and more towards finding associations and explanations, less toward description and more toward prediction, less likely to ask "how many" or "how often" than "why" and "how" ".

Moreover, three distinct types of survey research can be identified in the literature(Nachmias, 1982; Kidder et al, 1991). The first, is the so called cross sectional study, which is a single study of a sample of subjects at one point in time. Cross sectional studies cannot be used for unambiguous statements about causation between two variables measured at the same point in time when the direction of causation between them may not be determined from theoretical principles. In some situations, there are reasons for arguing that the direction of causation between two variables is more likely to be in one direction than the other; however sometimes one may argue that it could occur in either direction.

The major survey research tool to overcome this difficulty of the cross sectional study is the so called panel (or longitudinal) study, which involves interviewing the same sample of respondents on two or more occasions. Data on individuals at three separate points in time provide access to more sophisticated statistical techniques than with merely two points in time. In general, panel studies are the best survey

based method of assessing causation, because one has measurements on individuals at two or more points in time that may be related to the time of occurrence of any supposed cause (Judd et al, 1991).

A third type of survey research is the trend study which involves interviewing different samples of respondents drawn from the same population at different points in time. Trend studies give estimates of gross change at the aggregate level, between different points in time, and they may frequently be suitable for some reasonably robust inferences about the cause of observed change, often in the light of events that have occurred between successive surveys (e.g. change in the popularity rating of a government in the light of some intervening political event) (Morse, 1994). However, trend studies are in general less useful then panel studies for the assessment of reasons for change, because the latter provide individual level data on patterns of switching. Thus, panel study data show whether individuals have changed between two points in time, even though the final effect of these switches may have been self- cancelling, in terms of the result at the aggregate level. Even where much individual switching has occurred trend data will not record this, if its effects are self- cancelling (Judd et al, 1991).

Two methods seem to be most appropriate: longitudinal and cross sectional surveys. In theory the longitudinal method is attractive because it measures differences in attitudes overtime. However because the subject of this study are on short term contracts in practice it would be extremely difficult to interview them twice. Consequently the cross sectional survey seams to be the best most practical option.

Within the context of the above theoretical considerations, the cross sectional survey approach must be selected and used in our study, since this approach corresponds absolutely to the purposes of the research , already stated above.

After choosing the approach to be used, in order to achieve the objectives of our research, we can turn to the next stage of the research process which is the operationalisation of the study.

Research operationalisation

Operationalisation refers to the choice of the appropriate technique or method of data collection and the subsequent decisions about concepts/ indicators and their measurements.

"Research techniques" or "research methods" are specific manipulative and fact finding operations which are used to yield data about the research problem. Examples include the use of questionnaires or interview schedules to elicit people's social characteristics, beliefs, and attitudes, the use of official statistics and archival records, and the use of historical documents (Bell, 1989; Bryman,1989; Erikson, 1992)

Method

For the purposes of our survey we choose the use of questionnaire as the most suitable method of data collection. We based our decision on two factors. First, as we have already stressed in the conceptualisation section we intend to use a multivariate design of data analysis, in order to test our hypotheses. Moreover, most of the available statistical techniques can be used provided that we have a large number of cases. This fact, along with our concern about valid and reliable data collection - present in all PhD studies- made us choose interviewing people using a structured questionnaire as the appropriate method of data gathering.

Secondly, most of the reported researches in the literature used the survey questionnaire design in order to determine the relationships of OC with its various antecedents and outcomes.

Measurements

The major task in a research project is often the elaboration of appropriate concepts, by which to express theoretical propositions and their subsequent operationalisation using indicators for the purpose of conducting actual research.

In devising indicators the major problem is that they have to satisfy two crucial criteria: The criterion of validity which examines if the indicator measures what it is supposed to be measuring, and the criterion of reliability, which refers to the degree to which a measure is consistent in producing the same readings, when measuring the same things on different occasions and when tested on the same population (Kirk et al,1986)

In the operationalisation process where the concept - indicator relations must be handled the key issue is the scales of measurement developed to measure the variables under investigation. In general, each variable has two or more different values, within a sample or population. The meaning of the numerical score (value) assigned to a variable depends on the type of scale that was used to measure the specific variable.

It is usually considered that there are four scales of measurement: a nominal scale which uses numbers as "names" for certain categories or individuals. Numbers in a nominal scale have no relationship to one another; an ordinal scale in which numbers are in a definite order, but there is nothing known about distance between each number; an interval scale in which scores differ from one another by the same amount, but there is no meaningful zero point; and a ratio scale which is an interval scale with a true zero point (Norusis, 1988; Silverman, 1993)

Variables such as gender or age may be easy to measure as nominal, or ordinal scales, but attitudes and other non cognitive variables are usually quite difficult. However, there are some scaling techniques for measuring direction and extremity of attitudes, such as Thurstone scales, Likert scales, Guttman scales and Semantic scales.

By these attitude scaling techniques, we try to find out where along a scale ranging from extreme unfavourableness to extreme favourableness a particular attitude lies. This is termed an "attitude measurement" (Moser & Kalton, 1971).

However, for most types of attitude variables, there exist well validated widely used scales. In general it is better to use such scales, than to attempt to create a new one, since the construction is a difficult and time consuming process.

According to the above considerations most of the variables we have chosen to test in our research are attitudes variables. Moreover, not only for the OC variable, but also for the independent variables that are proposed as antecedents in the present research, there are specific measurements scales, which have been developed and validated not only in previous studies but also in the present research. With few exceptions, the Likert scale technique was used in measuring these attitudes variables.

In particular, the respondent was asked to choose between five response categories indicating various strengths of disagreement and agreement with an item. Consequently, with respect to our enquiry the measures we used for the operationalisation of the dependent and independent variables were based on well established scales tested in other studies. In particular a questionnaire was constructed to measure the variables involved in this study.

Organisational commitment. Attitudinal organisation commitment is measured by a questionnaire which derives from the consideration of three questionnaires :

a) (OCQ) Organisation Commitment Questionnaire developed by Porter at al (1979)

b) The Organisation Commitment Questionnaire developed by Cook J and Wall T (1980)

c) The Affective Commitment Questionnaire developed by Meyer J and Allen N (1990).

Using a 5 point Likert - type format the response categories for each item will range from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The responses for each item will be summed and averaged to yield an organisation commitment score. There is substantial evidence regarding the reliability and validity of these measures: Mowday Steers Porter (1979) Cook and Wall (1980) Meyer and Allen (1990).

Moreover the reliability and validity of the questionnaire used for the actual research has also been tested by Cronbach's Alpha (Alpha=0.80)

Work rewards

Organisational Dimensions. Organisational dimensions included in this questionnaire are : management receptiveness, organisational dependability, equity, personal importance (section B of the questionnaire).

♦ Management receptiveness refers to the degree to which management was receptive to employees suggestions (items B.1, B.2)

♦ Organisational dependability refers to the degree of trust to the organisation for its intentions and actions concerning with employees (items B.3, B.4)

♦ Equity refers to the degree that employees are treated equitably (items B.5, B.6)

♦ Personal importance refers to the degree that employees are made to feel that they are important to the organisation (items B.7, B.8, B.9).

Job Dimensions. Job dimensions included in the questionnaire are : Task challenge, task identity, task feedback, task autonomy, task involvement (section C).

♦ Task challenge refers to the degree of attractiveness of the job (items C 1.1, C 1.2, C 1.3, C 1.4, C 1.5)

♦ Task identity refers to the extent to which employees do an entire or whole piece of work and can clearly identify the result of their efforts (items C 1.6, C 1.7, C 1.8).

♦ Task Feedback refers to the degree to which employees receive information as they are working which reveals how well they are performing on the job (items C 1.9, C 1.10).

♦ Task autonomy refers to 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 (items C 1.11, C 1.12, C 1.13, C 1.14).

♦ <u>Task involvement</u> refers to the degree to which it is perceived to be a major source to the satisfaction of important needs (items C 1.15, C 1.16, C 1.17, C 1.18, C 1.19)

♦ <u>Fringe benefits</u> (items C 2.1, C 2.2, C 2.3, C 2.4).

Career Dimensions. Schein (1978) define a career as "a sequence of positions held by a person during the course of his/her life" The Dimension of employability perspectives are investigated. Here we are concerned with assessing individuals' perceptions about opportunities provided by the organisation leading to marketable skills and employability security (section D items D1, D2, D3, D4, D5, D6, D7, D8, D9). Using the information about what individuals are given by the organisation, in combination with what their preferences or values are, their career perspectives are shaped. This in turn implies the career type they pursue or would like pursue.

Social Dimensions include Friendship Opportunity and Peer Cohesion (section E).

<u>Friendship opportunity</u>. Friendship opportunity refers to the degree to which a job allows employees to talk with one another on the job and to establish important relationships with other employees at work (items E1, E2, E3).

<u>Peer Cohesion</u> refers to the degree of employees willingness to help one another on the job (items E4, E5).

Work Values

Work values refer to the relative importance assigned to the various rewards dimensions by the individual. Respondents will be asked to rate each of the work rewards discussed above in terms of how important it is to them.

For the measurement of the work rewards, items from the following questionnaires were taken

1. Job Characteristics Inventory (JCI) developed by Sims et al (1976)

2. Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) developed by Hackman J R and Olham (1975)

3. The measurement of employee reactions to job characteristics developed by Hackam and Lowler (1971)

4. The measurement of job involvement developed by Lodahl T M S Kejner M (1965)

5. The measurement of personality determinant developed by Vroom (1960).

6. The measurement of Ego Involvement developed by Vroom (1960)

7. The measurement of Ego Involvement developed by Wickert (1951)

8. The measurement of Interpersonal Trust at work developed by Cook and Wall (1980)

9. Career Orientations Inventory developed by Schein (1993)

Sample

The model will be tested on professional employees on short-term contracts. The survey was conducted by the method of structured interview. The questionnaire used is displayed in the Appendix.

The population upon which the survey was focused was professional employees in short-term contracts in Athens-Greece. Flexibility patterns is a quite recent human resource policy in Greece. Especially with regard to its implementation in professional staff the data provided by the National Statistical Agency are blurred. Data about the size of the population are not yet defined or precisely specified.

Thus, we have chosen three large organisations (the Information Technology Department of one of the largest Banks in Greece; one of the biggest Consultancy Agencies of the Greek Public Administration operating under the public law; a large private Consultancy Firm), which were regarded as typical examples of professional organisations and have implemented such flexibility policies.

It can be also argued that these three organisations are in a sense representatives of the service production sectors in Greece. Namely, the Public Sector, the Governmental Sector and the Private Sector respectively.

Therefore, the short-term professionals working in these organisations constituted the target population of the present research survey. Once the population has been defined, the question of taking a sample from it can be addressed.

The subject of sample design is concerned with how to select the part of the population to be included in the survey. A basic distinction to be made is whether the sample is selected by a probability mechanism or not. With probability sample, each element has a known, nonzero chance of being included in the sample. Consequently, selection biases are avoided and statistical theory can be used to derive properties of the survey estimators.

Non probability sampling covers a variety of procedures including the use of volunteers and the purposive choice of elements for the sample on the grounds that they are representative of the population. The weakness of all non probability sampling is its subjectivity which precludes the development of a theoretical framework for it.

Probability sampling was chosen for the present research, based on the survey sampling theory propounded by Moser & Kalton (1971) and further developed by many other authors (Henry, 1990; Babbie, 1990; Fink, 1995).

The sampling frame that was used was a list of the names of professional employees, on short-term contracts, working in all the three chosen organisations. More specifically, the personnel manager of each organisation provided us with the number and names of professionals in short-term contracts. We then constructed a list which included all employees names in alphabetical order. Thus, the target population of our survey constituted of 469 eligible units.

The most important principle in sampling is that each member of the population, from which the sample is drawn, should have an equal and known probability of

being selected. A variety of probability sampling techniques has been developed to provide efficient practical sample designs. Among the most widely used are the: simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling.

The form of probability sampling selected was the simple random sampling. Namely, in order to select 150 interviewees from the target population of the present survey, we have assigned in each name on the list (sampling frame) a number from 001 to 500. Then, using the table of random numbers produced by Kendall & Smith (1939), we start by selecting the number at the top left-hand corner of the table and then proceed down in order to choose the first 150 random numbers, in sets of three.

Employees' names with the corresponding numbers were included in the sample. The sample size (a 32% of the population) chosen was considered sufficient enough to achieve the purpose of the present survey, which was to analyse and interpret specific attitude variables and not just to describe or count a representative sample and then make inferences about the population.

Although the sample constituted 150 potential interviewees we have managed to interview and have valid questionnaire responses by 114 of them (response rate: 76⁰⁰).

Chapter 6. Data Analysis.

The data analysis of the present research is based on the use of the three statistical techniques: factor analysis, correlation analysis and regression analysis. In order to interpret our survey results it is helpful to review, here, the key terms used in these multivariate statistical methods.

Factor Analysis

The multivariate statistical technique of factor analysis has found increased use during the past decade in the various fields of organisation -related research. Factor analysis can be utilised to examine the underlying patterns or relationships for a large number of variables and determine if the information can be condensed or summarised in a smaller set of factors or components. Before proceeding to factor analysis in our survey data it is helpful to review the key terms and the most important factor analysis concepts.

Factor analysis (unlike multiple regression in which one or more variables is explicitly considered as dependent variable and all others the predictor or independent variables) is an interdependence technique in which all variables are simultaneously considered. In a sense, each of the observed (original) variables is considered as a dependent variable that is a function of some underlying, latent and hypothetical set of factors (dimensions). Conversely, we can look at each factor as a dependent variable that is a function of the originally observed variables. Thus, the basic terms that we shall use in interpreting the factor table are the following:

Factor: A linear combination of the original variables. Factors represent the underlying dimensions (constructs) that summarise or account for the original set of observed variables.

Factor loadings: The correlation between the original variables and the factors, and the key to understanding the nature of a particular factor.

Percentage of Variance (pct of var): The percentage of variance in the set of original variables explained by each factor.

Cumulative Percentage (cum pct): The total percentage of variance in the set of original variables explained by the factor solution (all factors together).

Eigenvalue: The sum of squared factor loadings for each factor; also referred to as the latent root. It represents the amount of variance accounted for by a factor. Additionally, it indicates the relative importance of each factor in accounting for the variance associated with the set of variables being analysed.

Factor matrix: A table displaying the factor loadings of all variables on each factor.

Factor rotation: The process of manipulating or adjusting the factor axes to achieve a simpler and pragmatically more meaningful factor solution.

Factor score: Factor analysis reduces the original set of variables to a new smaller set of variables (factors) in used in subsequent analysis , some measure or score must be included to represent the newly derived variables. This measure (score) is a composite of all of the original variables that were important in making the new factor. The composite measure is referred to as a factor score.

Orthogonal factor solutions: A factor solution in which the factors are extracted so that the factor axes are maintained at 90 degrees. Thus, each factor is independent of or orthogonal from all other factors. The correlation between factors is determined to be zero.

Correlation and Regression Analysis

Before beginning to read the results of correlation and regression analysis it is helpful to review the key terms used in these multivariate statistical procedures in

order to interpret our survey findings from both a statistical and a theoretical viewpoint.

Correlation coefficient (r): measures the strength of a linear association between two variables. The values of the coefficient are not expressed in units of the data but from (-1) to (+1).

Partial correlations: When we study the correlation between two variables we need to consider the effects other variables exert on the relationship. Partial correlations can reveal variables that enhance or suppress the relation between two particular variables. Thus, partial correlation coefficients provide a measure of correlation between two variables by removing or adjusting for the linear effects of one or more control variables.

Simple linear regression: In many statistical studies the goal is to establish a relationship expressed via an equation for predicting typical values of one variable given the value of another variable. The simplest equation that summarises the relationship is that of a straight line: Y=a+b1X+e
a: the intercept or constant, is where the line intercepts the vertical axis at X=0
b1: the slope, is the ratio between the vertical change and the horizontal change along the line.
e: errors or residuals are the lengths of the short vertical lines from each point to the line and estimates for the true errors. SPSS uses the method of least squares to estimate the slope and intercept. This method minimises the sum of the squared residuals (that is the sum of the squares of the vertical line segments).

Thus in the regression equation, Y is the dependent variable, the one we are trying to predict; X is the independent or predictors; and the intercept(a) and slope(b1) are the regression coefficients.

R: is the correlation coefficient(also called multiple R) and in the bivariate regression model express the simple correlation between the dependent and independent variable.

R^2(coefficient of determination): is the square of r-value and measures the proportion of the variation of the dependent variable that is explained by the independent. The coefficient ranges from 0 to 1 and the higher the value of R^2 the greater the explanatory power of the regression equation and therefore the better the prediction of the criterion variable.

Adjusted R square (R^2a): the sample estimate of R^2 tends to be an optimistic estimate of the population value. Adjusted R square is designed to more closely reflect how the model fits the population.

Standard error of the estimate (SE): is the square root of the residual mean score and measures the spread of the residuals about the fitted line. Its units are these of the dependent variable, so we compare its size with the SD of the dependent and should be less.

Beta or standardised coefficient: for simple regression beta is equivalent to R coefficient.

T -statistic: tests the significance of the slope, which is equivalent to testing the significance of the correlation between the dependent and independent variable.

Sig T: are p-values or probabilities associated with the T-statistic.

Multiple linear regression: is a statistical technique used to analyse the relationship between a simple dependent variable and several independent variables. The multiple regression equation is: Y=a+b1X1+...+bpXp+e

Comparing this multivariate model to the simple regression model we can observe some slight differences in the interpretation of the various coefficients. In particular,

R: is the correlation between the observed and predicted values of the dependent variable.

Each of the regression coefficients b1...bp takes into account not only the relationship between Y and X1 and Y and X2 etc. but also the relationship between X1 and X2.

Betas: if the independent variables are not measured in the same units, the comparison between regression coefficients can not be revealing. Thus, we transform data(SPSS) to standardised and then we produce the beta coefficients, which denote the regression coefficients. Betas are an attempt to make the regression coefficients more comparable.

However, in order to assess the usefulness of each predictor in the model we can not simply compare the betas, since the independent variables can be correlated to each other. The T-statistics provide some clue regarding the relative importance of each variable in the model. As a guide T-values must be well below (-2) or above (+2).

In summary, multiple regression analysis can serve the followings purposes:
*to predict the changes in the dependent in response to changes in the several independent variables or/and
*to examine the strength of the association between the single dependent variable and the two or more independent variables and to assess how well the dependent can be explained by knowing the values of independents, when collinerity among the independent variables is minimal.

Sample Characteristics

The survey data were collected from 114 professional employees on short-term contracts. In the following table 1 the personal characteristics of the sample are displayed.

Table 1 Sample Characteristics

Personal Data	% (percentage)			
Sex	Male 60	Female 40		
Marital Status	Married 72	Divorced 4	Never Married 24	
Number of children	none 41	one 27	two 27	Three 5
First Degree	Applied 65	Non applied 35		
Level of Education	Degree 63	Diploma 7	Master 16	PhD 14
Age	26-30 10	31-35 21	36-40 38	41-45 31
Years of current contract	One 2	Two 24	Three 74	

Research objectives

Objective 1

The first objective of the research as it has already mentioned in the methodology chapter is "to define the nature and the degree of organisational commitment for professional on short-terms contracts". Organisational commitment was measured by a modified version of Porter's (1974); Cook J and Wall T (1980); Meyer J and Allen N (1991); organisational commitment questionnaires. Using a 12 item scale with a 5-point Likert type format, the response categories for each item ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. (see questionnaire Items: A1-A12). The reliability of the scale was assessed here by Cronbach's Alpha which produced a reliability coefficient of Alpha = 0.80.

Factor analysis was employed in order to search for and define the fundamental constructs or dimensions assumed to underlie the original organisational commitment scale. Four main factors/types of organisational commitment were identified and displayed in the Table 2

Table 2 Factor Analysis of Organizational Commitment Variables

(Orthogonal, Varimax, Rotation)

Organisational Commitment Variables (questionnaire items: A1 – A12)	*Factors*			
	I	II	III	IV
A1. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.	0.68			
A2. I am proud to tell people for which organization I work for.		0.58		
A3. I feel myself to be part of the organization.	0.77			
A4. I feel loyalty to this organization	0.65			
A5. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected not just for myself but for the organisation as well.	0.66			
A6. This organisation really inspires the best in me in my job performance.	0.67			
A7. I am willing to put myself out just to help the organisation.			0.89	
A8. To know that my work had made a contribution to the good of the organisation would please me.				0.79
A9. This organisation has a great deal of meaning for my career.			0.53	
A10. I would be very happy to spent the rest of my career with this organisation.		0.72		
A11. There is much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely.		0.84		
A12. I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.		0.68		
Eigenvalue	4.28	1.56	1.12	1.06
Pct of var	35.7	13.0	9.4	8.9
Cum pct	35.7	48.7	58.1	67.0
Mean score	3.45	3.44	3.54	4.40

As shown in the Table 2 the orthogonal varimax rotated factor analysis extracted four factors as the best linear combination of the initial organisational commitment variables.

Factor I accounts for 35,7% of the total variance in the data. Factor II accounts for 13% of the remaining variance. Factor III accounts for 9,4% of the variance remaining after the I & II factor extracted. Factor IV accounts for 8,9% of the rest of the variance.

The choice of orthogonal rotation was made in order to produce independent factors. Therefore collienearity among the factors is eliminated. The cum pct shown in the factor matrix Table 2 is used as an index to determine how well a particular factor solution represents the initial variables. If the association between the variables is weak the cum pct will be low.

The cum pct for the present factor solution shows that 67% of the total variance is represented by the information contained in the factor matrix. Therefore the value of the cum pct for this solution is high. This means that the variables represented by the factor solution are highly related to each other. Thus the validity of organisational commitment scale constructed for the present research is ensured.

Based on the factor loading patterns (Table 2) we see that Factor I has five significant loadings, Factor II has four significant loadings, Factor III has two significant loadings and Factor IV is loading high in one variable.
Looking at the original variables related to the four Factors extracted, a logical name can be assigned to each factor representing the underlying nature of these Factors.

Thus we name Factor I as " commitment to organisational values" Factor II as " commitment to organisational benefits" Factor III as "commitment to career" and Factor IV as "commitment to self". Consequently the nature of organisational commitment for professional employees on short-term contracts can be characterized by the above four dimensions. The degree of commitment on each of these dimensions is displayed in Table 2 by the mean score of each factor.

"Commitment to organisational values" and " commitment to organisational benefits" were found to be moderate (M:3.45; M:3.44 respectively) while "commitment to career" and " commitment to self" were found to be high (M:3.54; M:4.40 respectively).

The percentage of interviewees responding high (4) agree and (5) "strongly agree" on organisational commitment 12 item initial scale is displayed on the following Table 3. In particular A2, A3, A4, A5, A8, A9, A10, A12 items were highly rated by more than 50% percent of the respondents.

In summary, our findings, with respect to the first objective, indicate that professionals on short term contracts exhibit four types of commitment: I, II, III, IV. However professionals appear to be highly committed only to the fourth type of commitment namely "commitment to self".

Table 3 % of Professional Employees indicating 4 or 5 response in Organizational Commitment.

Organizational Commitment. *(questionnaire items A1-A12)*	*% 4 or 5*
A1. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.	43
A2. I am proud to tell people for which organization I work for.	58
A3. I feel myself to be part of the organization.	56
A4. I feel loyalty to this organization	68
A5. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected not just for myself but for the organisation as well.	88
A6. This organisation really inspires the best in me in my job performance.	35
A7. I am willing to put myself out just to help the organisation.	46
A8. To know that my work had made a contribution to the good of the organisation would please me.	95
A9. This organisation has a great deal of meaning for my career.	71
A10. I would be very happy to spent the rest of my career with this organisation.	56
A11. There is much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely.	45
A12. I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	57

Objective 2

The second objective of the research is "to identify the antecedents of organisational commitment for short-term professionals". This objective is analysed in four hypotheses. Each hypothesis represents one set of antecedents.

In particular:

Hypothesis 1: Organisational Dimentions.

We hypothesized that "specific organisational dimensions: management receptiveness; organisation justice; and personal importance will influence the level of OC".

The organisational dimensions were measured by a nine item questionnaire scale (appendix I Questionnaire Items B1-B9). The response categories for each item ranged from 1-5 using a 5 point Likert type format. The reliability of the scale was assessed here by Cronbach's Alpha which produced a reliability coefficient of Alpha 0.74.

Factor analysis was used in order to identify the latent dimensions of organisational variables scale not easily observed in the original data. Table 4 below presents the results of factor technique. Two factors were extracted. The factor solution shows that 59.1% of the total variance is explained by the two factors extracted. The first factor accounts for 42.5% of the total variance and the second for 16.6% of the remaining variance.

In order to interpret these factors we shall put greater emphasis on those variables that load high on each separate factor. First factor is labeled as "trust to the organisation" and the second as "influence on the organisation".

Table 4 Factor Analysis of Organizational Variables

(Orthogonal, Varimax, Rotation)

Organizational Variables (questionnaire items B1-B9)	*Factor*	
	I	*II*
B1. My immediate superior asks my opinion when a problem comes up which involves my work.	0.55	
B2. If I have a suggestion for improving the job or its design in some way, it is easy for me to get my ideas across to the management of the organisation.	0.57	
B3. I feel I can trust this organisation to do what it says it will do.	0.84	
B4. Management in the organisation is sincere in its attempts to satisfy the employees needs by taking into account their point of view.	0.77	
B5. There are people in the organisation who are getting much more than they deserve and others who are getting much less.	-0.59	
B6. I feel that the organisation will always treat me fairly.	0.74	
B7. In general I have much say and influence over what goes on in my work.		0.71
B8. I am making an important contribution to the success of the organisation.		0.83
B9. I have a chance to make important decisions on my job.		0.74
Eigenvalue	3.82	1.49
Pct of var	42.5	16.6
Cum pct	42.5	59.1

In order to test our hypothesis the two factors above were regressed on each of the four dimensions of OC mentioned earlier (Table 5).

Table 5 Correlation and Regression Analysis of Organizational Variables as Predictors of Organizational Commitment Factors.

Organizational Variables	*M*	*SD*	*r*	*B*	*SE*	*Beta*	*T*	*Sig. T*
Dependent: Commitment to the Values								
- Trust to the Organization	2.87	0.83	0.48***	0.48	0.08	0.47	5.88	0.00***
- Influence in the Organisation	3.26	0.89	0.22**	0.21	0.08	0.21	2.64	0.00***

Intercept: -0.00
$R^2 = 0.27$; $R^2_a = 0.26$

Organizational Variables	*M*	*SD*	*r*	*B*	*SE*	*Beta*	*T*	*Sig. T*
Dependent: Commitment to the Organizational Benefits								
- Trust to the Organization			0.26***	0.25	0.09	0.25	2.77	0.00***
- Influence in the Organization			0.11	0.11	0.09	0.11	1.25	0.21

Intercept: -0.01
$R^2 = 0.07$; $R^2_a = 0.06$

Organizational Variables	*M*	*SD*	*r*	*B*	*SE*	*Beta*	*T*	*Sig. T*
Dependent: Commitment to the Career								
- Trust to the Organization			0.03	0.03	0.09	0.03	0.40	0.68
- Influence in the Organization			-0.04	-0.04	0.09	-0.04	-0.50	0.61

Intercept: -4.51
$R^2 = 0.00$; $R^2_a = 0.01$

Organizational Variables	*M*	*SD*	*r*	*B*	*SE*	*Beta*	*T*	*Sig. T*
Dependent: Commitment to self								
- Trust to the Organization			0.16*	0.16	0.09	0.16	1.79	0.07*
- Influence in the Organization			0.19**	0.19	0.09	0.19	2.08	0.03**

Intercept: 0.00
$R^2 = 0.06$; $R^2_a = 0.04$

* $P < 0.10$; ** $P < 0.05$; *** $P < 0.01$.

In particular Table 5 shows the means (M), standard deviations (SD) intercorrelations (r) for the dependent (commitment to the values) and independent variables (trust to the organisation, influence on the organisation), as well as the regression analysis performed. Table 5 contains the same information for the other

three factors of OC: commitment to organisational benefits, commitment to career and commitment to self.

The mean scores of the two organisational factor variables suggest that professionals on short-term contracts have moderate influence on the organisation (M=3.26) and moderate to low degree of trust (M=2.87) in the organisation.

"Commitment to the values" (Factor I) was found to be strongly and positively correlated with "trust in the organisation" (r = 0.48; p<0.01) and moderately correlated with "influence on the organisation" (r = 0.22 p<0.05).

The results of regression analysis pointed that both organisational factors are statistically significant and interpret 27% of the variance of "commitment to the values". "Commitment to organisational benefit" was found to be influenced positively by "trust to organisation" (Beta=0.25, p<0.01). "Commitment to the career" was found uncorrelated with both organisational factors. "Commitment to self" found positively associated with "influence to organisation" (Beta=0.19, p<0.03).

The following Table 6 displays the percentage of interviewers responded high (4 or 5) on the original scale of organisational variables.

In summary, our findings indicate that both organisational dimensions "trust" and "influence on the organisation" are strongly and positively correlated with commitment and play a crucial role for the development of commitment in our sample.

Table 6 % of Professional Employees indicating 4 or 5 response in Organizational Variables Questionnaire Scale.

Organizational Variables. *(questionnaire items B1-B9)*	*% 4 or 5*
B1. My immediate superior asks my opinion when a problem comes up which involves my work.	58
B2. If I have a suggestion for improving the job or its design in some way, it is easy for me to get my ideas across to the management of the organisation.	39
B3. I feel I can trust this organisation to do what it says it will do.	18
B4. Management in the organisation is sincere in its attempts to satisfy the employees needs by taking into account their point of view.	16
B5. There are people in the organisation who are getting much more than they deserve and others who are getting much less.	70
B6. I feel that the organisation will always treat me fairly.	17
B7. In general I have much say and influence over what goes on in my work.	37
B8. I am making an important contribution to the success of the organisation.	53
B9. I have a chance to make important decisions on my job.	39

Hypothesis 2: Job dimensions.

"The higher the job dimensions (task challenge, task identity, task feedback, task autonomy, task involvement), the higher the professional employees organisational commitment". Job dimensions were measured by 19 item scale (see appendix I questions C1-C19). The response categories for each item ranged from 1-5 using a 5 point Likert type format. The reliability of the scale was assessed here by Cronbach's Alpha which produced a reliability coefficient of Alpha = 0.86.

Factor analysis was performed in order to extract the hidden dimensions, and verify the validity of the scale. Table 7 displays the results of factor analysis. Four factors were extracted. The factor solution revealed that 59.3% of the total variance is explained by the four factors extracted. The first factor named as "job identity", accounts for 32.8% of the total variance, the second factor named as "job autonomy" accounts for 12.6% the third factor named as "job challenge" accounts for 7.5% and the fourth factor named as "job involvement" accounts for 6.5%.

Table 7 Factor Analysis of Job Variables (Orthogonal, Varimax, Rotation)

Organizational Commitment Variables (questionnaire items: A1 – A12)	I	II	III	IV
C1. How much chance do you have to use your skills and abilities in your job?			0.56	
C2. How much chance do you get to try out your own ideas?		0.72		
C3. How much chance do you have to gain experience from your job?			0.73	
C4. To what extent do you think the skills and experience you have obtained at your current organisation would be transferred to another organisation?	0.53			
C5. How much chance do you have to learn new things?			0.74	
C6. To what extent do you see projects or jobs through to completion?	0.73			
C7. To what extent are the results of your work clearly evident?	0.72			
C8. To what extent do you do a whole piece of work? (as opposed to doing part of a job which is finished by some other employee)	0.69			
C9. To what extent do you find out how well you are doing on the job as you are working?	0.71			
C10.To what extent do you receive information from your boss or peers on your job performance?	0.59			
C11. How much opportunity is there for independent thought and action?		0.70		
C12. How much discretion do you have in scheduling your work and deciding on procedures to be followed?		0.83		
C13. How much chance do you get to do things your own way?		0.88		
C14. How free do you feel to set your own work pace?		0.87		
C15. To what extent do you regard your job being of great importance?				0.62
C16. To what extent do you spent a great deal of time on matters related to your job during working hours?				0.69
C17. To what extent do you spent a great deal of time on matters related to your job during after working hours?				0.73
C18. To what extent do you enjoy your job?				0.66
C19. To what extent do you consider yourself well paid?			0.51	
Eigenvalue	6.22	2.39	1.42	1.22
Pct of var	32.8	12.6	7.5	6.5
Cum pct	32.8	45.4	52.9	59.3

In order to test our hypothesis, correlational analysis employed firstly between the job factors (job identity, job autonomy, job challenge, job involvement) and the commitment factors (bivariate, correlation). Secondly multivariate regression analysis was performed in order to identify the simultaneous effect of job factors to each of the commitments factors separately. The results are presented in the following Table 8.

Table 8 Correlation and Regression Analysis of Job Variables as Predictors of Organizational Commitment Factors.

Job Variables	*Dependent: Commitment to the Values*							
	M	*SD*	*r*	*B*	*SE*	*Beta*	*T*	*Sig. T*
- Job identity	3.65	0.69	0.37***	0.37	0.08	0.36	4.37	0.00***
- Job autonomy	3.41	0.77	0.02	0.02	0.08	0.02	0.23	0.82
- Job challenge	3.32	0.77	0.20**	0.21	0.08	0.21	2.49	0.01**
- Job involvement	3.74	0.72	0.26***	0.27	0.08	0.27	3.21	0.00***
Intercept:-0.00 $R^2 = 0.24$; $R^2_a = 0.22$								
	Dependent: Commitment to the Organizational Benefits							
- Job identity			0.02	0.02	0.09	0.02	0.24	0.80
- Job autonomy			0.15	0.15	0.09	0.15	1.70	0.09*
- Job challenge			0.29***	0.29	0.09	0.29	3.19	0.00***
- Job involvement			0.07	0.07	0.09	0.07	0.81	0.39
Intercept: -0.00 $R^2 = 0.11$; $R^2_a = 0.08$								
	Dependent: Commitment to the Career							
- Job identity			0.23**	0.23	0.09	0.22	2.46	0.01**
- Job autonomy			0.05	0.05	0.09	0.05	0.59	0.55
- Job challenge			0.02	0.02	0.09	0.02	0.24	0.80
- Job involvement			0.08	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.92	0.35
Intercept: 0.00 $R^2 = 0.06$; $R^2_a = 0.03$								
	Dependent: Commitment to self							
- Job identity			0.17*	0.17	0.09	0.17	1.88	0.06*
- Job autonomy			0.08	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.88	0.37
- Job challenge			0.10	0.10	0.09	0.10	1.16	0.24
- Job involvement			0.17	0.17	0.09	0.17	1.85	0.06
Intercept: 0.00 $R^2 = 0.08$; $R^2_a = 0.04$								

* $P < 0.10$;   ** $P < 0.05$;   *** $P < 0.01$.

The findings in Table 8 indicate that the job factors, "job identity" (Beta = 0.36; p<0.01), "job challenge" (Beta = 0.21 p<0.05) and "job involvement" (Beta = 0.27 p<0.01) account for 24% of variation in "commitment to the values"($R^2 =$ 0.24). job autonomy was not found statistically significant. Moreover "Job challenge" was the only variable explaining the 11% of the variance in "Commitment to the Organisational Benefits" variable (Beta = 0.29: p<0.01). Additionally the results of the regression analysis of "Commitment to the Career" pointed that "Job Identity" accounts for the 6% in variation of the commitment factor (Beta = 0.22 p<0.05).

Below the percentage of professional employees scoring high in the job variables is displayed on Table 9.

In summary, our findings indicate that job dimensions: job identity; job autonomy; job challenge and job involvement are strongly and positively correlated with commitment and account significantly for each development.

Table 9 % of Professional Employees indicating 4 or 5 response in the Job Variables Questionnaire Scale.

Job Variables. (questionnaire items C1-C19)	*% 4 or 5*
C1. How much chance do you have to use your skills and abilities in your job?	50
C2. How much chance do you get to try out your own ideas?	40
C3. How much chance do you have to gain experience from your job?	68
C4. To what extent do you think the skills and experience you have obtained at your current organisation would be transferred to another organisation?	70
C5. How much chance do you have to learn new things?	60
C6. To what extent do you see projects or jobs through to completion?	69
C7. To what extent are the results of your work clearly evident?	63
C8. To what extent do you do a whole piece of work? (as opposed to doing part of a job which is finished by some other employee)	67
C9. To what extent do you find out how well you are doing on the job as you are working?	75
C10.To what extent do you receive information from your boss or peers on your job performance?	42
C11. How much opportunity is there for independent thought and action?	49
C12. How much discretion do you have in scheduling your work and deciding on procedures to be followed?	55
C13. How much chance do you get to do things your own way?	45
C14. How free do you feel to set your own work pace?	38
C15. To what extent do you regard your job being of great importance?	71
C16. To what extent do you spent a great deal of time on matters related to your job during working hours?	83
C17. To what extent do you spent a great deal of time on matters related to your job during after working hours?	44
C18. To what extent do you enjoy your job?	73
C19. To what extent do you consider yourself well paid?	21

Hypothesis 3: Career Dimensions.

"The higher the employability of professional on short-term contracts the higher the commitment". Employability (career dimension) was measured by a 9 item scale (see appendix question D1-D9). The response categories for each item ranged from 1 — 5 using a 5 point Likert type format. The reliability of the scale was assessed here by Cronbach's Alpha witch produced a reliability coefficient of Alpha = 0.76.

The factor analysis employed revealed three factors, Factor I "Professional Development", Factor II "reputation", Factor III "security". Table 10 indicates the results of factor procedure. The factor solution revealed a high percentage (69%) of explanation of the total variance in the scale. The first factor "professional development" accounts for 35.8% of the total variance, the second factor "reputation" accounts for 14.9% of the remaining variance and the third factor accounts for 13.8% of the rest variance.

Table 10 Factor Analysis of Employability Variables

(Orthogonal, Varimax, Rotation)

Employability Variables *(questionnaire items D1-D9)*	*Factors*		
	I	*II*	*III*
D1. Working in this organisation will be useful for my CV.	0.83		
D2. The organisation I work for gives me the opportunity to acquire new skills and knowledge.	0.88		
D3. The organisation I work for gives me the opportunity to develop my technical and or functional skills to a high level of competence.	0.90		
D4. My expert advice is in great demand (is sought continuously).		0.60	
D5. I influence organisational policies through my own expertise.		0.90	
D6. I influence organisational policies through my position in the organisation.		0.80	
D7. The organisation I work for gives me the opportunity to make useful contacts for my future career.		0.55	
D8. The organisation I work for provides me with the opportunity for career advancement in the organisation.			0.74
D9. The organisation I work for gives me a sense of security and stability.			0.64
Eigenvalue	3.22	1.74	1.24
Pct of var	*35.8*	*14.9*	*13.8*
Cum pct	35.8	55.2	69

The hypothesis 3 was tested by using correlation and regression analysis (Table 11). In particular correlation analysis revealed that "professional development" is significantly correlated with commitment Factors I II III. Namely "commitment to the values": r = 0.28 p<0.01, "commitment to the benefits": r = 0.17 p<0.05, "commitment to the career": r = 0.27 p<0.01.

"Reputation" found significantly correlated with "commitment to the values": r=0.16 p<0.10 and "commitment to self": r=0.22 p<0.05. "Security" found associated with "commitment to the values": r=0.16 p<0.10 and strongly associated with "commitment to organisational benefits" r=0.43 p<0.01.

The regression model employed revealed that employability factors account for 22% ($R^2 = 0.22$) of the variance of commitment to "organisational benefits", and 16% (R^2 0.16) of the variance of commitment to organisation values (Table 11).

Table 11 Correlation and Regression Analysis of Employability Variables as Predictors of Organizational Commitment Factors.

Employability Variables	*Dependent: Commitment to the Values*							
	M	*SD*	*R*	*B*	*SE*	*Beta*	*T*	*Sig. T*
- Professional Development	3.56	0.98	0.28***	0.28	0.08	0.28	3.14	0.00***
- Reputation	2.71	0.80	0.24**	0.24	0.08	0.24	2.71	0.00***
- Security	3.27	0.79	0.16*	0.16	0.08	0.16	1.83	0.06*

Intercept:-0.00

$R^2 = 0.16$; $R^2_a = 0.14$

	Dependent: Commitment to the Organizational Benefits							
- Professional Development			0.17*	0.17	0.08	0.17	1.97	0.05*
- Reputation			0.05	0.05	0.08	0.05	0.64	0.51
- Security			0.43***	0.43	0.08	0.43	5.08	0.00***

Intercept: -0.00

$R^2 = 0.22$; $R^2_a = 0.20$

	Dependent: Commitment to the Career							
- Professional Development			0.27***	0.27	0.09	0.27	2.90	0.00***
- Reputation			-0.06	-0.06	0.09	-0.06	-0.69	0.49
- Security			-0.11	-0.11	0.09	-0.11	-1.27	0.20

Intercept: 0.01

$R^2 = 0.09$; $R^2_a = 0.06$

	Dependent: Commitment to self							
- Professional Development			0.08	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.94	0.34
- Reputation			0.22**	0.22	0.09	0.22	2.36	0.01**
- Security			-0.08	-0.08	0.09	-0.08	-0.94	0.34

Intercept: 0.00

$R^2 = 0.06$; $R^2_a = 0.04$

* $P < 0.10$;   ** $P < 0.05$;   *** $P < 0.01$.

Table 12 indicates the percentage of interviewees responded high (4 or 5 Likert scale) on the original employability scale (career dimensions). The percentages show that professionals enjoy professional development as a reward and a sense of security is developed. However the feeling of reputation provided by the organisation is low.

Table 12 % of Professional Employees indicating 4 or 5 response in the Employability Variables Questionnaire Scale.

Employability Variables. (questionnaire items C1-C19)	% 4 or 5
D1. Working in this organisation will be useful for my CV.	64
D2. The organisation I work for gives me the opportunity to acquire new skills and knowledge.	59
D3. The organisation I work for gives me the opportunity to develop my technical and or functional skills to a high level of competence.	51
D4. My expert advice is in great demand (is sought continuously).	38
D5. I influence organisational policies through my own expertise.	15
D6. I influence organisational policies through my position in the organisation.	8
D7. The organisation I work for gives me the opportunity to make useful contacts for my future career.	41
D8. The organisation I work for provides me with the opportunity for career advancement in the organisation.	60
D9. The organisation I work for gives me a sense of security and stability.	63

In summary, our findings indicate that career dimensions (employability) was found positively and strongly associated with commitment. It appears that employability composed by the factors of professional development and reputation is a very important antecedent of commitment.

Hypothesis 4: Social Dimensions

"The higher the friendship opportunity and peer cohesion the higher the commitment". Social dimensions were measured by a 5 item scale (see appendix I questions E1-E5) using a 5 points Likert format. The reliability of the scale was

assessed here by Cronbach's Alpha witch produced a reliability coefficient of Alpha = 0.56.

Factor analysis was employed to identify the latent dimensions. Two factors extracted and verified absolutely the dimensions which existed in the initial scale. Table 13 displays the result of factor analysis. The factor solution as shown in the Table 13 explains the 60.7% of the total variance of the responses. Factor I "friendship" accounts for 39% of the total variance while the second Factor II "peer solidarity" accounts for 21.7% of the remaining variance after the first factor has been extracted.

Table 13 Factor Analysis of Social Variables

(Orthogonal, Varimax, Rotation)

Social Variables *(questionnaire items E1-E5)*	*Factor*	
	I	*II*
E1. To what extent is there the opportunity to meet people ?	0.76	
E2. To what extent is there the opportunity to develop friendship	0.85	
E3. To what extent do you have the opportunity to talk informally with other employees while at work?	0.55	
E4. I can trust the people I work with to lend me a hand if I needed it.		0.56
E5. Among the people in this organisation there are few close relationships.		0.88
Eigenvalue	1.94	1.08
Pct of var	39	21.7
Cum pct	39	60.7

The hypothesis 4 has been tested by using correlation and regression analysis (Table 14). "Friendship" found positively associated to: Factor I "commitment to the values" (r=0.23 p<0.01 and Factor II "commitments to the benefits" (r=0.30 p<0.01).

"Peer solidarity" indicates low association with commitment factors (Table 14). Regression analysis indicates that both social factors exhibit low predictive power.

Table 14 Correlation and Regression Analysis of Social Variables as Predictors of Organizational Commitment Factors.

Social Variables	Dependent: Commitment to the Values							
	M	*SD*	*r*	*B*	*SE*	*Beta*	*T*	*Sig. T*
- Friendship	3.62	0.72	0.23**	0.23	0.09	0.23	2.43	0.01**
- Peer Solidarity	3.30	0.76	-0.01	-0.01	0.09	-0.01	-0.14	0.88
Intercept:-0.00 $R^2 = 0.05$; $R^2_a = 0.03$								
	Dependent: Commitment to the Organizational Benefits							
- Friendship			0.30**	0.30	0.09	0.30	3.39	0.00***
- Peer Solidarity			* 0.03	0.03	0.09	0.03	0.39	0.69
Intercept: 0.00 $R^2 = 0.10$; $R^2_a = 0.08$								
	Dependent: Commitment to the Career							
- Friendship			0.13	0.13	0.09	0.13	1.39	0.16
- Peer Solidarity			0.10	0.10	0.09	0.10	1.13	0.26
Intercept: -0.01 $R^2 = 0.03$; $R^2_a = 0.01$								
	Dependent: Commitment to self							
- Friendship			0.03	0.03	0.09	0.03	0.32	0.74
- Peer Solidarity			-0.01	-0.01	0.09	-0.01	-0.16	0.87
Intercept: -6.06 $R^2 = 0.00$; $R^2_a = -0.01$								

* $P < 0.10$; ** $P < 0.05$; *** $P < 0.01$.

The percentage of interviewees reporting high levels (4 or 5) of "friendship" and "peer solidarity" is shown on Table 15.

Table 15 % of Professional Employees indicating 4 or 5 response in the Social Variables Questionnaire Scale.

Social Variables. (questionnaire items E1-E5)	% 4 or 5
E1. To what extent is there the opportunity to meet people?	62
E2. To what extent is there the opportunity to develop friendship	41
E3. To what extent do you have the opportunity to talk informally with other employees while at work?	65
E4. I can trust the people I work with to lend me a hand if I needed it.	56
E5. Among the people in this organisation there are close relationships.	39

In summary, our findings indicate that social dimensions: friendship opportunities and peer solidarity were found to have low association with commitment and do not play important role for its development.

Objective 3

"To assess the relative importance of various influences on OC for short-term professional employees". To pursue the third objective of this study multiple regression analysis was used. Integrative models, were employed in order to assess the effects of both work rewards (commitment antecedents) and work values on organisational commitment.

The five integrative multiple regression models employed are shown on Tables 16, 17, 18, 19, 20. Regression coefficients (B) and standardized (Beta) standard error (SE) (T) and (SigT) are reported in order to reveal the relative contribution and predictive power of each factor on commitment.

Table 16 Integrative Model. Dependent : Commitment

Independent: Work Rewards and Values

Independent Variables	B	SE	Beta	T	Sig. T
Autonomy	-0.02	0.02	-0.09	-0.88	0.37
Participation in decisions	-0.03	0.02	-0.11	-1.22	0.22
Professional development	-0.05	0.02	-0.18	-1.89	0.06*
Money	-0.00	0.02	-0.03	-0.31	0.75
Trust	-0.09	0.03	-0.32	-2.83	0.00***
Promotions	-0.04	0.02	-0.12	-1.38	0.17
Friendship opportunities at work	-0.02	0.02	-0.08	-0.96	0.33
Professional Development	0.02	0.05	0.05	0.51	0.61
Reputation	0.04	0.04	0.07	0.87	0.38
Security	0.16	0.04	0.27	3.53	0.00***
Job Identity	0.11	0.05	0.19	2.09	0.03**
Job Autonomy	-0.08	0.05	-0.15	-1.58	0.11
Job Challenge	0.05	0.05	0.08	0.97	0.33
Job Involvement	0.13	0.04	0.22	3.13	0.00***
Trust	0.17	0.04	0.29	3.75	0.00***
Influence	0.08	0.05	0.15	1.69	0.09*
Friendship Opportunities	0.08	0.04	0.15	1.90	0.06*
Peer Solidarity	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.52	0.60
Intercept: 4.78 $R^2 = 0.61$; $R^2_a = 0.54$					

* P < 0.10 ; ** P < 0.05 ; *** P < 0.01

In particular Table 16 indicates the simultaneous effect and relative contribution of each of the commitment antecedents and values on OC. The findings in Table 16 indicate that the predictive power of the model is quite strong. The variables in the regression equation account for a fairly large proportion of the variance in OC (initial scale) for professionals on short-term contracts. This is indicated by the fact that the R^2 value, for the sample, is $R^2 = 0.61$. A further inspection of Table 16 indicates that the relative contribution of the various factors differ considerably.

In particular only "professional Development" (as a value) (Beta = -0.18 p<0.10), "trust" perceived as a value (Beta -0.32 p<0.01) "security" (Beta=0.27 p<0.01) "job identity" (Beta=0.19 p<0.05) "job involvement" (Beta=0.22 p<0.01) "trust" as reward (Beta=0.29 p<0.01) "friendship" (Beta=0.15 p<0.10) were found significantly correlated and accounting for the variance in organisation commitment scale.

Moreover multiple regression analysis was performed with rewards and values as independent variables and each of the commitment factors separately as dependent variables. Consequently four regression models used:

Table 17 rewards & values Factor I commitment to the values

Table 18 rewards & values Factor II commitment to the benefits

Table 19 rewards & values Factor II commitment to the career

Table 20 rewards & values Factor IV commitment to the self

Table 17 Integrative Model. Dependent : Commitment (I)

Independent Variables	B	SE	Beta	T	Sig. T
Autonomy	0.01	0.05	0.04	-0.37	0.71
Participation in decisions	-0.02	0.05	-0.04	-0.45	0.64
Professional development	-0.00	0.05	-0.01	-0.10	0.91
Money	-0.06	0.04	-0.15	-1.44	0.15
Trust	-0.09	0.06	-0.18	-1.46	0.14
Promotions	-0.07	0.05	-0.13	-1.34	0.18
Friendship opportunities at work	0.03	0.05	0.06	0.61	0.53
Professional Development	-0.05	0.11	-0.05	-0.52	0.60
Reputation	0.07	0.09	0.07	0.79	0.43
Security	0.15	0.08	0.16	1.80	0.07*
Job Identity	0.30	0.10	0.30	2.92	0.00***
Job Autonomy	-0.13	0.10	-0.14	-1.30	0.19
Job Challenge	0.06	0.10	0.06	0.64	0.52
Job Involvement	0.23	0.08	0.23	2.90	0.00***
Trust	0.40	0.08	0.40	4.52	0.00***
Influence	0.17	0.10	0.17	1.72	0.08*
Friendship Opportunities	-0.00	0.08	-0.00	-0.09	0.92
Peer Solidarity	0.05	0.08	0.05	0.69	0.48
Intercept: 0.95 $R^2 = 0.52$; $R^2_a = 0.42$					

* $P < 0.10$;   ** $P < 0.05$;   *** $P < 0.01$

The results appearing in Table 17 suggest that only:

"trust" perceived as reward (Beta=0.40; p<0.01),

"job involvement" perceived as reward (Beta=0.23; p<0.01),

"job identity" perceived as reward (Beta=0.30; p<0.01),

"influence" perceived as reward (Beta=0.17; p<0.10) and

"security" perceived as reward (Beta=0.16; p<0.10),

were found to be the explanatory variables of "commitment to the values" dimension. (R^2=0.52)

Table 18 Integrative Model. Dependent : Commitment (II)

Independent Variables	B	SE	Beta	T	Sig. T
Autonomy	-0.05	0.06	-0.11	-0.87	0.38
Participation in decisions	-0.03	0.05	-0.06	-0.57	0.56
Professional development	-0.06	0.06	-0.13	-1.05	0.29
Money	0.05	0.05	0.11	0.94	0.34
Trust	-0.12	0.07	-0.23	-1.61	0.11
Promotions	-0.01	0.06	-0.02	-0.18	0.85
Friendship opportunities at work	-0.06	0.05	-0.13	-1.16	0.24
Professional Development	-5.83	0.12	-5.84	-0.00	0.99
Reputation	-0.06	0.10	-0.07	-0.64	0.51
Security	0.31	0.10	0.32	3.17	0.00***
Job Identity	0.00	0.11	0.00	0.05	0.95
Job Autonomy	0.04	0.11	0.04	0.37	0.70
Job Challenge	0.20	0.11	0.20	1.75	0.08*
Job Involvement	0.07	0.09	0.06	0.76	0.44
Trust	0.10	0.09	0.10	1.08	0.28
Influence	-0.01	0.11	-0.01	-0.10	0.91
Friendship Opportunities	0.17	0.10	0.17	1.68	0.09*
Peer Solidarity	-0.01	0.09	-0.01	-0.15	0.87
Intercept: 1.37 $R^2 = 0.37$; $R_a^2 = 0.24$					

* $P < 0.10$; ** $P < 0.05$; *** $P < 0.01$

The findings in Table 18 indicate that only the:

"reputation" perceived as reward (Beta=0.32; p<0.01),

"job challenge" perceived as reward (Beta=0.20; p<0.10) and

"friendship opportunities" perceived as reward (Beta=0.17; p<0.10),

account for the 37% of the variance in "commitment to the benefits" dimension ($R^2 = 0.37$).

Table 19 Integrative Model. Dependent : Commitment (III)

Independent Variables	B	SE	Beta	T	Sig. T
Autonomy	-0.00	0.06	-0.02	-0.14	0.88
Participation in decisions	0.07	0.06	-0.15	1.21	0.22
Professional development	0.09	0.06	0.19	1.46	0.14
Money	0.02	0.06	0.06	0.49	0.62
Trust	-0.02	0.08	-0.05	-0.36	0.71
Promotions	-0.04	0.07	-0.08	-0.68	0.49
Friendship opportunities at work	0.09	0.06	0.19	1.45	0.15
Professional Development	0.32	0.14	0.32	2.30	0.02**
Reputation	-0.02	0.11	-0.02	-0.21	0.83
Security	-0.04	0.11	0.04	-0.45	0.65
Job Identity	0.08	0.12	0.07	0.62	0.53
Job Autonomy	-0.02	0.13	-0.02	-0.20	0.84
Job Challenge	-0.09	0.12	-0.09	-0.72	0.47
Job Involvement	-0.07	0.10	-0.07	-0.72	0.47
Trust	-0.09	0.10	-0.09	-0.85	0.39
Influence	-0.16	0.12	-0.16	-1.33	0.18
Friendship Opportunities	0.15	0.11	0.15	1.37	0.17
Peer Solidarity	0.12	0.10	0.12	1.15	0.25
Intercept: -0.89 $R^2 = 0.25$; $R_a^2 = 0.10$					

* $P < 0.10$; ** $P < 0.05$; *** $P < 0.01$

Table 19 displays that the 25% of the variance in "commitment career" variable is explained by the "professional development" factors (Beta 0.32; p<0.05) $R^2 = 0.25$

Table 20 Integrative Model. Dependent : Commitment (IV)

Independent Variables	B	SE	Beta	T	Sig. T
Autonomy	-0.05	0.06	-0.11	-0.80	0.42
Participation in decisions	-0.06	0.06	-0.12	-1.02	0.30
Professional development	-0.12	0.06	-0.25	-1.90	0.05*
Money	0.03	0.05	0.06	0.51	0.60
Trust	-0.05	0.08	-0.09	-0.63	0.52
Promotions	-0.00	0.07	-0.00	-0.05	0.95
Friendship opportunities at work	-0.08	0.06	-0.17	-1.36	0.17
Professional Development	0.30	0.13	0.30	2.16	0.03**
Reputation	0.23	0.11	0.23	1.99	0.04**
Security	-0.08	0.10	-0.07	0.74	0.45
Job Identity	-0.08	0.12	-0.08	-0.68	0.49
Job Autonomy	-0.29	0.12	-0.29	-2.28	0.02**
Job Challenge	-0.30	0.12	-0.30	-2.45	0.01**
Job Involvement	0.04	0.10	0.04	0.48	0.62
Trust	-0.17	0.10	-0.17	-1.55	0.12
Influence	0.17	0.12	0.17	1.42	0.15
Friendship Opportunities	0.12	0.11	0.12	1.15	0.24
Peer Solidarity	-0.01	0.10	-0.01	-0.18	0.85
Intercept: 1.57 $R^2 = 0.28$; $R^2_a = 0.15$					

* P < 0.10 ; ** P < 0.05 ; *** P < 0.01

Finally regression analysis Table 20 shows that "professional development" (Beta=0.30; p<0.05), "reputation" (Beta=0.23; p<0.05), "autonomy" (Beta=0.29; p<0.05) and "challenge" (Beta=-0.30; p<0.05), are highly correlated with "commitment to self" and account for the 28% variance in the data.

In summary our findings, with respect to the third research objective "to identify the relative importance of commitment antecedents", suggest that "professional development", "reputation", "trust", "job autonomy", "job identity", "job challenge"

and "influence on the organisation" are the most important antecedents of commitment for short term professionals.

Summary of results

In evaluating the results, presented above in the data analysis, three major points should be presented.

First, the nature of commitment is changing. The four factors extracted reveal an individualistic approach of commitment, and we call this type of commitment as reflective commitment.

Second, the hypotheses of the research were largely verified and supported by the commitment model constructed for this research.

Third, the findings also suggest that the content of the exchange function relies mainly on professional development, reputation, trust, job autonomy, job challenge, that ensure employability security through the acquisition of marketable skills.

Consequently the "cornerstone" hypothesis (the higher the employability security the higher the commitment) of this study is completely supported along with the other hypotheses included in the commitment model.

Chapter 7. Discussion – Conclusions.

Discussion

In connection with the research objectives several important findings tend to emerge from the foregoing analysis.

First the evidence presented here reveals that the nature of organisational commitment is changing, adjusting to the current employment requirements.

Second the data provides support for the exchange perspective of organisational commitment based on work rewards and work values. The multiple regression results clearly indicate that various rewards and values included in the present model account for a large variance (61%) in this construct.

Third another important finding of the present study is that while work rewards collectively are the key determinants of organisational commitment, the individual rewards vary significantly in terms of their impact. The results further indicate that the order of effects of work rewards corresponds to the hierarchy of work values reported by the professionals in the present study.

Organisational Commitment

The conventional view of organisational commitment as defined by Porter et al (1974) is concerned exclusively with the organisation. It represents a unidimensional construct although it is characterised by three factors mentioned in the Methodology chapter. Further it can be argued that Porter's construct defines a peculiar parental relationship between employee and employer that may correspond perfectly to past times or obsolete employment relationships.

In the present research the factors that emerged from factor analysis demonstrate the multidimensionality of professionals' commitment. In fact "commitment to the

organisational values" (Factor I) and " commitment to the organisational benefits" (Factor II) represent a direct relationship between professionals and organisation while "commitment to career development" (Factor III) and "commitment to self" (Factor IV) represent a long term relationship addressed directly to self and indirectly to the organisation. Consequently the results of the research support the view that the nature of organisational commitment is changing. Reviewing the results it becomes apparent that organisational commitment for employees on short term contracts is a multidimensional unified construct not only in terms of the attitudes displayed but also in terms of the foci where commitment is addressed.

The commitment construct comprising the direct and indirect relationships mentioned above struggles to maintain its relevance to the current employment policies and practices. Therefore a competing process is under way for both employees and organisations to reconceptualise the aims and content of exchange commitment and redefine what is provided and what is valued by both parties.

Our sample exhibits low commitment to the "values" and "benefits" and high commitment to "career development" and to the "self" (M 3.45, M 3.44, M 3.54, M 4.40 respectively). These results are justified by the new career logic and supports the model of the present research. Indeed the changes in the nature of career affect the meaning and focus of commitment in the work place. Professionals who once made up the commitment core of the traditional corporation's ranks have had their faith and trust betrayed to the breaking point. Belief in the large corporation and safety of a corporate career are rapidly disappearing.

Consequently employees' privileges are eroding rapidly. The resulting resentment towards employers influences the attitudes of those occupying short term contract positions and experiencing uncertainty for their future career. Adjustments to the new career logic involve commitment (as evidenced in our research) to self and to individual career rather than to organisational values or benefits. While it was believed that loyalty meant support and commitment to organisational goals and strategies or values, now employees are becoming conscious that they must cope with their career boosting their skills and proving their knowledge and reputation. Career expectations are changing in response to organisational restructuring. The

changes in the nature of careers are most dramatic due to the declining ability of organisations to provide long term security of traditional careers. Employees' commitment appears to focus on the excellence of individuals at searching for and responding to new jobs. Hence commitment to self through a developmental career process becomes the first priority on short-term contracts, as our data indicate.

Rewards

Several important conclusions emerge from the research findings.

First it can be concluded that the antecedents of organisational commitment are quite diverse in their nature and origins. In the present study commitment factors (I, II, III, VI) were influenced by all four sets of antecedents included in the research. However personal factors appear to have little or no effect on organisational commitment apart from education. Education was found inversely correlated with commitment. The data further indicates that work rewards have a strong positive effect on commitment while work values corroborate our findings, support the model and provide sufficient explanation in terms of their impact.

Second a common theme that runs through many of these variables is the notion of exchange (March and Simon 1958; Hrebiniak and Alutto 1972). Individuals come to organisations with certain needs, desires, skills and expect to find a work environment where they can utilise their abilities and satisfy many of their basic needs. When the organisation provides such a vehicle the likelihood of increasing commitment is apparently enhanced. When the organisation is not dependable, however, or where it fails to provide professionals with challenging and meaningful tasks contributing to professional development, commitment levels tend to diminish.

Third when employees have higher levels of education, like professionals, it may be more difficult for an organisation to provide sufficient rewards, as perceived by the individual, to equalise the exchange. Hence more highly educated people who tend to be more cosmopolitan would be less committed to the organisation and more committed to career and self development, as our data indicate.

Fourth while all four sets of antecedents appear to be important, organisational dimensions and career dimensions were found to be more closely related to commitment than personal and job characteristics. Such findings reinforce and enlarge upon earlier efforts of Buchanan (1974) Hall and Schneider (1972) and Hrebiniak and Alluto (1972) by identifying the more salient features of the current commitment process.

Additionally the present findings suggest that professionals are presently demanding something more from their work than the traditional rewards of pay comfortable working conditions and opportunities for advancement. In addition to these traditional rewards they appear to be looking for trust, professional development, reputation influence in organisation, meaningful and challenging work leading to marketable skills and employability security.

Drawing on Herzberg's (1966) theory of motivation it could be argued that traditional rewards constitute the "hygiene" factors (the absence of "hygiene" factors creates dissatisfaction while their existence does not create motivation) while professional development, reputation, marketable skills and employability security constitute the "motivators" (the existence of motivators creates motivating effects hence generates commitment).

Trust

According to our findings trust appears to be an important antecedent of organisational commitment; if employers are deemed to be trustworthy, professionals will be committed and support them and the organisations that they represent; if they perceive that the employers are not to be trusted they reduce their commitment. An important implication of this reasoning is that when organisations' decisions are perceived to be relatively favourable employees should be less concerned with the trustworthiness of the organisation. The receipt of the past-times relatively favourable conditions such as stable employment, predictable career etc provides some evidence that the organisations can perform behaviours desired by the trustor; thus trust is neither threatened nor critical in determing commitment to organisation.

Commitment to organisations may be attributable to the favourable outcomes they provide rather than to trust. In contrast, when favourable outcomes are not forthcoming, trust becomes critical; without it, organisations are unlikely to generate commitment and receive much support. Our findings indicate that when trust exists professionals may exhibit commitment and support to the organisation even when long term employment cannot be promised. In fact when organisations are trusted professionals tend to attribute to external factors the changes in employment policies such as globalisation, economic austerity etc that are beyond the organisation's control or influence.

Many studies have shown that employees' perceptions of trust has more impact on their commitment to organisation when the outcomes associated with organisations decisions were relatively unfavourable (Wicker 1969, Fazio and Zanna 1978, Brockner & Wiesenfeld 1996, Mayer Davis & Schoorman 1995). One interpretation of such findings is that the perception of unfavourable decisions elicited a sense making process in which people tended to evaluate the trustworthiness of the organisation and make inferences about it.

Education

The foregoing analysis indicates that the level of education is negatively correlated with commitment. This result appears consistent with other research findings regarding the relationship between education and commitment. In fact using the OCQ, Steers (1977), Morris and Steers (1980), Angle and Perry (1981), Morris and Sherman (1981), Mathieu and Hamel (1989), and Dornstein and Matalon (1989) found education to be negatively correlated with commitment. Moreover March and Simon's commitment framework which is based in the notion of exchange, like the present research, suggests that education should be negatively related to commitment.

The findings of the present study corroborate March and Simon's argument and suggest two significant things:

First the perceived ease of movement appears to affect commitment. To the extent a member perceives that fewer or poorer alternative positions are available, that member should have a grater amount of commitment (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, 1979; Rusbult and Farrell, 1983; Mottaz, 1984) to the organisation worked for. Models in human capital theory suggest that employers use education as a screening device to select employees who are likely to be more productive (Mottaz, 1984), so more educated employees would more easily find alternative employment. Education should enhance the perceived ease of movement, thus reducing commitment.

Second the findings further support that the nature of the relationship between education and organisational commitment is largely a function of exchange between professional development, reputation and commitment.

These results suggest that this relationship is not simply a function of the individual's opportunities for alternative employment or the degree to which individuals are committed to a profession or trade, but also a function of satisfied expectations or not satisfied expectations. In other words the high level of education presumably creates high levels of individual expectations. On the other hand it is self

evident that the higher the level of expectations the more difficult for organisations to satisfy these perspectives. Consequently the organisation more or less is perceived as failing to provide appropriate levels of transferable and presumably marketable skills due to the high education level of individuals.

Influence – job involvement – personal importance

The findings of our research further suggest that professionals perceive influence in the organisation and job involvement as increasing commitment. In fact the influence over what goes on in the organisation by making important decisions give the sense of making an important contribution to the success of the organisation and increases self esteem. The factor of influence stems from felt participation and combined with perceived self esteem and prestige of the organisation, is clearly evident in this research as increasing commitment. It appears that an individual will identify more with an organisation which the individual believes is held in high regard by others inside and outside the organisation.

Our results find support in previous research. Mottaz (1984) found participation to be positive with commitment, and Rhodes and Steers (1981) found perceived participation significantly correlated with commitment. Fields Thacker (1992) and Leana, Ahlbrandt and Murrell (1992) found that involvement in company problem-solving teams was associated with higher commitment. Dornstein and Matalon (1989) and Mathieu and Hamel (1989) found decentralisation of decision making correlated positively with commitment process. There is a clear tie between job involvement and commitment, Stevens at al (1978), Jamal and Baba (1991), Mathieu and Farr (1991), and Igbaria and Siegel (1992), all found job involvement positively correlated with organisational commitment.

Reputation

The professional career structure is defined by possession of valued knowledge considered as the key determinant of occupational status and reputation considered

as the key resource for the individual. Career "growth" for professionals does not necessarily consist of climbing the hierarchy. Instead, those on professional careers keep the same title and the same nominal job over a long period. Opportunity in the professional form, then, involves the chance to take on ever-more-demanding or challenging or important or rewarding assignments that require greater exercise of the skills that are the professional's stock in trade. In the professional career "upward mobility" rests on the reputation for greater skill.

Consequently professional careers do not necessarily unfold within a single organisation. In such cases, careers are produced by *projects* rather than by the hierarchy of jobs in a single organisation. And the key variable in success is *reputation*. Reputation counts for both those people pulling projects together, so they can attract the best talent, and those professionals who want to find the best projects. Each project, in turn, adds to the value of a reputation as it is successfully completed. So people make their commitments to projects rather than to employers. There is no single or permanent right place. It varies depending on the current desires and skills of the individual, and how these match up with the currently available array of work options.

As occupations "professionalise", then, their members not only command greater remuneration for services because of their enhanced collective reputation and the skills monopoly they can enforce through associations that provide "credentials", but they also exhibit a weaker attachment to employers. Indeed, firms of professionals, such as law firms, management consulting firms, or firms of architects and designers, can flourish precisely because of portable skills that can be exercised on behalf of many different organisations rather than dedicated to one.

The only way to get commitment seems to be by buying it – by deferring compensation or offers that tie professionals to the organisation's career prospects. Professionalism and the growth of specialised skills in such areas as financial analysis, strategic planning, compensation, and marketing – means that even a manager's fate is no longer tied to a single organisation. These results provide strong support to our model regarding the employability career prospects.

Conclusions

Career in the era of employability

The career of the 21st century will be protean, a career that is driven by the person, not the organisation, and that will be reinvented by the person from time to time, as the person and the environment change, (this term is derived from the Greek god Proteus, who could change shape at will). In the 21st century, demand in the labour market will shift from those with know-how to those with learn-how. Job security will continue to fade in importance and will be replaced by the goal of employability. In the model career, growth will be a process of continuous learning fuelled by a combination of the person, work challenges, and relationships.

The trend toward continuous learning work challenges and the ultimate goal of employability is, of course, a healthy development, given the way the world is going. As noted above, the occupational structure is moving increasingly toward a different concept of the employment contract in which organisations owe their career occupants less and less. Organisational position and advancement are increasingly defined in terms of what one knows and what skills one possesses, and based less and less on seniority. To retain their best employees, organisations must therefore be able to meet their needs.

To realise the potential of the new career, the individual must develop new competencies related to the management of self and career. Since the new career will be increasingly a continuous learning process, the person must learn how to develop self-knowledge and adaptability. These have been called metaskills, since they are skills required for learning how to learn. The ability to analyse oneself, as well as the ability to figure out what kind of job is available and how that job will evolve, becomes a crucial skill.

The emergence of "reflective" commitment

In reviewing the trends in careers cited above, it should become clear that job/career planning will become an ever more critical task for everyone. As technologies change, as organisations attempt to become more competitive- due to globalisation, as information technology makes new organisational forms possible, flexible working patterns, organisational, social, and employees' values shift priorities. It is becoming more and more difficult to discern what a given job should consist of and how organisations should motivate people and gain their commitment for the ambiguous and changing roles that will emerge.

The new career contract is not an agreement with the organisation; it is an agreement with one's self and one's work. The employee does not blindly trust the organisation with his/her career. The organisation does not provide job or career security. The tremendous energy once required to maintain relationships can be turned to doing good work. The common ground, the meeting point, is not the relationship, but the explicit task. This task-focused relationship is not only healthier for the individual and the organisation, it also facilitates the diversity necessary for future survival, since the emphasis is on the task, not on the person performing the task.

Hence, the traditional psychological contract in which an employee entered a firm worked hard, performed well, was loyal and committed and thus received ever greater rewards and job security, has been replaced by a new contract based on continuous learning and identity change.

The implications for the content of the new psychological contract from the individual point of view are complex. One major implication will be that employees will need more than technical skills to do a job. They will also need managerial, coordination, and leadership skills. They will need emotional make-up to function in a more fluid, turbulent social structure in which boundaries will shift and become more permeable, and most important, they will need the capacity to learn from their own experience and the experience of others. Organisational growth will not occur without individual learning skills and capacities at all levels.

Organisations need stability and commitment and so do individuals. Organisations need growth and, consequently, they need people who desire to drive and build the organisation. Organisations need individuals who are highly versatile and adaptive, people who thrive on variety and change.

Such career solutions encourage the development of a new commitment concept- the reflective commitment. According to this notion individuals are committed primarily to themselves. This commitment in turn is projected to the organisation.

Employees prepare for themselves, relying on nobody and nothing but their own capabilities. The more diverse those capabilities, the better prepared they will be to move quickly and surely as old opportunities fade and new ones arise. Individuals must become "free agents" on their own.

An individualistic commitment process is taking place in two stages (self and organisation) which in turn is addressed towards the organisation, in order to realise an exchange function dedicated to the idea of continuous learning professional development and self-reinvention.

However, although flexibility is an important part of the rhetoric of managers today, a certain amount of scepticism must be raised about both the flexible firm models and their consequences for professional employees' commitment. The language of flexibility is a heavily value – laden notion. Flexibility is invariably a good thing and rigidity a bad one. To define certain social realities (permanent employment) as rigidities rather than points of stability and others as flexibilities (short – term employment) rather than areas of uncertainty is to impose a particular evaluation of consequences and implications and hence to propose a particular and perhaps unrealistic image of social power.

Indeed the concept of flexibility has had a decidedly mixed reception. It can be argued that some of the worst examples of exploitation could be done in the name of flexibility. Employers have found it an irresistible way to cut costs at employees' expense. Thus the issue is not flexibility versus rigidity, but what kind of rigidity?

And in terms of policy what institutional rules and arrangements should be sustained and which new rigidities established.

Here the ideological dimension is who gains or loses from a particular set of employment arrangements and whose interest would benefit or suffer from their alteration. It should be noted that reflective commitment emerges as a necessity dictated more by the feeling of self protection and survival and less by the instinct of professional's independence.

Suggestions

Various suggestions are being offered to deal with the resulting transformation in careers. Typically, the recommendations call for a shift to a new, more change-oriented definition of careers and philosophy of career management. Responsibility for career development must now lie with the individual, not the organisation; individuals should prepare themselves for a career involving frequent changes in employers and in the very nature of the work that they perform. People need to be more flexible and versatile in their skills and knowledge, and must be willing to go anywhere, at any time, and at a moment's notice, to do anything.

One must not cling to a job, organisation, or type of work. Those who still think of getting ahead in terms of moving up, who feel commitment to a particular function or type of work, must get in tune with the times and learn to adapt. The more the person can learn to adapt to changed task conditions and to form new images of self as the world changes, the more the person is, in fact, learning how to learn. Thus, adaptability and identity are competencies of a higher order than basic skills and knowledge. It is these capabilities for learning how to learn that will be the basic coming focus of the self-directed professional career and organisational commitment for the next century. Considering the importance of learning how to learn this area appears to warrant further investigation.

In summary, the present research presents an attempt at providing some insights into numerical flexibility and professionals' organisational commitment. It should be regarded as a first step in this direction, to be followed by other research projects,

that will examine the challenge to elicit employees commitment and increase our knowledge about how to manage professionals.

Appendixes

[   ]

Questionnaire

General instructions: Please note that the questionnaire items included in sections A, B, C, D, E intent to elicit information about **"what is given by the organisation to professionals".**

The section F include the same items rephrased in order to gain information about **"what the profesionals themselves want to be given by the organisation".**

We would be most grateful to have responses on all the questionnaire items even where they do not appear to have immediate relation to your job.

Name of Organisation:

Department:

SECTION A: ROLE RELATED DATA

Please indicate by ticking as appropriate, the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

	stongly disagree (1)	disagree (2)	neither agree or disagree (3)	agree (4)	strongly agree (5)
1. I find that my values and the organisation's values are very similar.					
2. I am proud to tell people for which organisation I work for.					
3. I feel myself to be part of the organisation.					
4. I feel very little loyalty to this organisation.					
5. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected not just for myself but for the organisation as well.					
6. This organisation really inspires the best in me in my job performance.					
7. I am not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation.					
8. To know that my work had made a contribution to the good of the organisation would please me.					
9. This organisation has a great deal of meaning for my career.					
10. I would be very happy to spent the rest of my career with this organisation.					
11. There is not much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely.					
12. I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.					

SECTION B: ORGANISATIONAL DIMENSIONS

Please indicate by ticking as appropriate, according to your perceptions, the amount of chance you have or to what extent do you experience the following circumstances:

	to no extent or chance (1)	To little extent or chance (2)	to some extent or chance (3)	to great extent or chance (4)	to very great extent or chance (5)
1. My immediate superior asks my opinion when a problem comes up which involves my work.					
2. If I have a suggestion for improving the job or its design in some way, it is easy for me to get my ideas across to the management of the organisation.					
3. I feel I can trust this organisation to do what it says it will do.					
4. Management in the organisation is sincere in its attempts to satisfy the employees needs by taking into account their point of view.					
5. There are people in the organisation who are getting much more than they deserve and others who are getting much less.					
6. I feel that the organisation will always treat me fairly.					
7. In general I have much say and influence over what goes on in my work.					
8. I am making an important contribution to the success of the organisation.					
9. I have a chance to make important decisions on my job.					

SECTION C: JOB DIMENSIONS

1.Please indicate, according to your perceptions, the amount of chance you have or to what extent do you experience the following circumstances:

	to no extent or chance (1)	to little extent or chance (2)	to some extent or chance (3)	to great extent or chance (4)	to very great extent or chance (5)
1. How much chance do you have to use your skills and abilities in your job?					
2. How much chance do you get to try out your own ideas?					
3. How much chance do you have to gain experience from your job?					
4. To what extent do you think the skills and experience you have obtained at your current organisation would be transferred to another organisation?					
5. How much chance do you have to learn new things?					
6. To what extent do you see projects or jobs through to completion?					
7. To what extent are the results of your work clearly evident?					
8. To what extent do you do a whole piece of work? (as opposed to doing part of a job which is finished by some other employee)					
9. To what extent do you find out how well you are doing on the job as you are working?					
10. To what extent do you receive information from your boss or peers on your job performance?					

11. How much opportunity is there for independent thought and action?					
12. How much discretion do you have in scheduling your work and deciding on procedures to be followed?					
13. How much chance do you get to do things your own way?					
14. How free do you feel to set your own work pace?					
15. To what extent do you regard your job being of great importance?					
16. To what extent do you spent a great deal of time on matters related to your job during working hours?					
17. To what extent do you spent a great deal of time on matters related to your job during after working hours?					
18. To what extent do you enjoy your job?					
19. To what extent do you consider yourself well paid?					

2. Do you receive any of the following benefits:

1. Paid sick leave

YES   NO

[   ] a   [   ] b

2. Paid Holiday leave

YES   NO

[   ] a   [   ] b

3. Professional development

YES   NO

[   ] a   [   ] b

4. Pension benefits

YES   NO

[   ] a   [   ] b

SECTION D: CAREER DIMENSIONS

Please indicate by ticking as appropriate, according to your perceptions, the amount of chance you have or to what extent do you experience the following circumstances:

	to no extent or chance (1)	to little extent or chance (2)	to some extent or chance (3)	to great extent or chance (4)	to very great extent or chance (5)
1. Working in this organisation will be usefull for my CV.					
2. The organisation I work for gives me the opportunity to aquire new skills and knowledge.					
3. The organisation I work for gives me the opportunity to develop my technical and or functional skills to a high level of competence.					
4. My expert advice is in great demand (is sought continuously).					
5. I influence organisational policies through my own expertise.					
6. I influence organisational policies through my position in the organisation.					
7. The organisation I work for gives me the opportunity to make useful contacts for my future career.					
8. The organisation I work for provides me with the opportunity for career advancement in the organisation.					
9. The organisation I work for gives me a sense of security and stability.					

SECTION E: SOCIAL DIMENSIONS

Please indicate the extent to which the following occur:

	to no extent (1)	to little extent (2)	to some extent (3)	to great extent (4)	to very great extent (5)
1. To what extent is there the opportunity to meet people ?					
2. To what extent is there the opportunity to develop friendship					
3. To what extent do you have the opportunity to talk informally with other employees while at work?					
4. I can trust the people I work with to lend me a hand if I needed it.					
5. Among the people in this organisation there are few close relationships.					

SECTION F: WORK VALUES

Please rate its of the following values according to your preference with number 1 to 8.

The number (1) represents your very first preference while (8) represents the last one.

Please put each number (1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8) only once.

_____ Autonomy

Participation in decisions

_____ Money

_____ Trust

_____ Justice

_____ Promotions

_____ Friendship opportunities at work

please state other if any

_____

_____

SECTION G: PERSONAL DATA

Please tick as appropriate:

1. Sex:

male   female

[   ] 1   [   ] 2

2. Age:

20 -25   [   ] 1

26 - 30   [   ] 2

31 -35   [   ] 3

36 -40   [   ] 4

41 -45   [   ] 5

46 - 50   [   ] 6

51 - over   [   ] 7

3. Marital status:

Married	[ ]	1
Divorced	[ ]	2
Widowed	[ ]	3
Never married	[ ]	4

4. Number of children:

none	[ ]	a
one	[ ]	b
two	[ ]	c
three	[ ]	d
more than three	[ ]	e

5. First degree in: ....

6. Highest degree held: ....

7. How long is your current contract ?

years [   ]   months [   ]

8. How much time remains until the end of the contract ?

years [   ]   months [   ]

9. How long have you been working on short term contracts (total time) ?

years [   ]   months [   ]

10. Have you ever been working in a permanent position ?   YES [   ] 1

NO [   ] 2

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