

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AMONG  
KOREAN PUBLIC AND BUSINESS SECTOR EMPLOYEES: WHY AND TO  
WHOM ARE THEY COMMITTED?

by

JONG IN YOON

(Under the Direction of Robert T. Golembiewski)

ABSTRACT

Although organizational commitment (OC) has been a popular topic during the past three decades, there still remains confusion over its definitions and measurements. And research on public employees' OC is relatively small in quantity, limited in quality, and has yielded mixed results. This dissertation adopts a multi-base and multi-focus OC approach — the existence of 15 commitments (3 bases X 5 foci) suggested by Meyer and Allen (1997) — and investigates how differently individual employees' commitment are manifested in Korean public and business organizations.

Analyzing 508 questionnaires collected from five organizations (response rate = 70.6), this dissertation found that Korean respondents could distinguish affective commitments (AC) to four foci — organization and top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers. Normative Commitment (NC) items loaded on three factors — (1) organization, (2) top management and supervisor, and (3) coworkers and citizens/customers — in the public employee sample, while two-factor solution — (1) organization, top management, and supervisor, and (2) coworkers and citizens/customers — emerged in the business employee sample. However, the distinction between AC and NC to individual focus was weak. And the inclusion of multiple foci and bases increased marginally variances of such variables as withdrawal intention from organization, search behavior, and extra-efforts for organization after considering the variances explained by the OCQ.

This dissertation also found that public employees show higher level of AC and NC to organization, top management, and citizens/customers than business sector employees. However, there were no differences in terms of commitment to supervisor and coworkers. These suggest that, although not psychometrically solid, the multi-base and multi-focus approach may be a useful tool in comparing public and private employees' OC patterns. Both the Public Service Motivation and the collectivistic

tendency had considerable effects on commitment of Korean public employees. The applicability of the PSM was affirmed in Korean settings.

**INDEX WORDS:** Organizational commitment, Korean employees, Multi-base and multi-focus commitment approach, Affective commitment, Normative commitment, Continuance commitment, Public service motivation, Collectivism

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## DEDICATION

To God, Who always Loves, Stands by, and Enriches Me and My Loved Ones.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### Purpose

The world of work is changing. We often hear about and even witness global competition, mergers, and reengineering of business (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Presumably, then, organizations now have to adopt new approaches, policies, and structures. Consequently, we can envision another stream of new concepts in some settings that are already familiar in others — for example, flexible employment, layoffs, and contracting-outs.

Facing all these changes, some cynics recommend that employees avoid over-involvement in their organizations, and instead look out for themselves (or their families) and prepare themselves for employment in other organizations in the event of a layoff (Kanter, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997). These attitudes are reflected in new vocabulary, including references to "grasshoppers" and "nomads" (Pittinsky, 2001).

These observers and many others imply that employees are no longer committed to their organization, and thus the study of organizational commitment (OC) is useless or outdated, but this dissertation takes a more optimistic view. In sum, the study of OC is neither useless nor outdated. Employees are still very committed to their organizations, in contrast to the expectations of some cynics. One survey asked IT workers (often believed to be the least committed to their organization) to estimate the percentage of their coworkers who were "extremely committed". Respondents reported that about 70 percent

of their co-workers were "extremely committed" to their organization (Pittinsky, 2001). In addition, although organizations change, they do not disappear or morph into strange variants. As organizations become leaner and smarter, those who remain in the organization become more important. Once the "fat" is gone, the remaining employees represent the "brain and muscle" of the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Overall, these enhanced linkages that bind employees to organizations have received new attention from both practitioners and researchers (Kanter, 2001; Pittinsky, 2001). OC is one of the theoretical constructs — including psychological contract and trust — that focus on the employee–organization linkages.

OC generally represents an individual, and psychological bond between an employee and an organization, which includes loyalty to and identification with an organization (Buchanan, 1974; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Romzek, 1990). OC has been a popular topic during the past three decades, and a series of meta-analyses provides a good summary of that literature (Cohen & Hudecek, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Randall, 1990), leading to at least one major question: "What are the major attractions of OC research?" One immediate answer is that gaining a greater understanding of the processes related to OC has implications for employees, organizations, and society as a whole.

Employee commitment produces personal benefits such as non-work and career satisfaction. In this sense, commitment is different from workaholism (Romzek, 1989). "There is reason to believe that people need to be committed to something; the opposite of commitment is alienation, which is obviously unhealthy" (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p.5). In addition, from the perspective of an organization, commitment is viewed as a fairly

stable and reliable predictor of employee behaviors such as turnover, compared to other attitudinal constructs such as job satisfaction (Mowday et al, 1982; Morrow, 1993).

Organizations value employee commitment, which is typically believed to reduce withdrawal behaviors such as turnover and lateness. Moreover, committed employees are more likely to be involved in organizational citizenship or extra-role behaviors such as creativeness and innovativeness, which are also assumed to enhance organizational competitiveness. From a larger perspective, society as a whole also benefits from OC because it may lower rates of costly job movement and may enhance national productivity or work quality. Overall, empirical research thus far reports modest inverse relationships between turnover, intention to leave, and absenteeism and employees' commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

In summary, then, commitment is a necessity for any social organization to be successful, especially in the long run. Furthermore, given the limited resources for economic rewards, public sector employees' OC merits special attention because it is not solely dependent on monetary rewards. The present research compares public and business sector employees' commitment in order to answer such research questions as:

(1) On what bases (or why) are employees committed to their organizations (bases of commitment)? And, to what are employees committed — the organization as a whole, top management, coworkers, supervisors, or citizens/customers (foci of commitment)?

(2) When we consider both foci and bases of commitment at the same time, can we identify different, if any, commitment patterns and levels between public and private sector employees (patterns and levels of commitment)?

(3) What factors influence OC? Are there any factors salient only among public sector employees (antecedents of commitment)?

(4) To what consequences does OC lead (consequences of commitment)?

### Statement of Problems

Previous research has difficulty in answering those four questions. Despite ample research efforts made on business sector employees' OC, overall, previous research on public employees' OC is relatively small in quantity, limited in quality, and has yielded results that sometimes fly in the face of one another (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Zeffane, 1994). This situation is frustrating given the importance of commitment in the public sector. The paucity is partly due to the fact that generic organizational behavior theories recognize little distinction between public, nonprofit, and business organizations. However, some researchers in public management and political science suggest the possibility of sector-specific commitment mechanisms (Zeffane, 1994). For example, Rainey, Backoff, and Levine (1976) found wide scholarly consensus on differences between public and private organizations such as the absence of market mechanism for outputs, greater goal ambiguity and conflict.

Research on public employees' OC also has yielded inconsistent results. Buchanan (1974) reported that federal executives expressed lower OC than their counterparts in the private sector. This finding was echoed by several other comparative studies (Chubb & Moe, 1988). However, some studies report that public sector employees do not have significantly different levels of OC compared to private sector employees (Balfour & Wechsler, 1990). These mixed empirical results prompt a need for further research on public employees' OC.

Further, from a cross-cultural perspective, management theories and generalizations developed in one setting may not be automatically applicable to other cultures such as Korea (Cohen, 1993; Randall, 1993; Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994). However, research interest in OC outside of the U.S. is still in its early stages. Articles examining OC from a cross-cultural perspective have just recently begun to emerge in academic journals (Randall, 1993). Through a computerized search for the period from the late sixties to 1993, Randall (1993) found only 27 empirical studies investigating OC in a setting outside of the U.S. or in a comparative and cross-cultural context across two or more cultures or countries. Again, this deficiency prompts further research on employee commitment in countries other than the U.S.

#### Lines of Reasoning Guiding the Dissertation

Pessimism about OC research should be restrained, however. Recent conceptual and theoretical views on OC suggest ways to get partial answers to the important research questions mentioned above: (1) multi-focus (or constituencies)<sup>1</sup> commitment approaches (Becker, 1992; Gregersen, 1993; Reichers, 1985) and (2) multi-base (or dimensional) commitment approaches (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996b; Meyer & Allen, 1997; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). These approaches are in sharp contrast to the traditional OC approaches and provide a useful tool to empirically explain the mixed results of previous comparative research on the nature of OC among public and business sector employees.

Consider a few aspects of the first approach above. A traditional view of OC has come more frequently to be seen as an attachment to the organization as a whole. However, emerging multi-focus approaches posit that an employee has multiple

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<sup>1</sup> This research uses the terms, 'foci,' 'entities,' and 'constituencies' interchangeably.

commitments to entities such as her organization, division, coworkers, or the public at the same time. One immediate advantage of this view is that it helps understand more clearly the commitment profiles that an employee has in various work settings. It also fits well with current flexible and lateral organizational forms as well as with emphases on teams and groups within organization. By investigating the foci of OC, we might understand the development and consequences of OC more precisely and identify potential conflicts among multiple commitments within an organization.

If anything, indeed, multi-focus approaches appear adequate for a comparative study of OC in public organizations. The literature in both political science and public administration supports the views that public managers have multiple masters, and that multiple constituencies affect public organizations (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1989; Pressman & Wildavsky, 1984). This reasoning also fits well with our common sense. As an example, a policy staff member in the Department of Defense may identify with the values and goals of the general public, the Department, and coworkers, to name but a few.

As a further complication, recently, differentiating two or more dimensions of OC has received attention, and opinion converges on the view that commitment is a multidimensional construct (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997). This approach suggests that employee dedication to an organization (or any other focus) has a three-fold involvement: calculative (based on material rewards or side bets), affective (based on affiliation), and normative (based on obligation or value congruence).

This view is also useful for research on OC in the public sector. For instance, the overall low OC reported among public employees (e.g., Buchanan, 1974) may be largely due to low calculative commitment, regardless of high normative commitment. In

particular, the concept of normative commitment may help explain the intrinsic motivation of public employees. This argument challenges not only the prevailing assumption that public employees are fundamentally self-interested and material rewards-oriented.

All in all, this research attempts to investigate how differently individual employees' commitments based on both the foci and bases of OC are manifested in business and public organizations. This research generally hypothesizes that public employees may have different levels and patterns (foci and bases) of organizational commitment.

In several ways, this study tries to extend previous research. First and foremost, it deals with bases and foci of OC in combination. Despite the frequent advocacy of using such an approach, studies that investigate the bases and foci of OC simultaneously are few in both management and public administration (Becker, 1992; Becker & Billings, 1993). Second, this research is one of the few attempts that adopt multidimensional and multi-faceted OC approaches in comparing nonprofit sector employees with their profit sector counterparts. Third, this study also has useful implications for practitioners. It adds to the understanding of how to manage or develop optimal levels of OC among employees, by knowing “on what bases and to whom employees in an organization are committed.”

### Organization of the Dissertation

The remainder of the dissertation consists of five chapters. Chapter 2 reviews the literature on approaches to OC, public employees' OC, and Korean employees' OC. This

chapter sheds light on the shortcomings of previous research, and presents some strategies that this research adopts.

Chapter 3 consists of four parts. The first part develops a basic model integrating both multi-base and multi-focus approaches of commitment (see Figure 2). The basic model includes five submodels (Figure 4 to 8). The second part of Chapter 3 deals with those five submodels and hypotheses regarding those submodels. It also operationalizes both OC and other related variables such as determinants and consequences of commitment to each focus. The third part presents the hypotheses that shed light on the potential public and private distinction. The final part presents other hypotheses that were additionally investigated in this study.

Chapter 4 describes the research methods for this research, which includes sampling, preparation of the questionnaire, survey procedures, sample quality, and the strategies for data analysis. Chapter 5 presents and discusses the results of the research in terms of both construct validation and hypotheses testing. The final chapter (Chapter 6) summarizes this study in a brief manner and also discusses limitations of the present study and offers suggestions for further study.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

How are employees linked to the organization for which they work, or to which they belong? Such a question has been with us for a long time in academia as well as in real life. Early management literature discussed the issue of employee loyalty. For example, to Barnard (1938), loyalty is a willingness of persons to contribute efforts to the cooperative system of the organization, which he believed is an essential condition of organization. However, controversies over the origin, nature, and creation of loyalty continued into and through the 1960's. By the early 1970's the concept of loyalty began to be discussed under a new mnemonic — OC, or organizational commitment. Generally the concept of OC contains some elements found in the concept of loyalty, but several new elements are also noticeable.

Although OC is a widely-researched topic in organizational behavior, the empirical literature on OC is somewhat confusing due, in part, to the many definitions and measurements of OC (Brown, 1996; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Reichers, 1985). For example, Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) reported ten divergent definitions of OC, which reflects more dissention than consensus. This is partly due to the fact that researchers from various disciplines — e.g., economics, psychology, or sociology among others — have ascribed their own meanings to the construct of OC. In addition, these divergent definitions also reflect controversies over the nature of OC, which will concern

us at many points below. Immediately, we begin with some approaches to organizational commitment.

### Approaches to Organizational Commitment

To illustrate, Figure 1 shows one of the current typologies of OC, which itself challenges the unitary concept of OC (see also Table 1). The distinction between “behavioral” commitment and “attitudinal” commitment is common and long-standing in the literature of OC, while the distinction between affective, continuance, and normative commitment is rather recent.

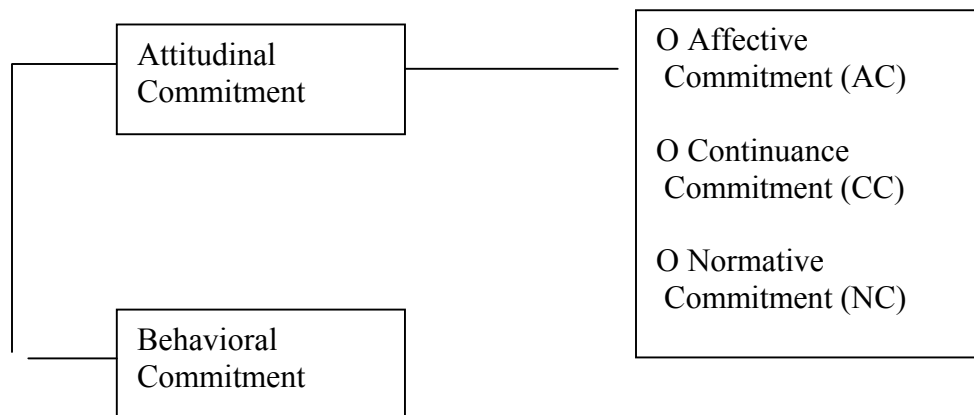


Figure 1. A Current Typology of Organizational Commitment

Source; Brown (1996, p.232)<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup> In another but similar vein, Bielby (1992) suggests that commitment is typically conceptualized in two ways: behavioral approach (behavioral commitment) and identity approach (attitudinal commitment). The identity approach also posits that commitment is determined in one of two ways, either by rational choice or by noncognitive response.

Table 1. Definitions of Organizational Commitment

1. Attitudinal Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Commitment occurs when individuals identify with and extend effort towards organizational goals and values (Reichers, 1985).</li> <li>- Among this type of commitment, three components are believed to exist (Meyer &amp; Allen, 1997).</li> </ul>
1.1 Affective Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- An attitude or an orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization (Sheldon, 1971, p.143)</li> <li>- A partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of the organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth (Buchanan, 1974, p.533)</li> <li>- Commitment is a set of strong, positive attitudes toward the organization manifested by dedication to goals and a shared sense of values (Brown, 1996).</li> <li>- Commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization (Mowday et al. 1982; Meyer &amp; Allen, 1997).</li> </ul>
1.2 Continuance Commitment, Compliance Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Commitment is a function of the rewards and costs associated with organizational membership; these typically increase as tenure in the organization increases (Reichers, 1985).</li> <li>- Profit associated with continued participation and a "cost" associated with leaving (Kanter, 1968)</li> <li>- Commitment occurs when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity (Becker, 1960, p.32).</li> <li>- A structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual-organizational transactions and alterations in side bets or investments over time (Hrebiniak &amp; Alutto, 1972, p.555)</li> <li>- An attachment to an organization, built upon over time through a composite of decisions, personal developments, investments, and acquired benefits, which retrospectively binds an individual to an organization by raising both the perceived benefits of remaining with an organization and the perceived risks or costs associated with leaving (Brown, 1990, p.32)</li> </ul>
1.3 Normative Commitment, Moral Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Commitment behaviors are socially accepted behaviors that exceed formal and/or normative expectations relevant to the object of commitment (Wiener &amp; Gechman, 1977).</li> <li>- The totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests (Wiener, 1982).</li> <li>- The committed employee considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status or satisfaction the firm gives him or her over the years (Marsh &amp; Mannari, 1977)</li> <li>- Commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment (Meyer &amp; Allen, 1997).</li> </ul>
2. Behavioral Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Commitment is a binding of the individual to behavioral acts that results when individuals attributes an attitude of commitment to themselves after engaging in behaviors that are volitional, explicit, and irrevocable (Reichers, 1985).</li> <li>- The pledging or binding of the individual to behavioral acts (Kiesler &amp; Sakamura, 1966, p.349)</li> </ul>

Sources: Mowday et al. (1982), Cho (1992), Meyer & Allen (1997), & Brown (1990)

A behavioral approach to OC posits that employees are committed to a specific course of action (e.g., maintaining employment with an organization) rather than to an entity (usually an organization or his/her employer) (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Bielby, 1992). In this approach, one is committed through behavior. The more explicit, irrevocable, and public an individual's prior activity has been, the more stable subsequent behavior will be. The theory of side-bets also argues that OC develops as an individual accumulates side-bets in an organization, which involve something valuable to an individual (e.g. pension, social connections, ease in doing work). The threat of losing these side-bets commits the individual to the organization (Becker, 1960).

The main problem with behavioral commitment is the lack of valid measures that would not be confused or confounded with measures of affective commitment. Illustratively, two measures of behavioral commitment (i.e. the Ritzer and Trice Scale and the Hrebiniak–Alutto Scale) have been criticized for not capturing the behavioral commitment and side-bets theory. Meyer and Allen (1984) suggest that both scales relate more to attitudinal commitment rather than to behavioral commitment. Aven (1988) also argues that the Hrebiniak–Alutto Scale does not measure behavioral commitment and that there is a positive relationship between attitudinal and behavioral commitment.

Additionally, an attitudinal approach has been a main stream of OC research that focuses on the psychological attachment which links an individual to his/her employing organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Brown, 1996). Although there are diverse definitions and measurements of attitudinal commitment, the most widely recognized definition comes from Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974), who defined commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular

organization. They also conceive of OC as a complex concept that can be parceled into at least three factors:

- (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values,
- (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and
- (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.

The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, or OCQ, developed by Porter and his colleagues has also been widely used as a measure of OC. A meta-analysis shows that 59 percent of 174 OC studies used the OCQ (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The OCQ consists of 15 statements to which respondents indicate their levels of agreement or disagreement on a seven-point verbally anchored metric. The scale developers and subsequent researchers have reported the psychometric soundness of the OCQ — unidimensionality (e.g., a single factor solution for factor analysis) and satisfactory reliability (test-retest and internal consistency reliability), and acceptable levels of predictive, convergent, and discriminant validity (Morrow, 1993).

However, some researchers raised doubts about the psychometric soundness of the OCQ. One critic questions its inclusion of "intent to quit" oriented items — e.g. "It would take little in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization." Reichers (1985) argues that these items confound OC with its hypothesized outcomes. Thus, this "concept redundancy" may have led to artifactually inflated correlations between OC and, say, turnover.

Another concern is over whether the OCQ may be composed of two or more separate dimensions (Angle & Perry, 1981; Tetrick & Farkas, 1988; Cooke, 1989). In a sense, this criticism is in line with the argument that the concept of OC is in actuality a

multidimensional one (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Morrow, 1993; see next section). Some empirical studies report the existence of two dimensions of the OCQ using both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Particularly, six negatively-worded items of the OCQ were loaded in the second factor labeled as ‘commitment to stay’ (Angle & Perry, 1981), implying that the elimination of the six negatively-worded items from the OCQ would enhance its construct validity (Tetrick & Farkas, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Consequently, a nine-item version of the OCQ, which consists of all the positively worded items, has been commonly used. Empirical research supports the uni-dimensionality of the nine-item OCQ (Angle & Perry, 1981). Various versions of the OCQ (15 item vs. 9-item vs. no intention to remain versions) make the definition of OC by Mowday et al. dubious and call for a clearer conceptual redefinition of affective commitment (Morrow, 1993).

The OCQ has also been tested in countries other than the U.S., such as Japan, Korea, and Israel, and the results are somewhat mixed. Luthans, McGaul, and Dodd (1985) found one factor for the OCQ in the U.S. and Japanese samples and two factors in the Korean samples where the second factor was associated with all the negatively worded items. On the other hand, White, Parks, Gallagher, Tetrault, and Wakabayashi (1995) found two factors in two Japanese samples.

All in all, a common theme within attitudinal commitment is a psychological attachment that binds an individual to the organization. However, Figure 1 also accommodates divergent views about what the components of such a psychological bond (attitudinal commitment) are. This has to do with the question of whether the concept of attitudinal commitment is multidimensional or uni-dimensional (see next section).

Before delving into the multidimensional views of OC, the relationship between the attitudinal and behavioral commitments deserves brief attention here. Although distinct, attitudinal and behavioral commitments are closely related. And, neither attitudinal nor behavioral approaches to OC can claim superiority. For one thing, the concept of continuance commitment often shares theoretical ground with the behavioral approach (see following section). Mowday et al. (1982) also suggest a self-reinforcing cyclical relationship between these two types of commitment, in which a behavior may cause the development of congruent attitudes, which in turn lead to further the behaviors and vice versa. Salanick (1977) implies that individuals who are committed behaviorally will tend to develop favorable attitudes toward the organization through the operation of the post-action justification mechanism. Thus, the development of OC may rely on the subtle interplay of the two types of commitment.

Obviously, the diverse definitions of OC in the literature force this study to specify the position for which this research stands. Following the main stream of commitment research, this study conceives of commitment as an attitudinal concept, which denotes a psychological state of attachment or bond between employees and the organization. This stance is taken because this study intends to focus on psychological attachment of both public and business sector employees to their organizations. In addition, this study suggests that OC be distinguished from its consequences — e.g., willingness to exert extra efforts, or desire to remain (Suszko, 1990; Becker, 1992). This study also posits that OC consists of multidimensions or components.

When OC is here viewed as an attitudinal, multidimensional concept, however, several conceptual issues still linger. What are the dimensions of commitment? Is each

dimension a component of overall OC or an independent one? Additionally, as Reichers (1985) argues, can OC be understood as a collection of multiple commitments or as a concept focused only on the organization? All these questions remain unsolved in the OC literature. In this sense, this study is quite exploratory. The following two sections address these questions in detail.

### Multi-base (Dimensional) Approaches

Many have differentiated two or more types of commitment in the literature of OC as Table 2 shows. As an early effort, Etzioni (1961) conceptualized a three-fold commitment — moral, calculative, and alienative. However, one of the most influential variations comes from Kanter (1968 and 1972). The subsequent multi-base approaches of OC reflect Kanter's view on OC in a way or another.

While studying thirty 19<sup>th</sup>-century American utopian communities, Kanter (1968) defines commitment as "the willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to social systems, the attachment of personality systems to social relations which are seen as self-expressive"(499). In her view, OC is comprised of continuance commitment, cohesion commitment, and control commitment (see Table 2). These three forms of commitment bind three characteristics of personality systems — i.e. cognitive, cathectic, and evaluative orientations — to three problems of any social systems — i.e. continuation as an action system, group cohesion, and social control, respectively.

In fact, Parsons (1953) greatly influenced Kanter's view on commitment. Parsons distinguished person-to-person attachment from person-to-collectivity attachments. The latter takes three primary forms: cognitive (utilitarian), cathectic (emotional), and evaluative (normative). Each form is important in the overall

relationship between a person and a collectivity. Thus, strong bonds based on any of those three forms make actors more responsive to the control and sanction of a collectivity (group, organization, or a society).

Table 2. Multi-base Commitment Approaches

Author(s)	Components	Definitions
Kanter (1968)	Continuance commitment	Dedication to organization's survival brought on by previous personal investment and sacrifices such that leaving would be costly or impossible.
	Cohesion commitment	Attachment to social relationships in an organization
	Control commitment	Attachment to organizational norms and values that shape behavior in desired directions
O'Reilly and Chatman (1986)	Compliance commitment	Instrumental involvement for specific, extrinsic rewards
	Identification commitment	Involvement based on a desire for affiliation
	Internalization commitment	Involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organizational values
Meyer and Allen (1997)	Continuance commitment	An awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization
	Affective commitment	The employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization
	Normative commitment	A feeling of obligation to continue employment.
Balfour and Wechsler (1996)	Exchange commitment	Commitment based on what employees believe they should receive in exchange for their efforts (intrinsic or extrinsic)
	Affiliation commitment	Commitment based on interpersonal relationships with the people with whom they work
	Identification commitment	Commitment based on the person's identification with the organization's mission, goals, and values.

Kanter's conceptualization deserves attention for several reasons. First, she indicates that commitment might be multidimensional and might reflect different ways in which an individual is linked to the organization. Second, she succeeds in avoiding

tautological problems by distinguishing among the causes, types, and results of commitment (Mowday et al., 1982). Third, she views the three dimensions of commitment as being highly interrelated, each reinforcing the others as they jointly influence the individual to increase his or her ties with the organization. Thus, an employee may be committed to an organization as a combined result of a dedication to system survival, a feeling of group cohesion, and identification with organizational goals and norms.

Fourth, her view on the fit of personality system to social system is a broad concept that partly encompasses social motivation theories and thus helps understand individual motives to contribute resources to organizations. Knoke and Wright–Isak (1982) consistently argue that social motivations involve three analytically distinct components such as rational choice, normative conformity, and an affecting bonding process. Like Kanter, they suggest that each by itself is incomplete as an explanation for individual decisions to contribute personal resources to the collectivity. This reasoning is also reflected partly in an argument for the Public Service Motivation (Perry & Wise, 1990). All in all, Kanter's conceptualization provides some grounds for understanding the bases of social motivation as a whole as well as commitment.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) also conceive of OC as a psychological attachment to an organization that has three distinct dimensions: compliance (instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards), identification (involvement based on a desire for affiliation), and internalization (involvement based on congruence between individual and organizational values). According to the authors, an employee's OC may reflect varying combinations of those three forms, and the consequences that

each form of commitment leads to may be different. Thus, identification and internalization commitment are positively related to organization citizenship behavior, whereas compliance commitment has no association or a negative association with it.

O'Reilly and Chatman developed a twelve-item scale to measure their three dimensions of commitment. Although some research reports supportive evidence for their conceptualization and measurement of OC (Becker, 1992; Becker & Billings, 1993; Harris, Hirschfeld, Field, & Mossholder, 1993), the difficulty in distinguishing internalization and identification commitment has weakened considerably the impact of their conceptualization of OC. Those measures of internalization and identification commitment correlate highly with each other and show similar patterns of correlations with other related variables.

Vandenberg, Self, and Seo (1994) also found that identification commitment contributed nothing beyond that captured already by the OCQ. Both compliance and internalization commitment measures also performed poorly in predicting turnover intention. Vandenberg, Self, and Seo concluded that replication of O'Reilly and Chatman's research should proceed with caution. As a matter of fact, recognizing this difficulty, O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) later combined identification and internalization commitment into "normative commitment".<sup>3</sup>

Meyer and Allen (1997) also suggest a three-fold model of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative commitment (see Table 2). Affective commitment is the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization, which is similar to Porter et al.'s (1974) definition of OC. Continuance

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<sup>3</sup> This concept of normative commitment should not be confused with Meyer and Allen's normative commitment.

commitment is an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Continuance commitment centers on the exchange components of the employee–organization relationship, meaning an individual is bound to the organization because of such interests as side–bets or investments over time (Becker, 1960). Normative commitment, a recently developed concept, is a feeling of obligation to continue employment.

Like Kanter, and O'Reilly and Chatman, Meyer and Allen also conceptualize affective, continuance, and normative commitment as components, rather than types, of commitment because an employee's relationship with an organization might reflect varying degrees of all three, saying:

For example, one employee might feel both a strong attachment to an organization and a sense of obligation to remain. A second employee might enjoy working for the organization but also recognize that leaving would be very difficult from an economic standpoint. Finally a third employee might experience a considerable degree of desire, need, and obligation to remain with the current employer (p.13).

Recently, their three–component model has been widely applied and tested (Akhtar & Doreen, 1994; Angle & Lawson, 1993; Allen & Meyer, 1993; Cohen & Kirchmeyer, 1995; Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; Flynn, 2000; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Jaros, Jeremier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993; Vandenberghe, 1996). Although inconsistent, empirical evidence confirms three distinct forms (e.g., factor structures) of OC suggested by Meyer and Allen.

The future of Meyer and Allen's three–component model is likely to be somewhat bumpy, though (Morrow, 1993). First of all, studies have reported disappointing reliabilities for the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) and the

Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) (Morrow, 1993; Jung, 1999; Ko, 1996). Second, several empirical studies provide evidence suggesting two unique subcomponents of the CCS (lack of alternatives and high personal sacrifice) (McGee & Ford, 1987; Dunham et al, 1994). However, Hackett et al. (1994) found that the two sub-dimensions of the CCS were highly related, indicating the uni-dimensionality of the CCS. Third, the conceptualization and measurement of the NCS focus on the "desire to remain"(outcome associated with commitment). Close examination of the NCS items shows that most items considerably overlap with the concept of intent to stay (Morrow, 1993).

Fourth, the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) has some conceptual and methodological problems, which are related to whether or not "desire to remain" items should be retained (Morrow, 1993). Additionally, the relationship between the OCQ and the ACS is not yet clear (Dunham et al., 1994). Overall, theoretical and empirical studies comparing the OCQ to the ACS suggest that the two scales are measuring the same construct because both are highly correlated with an average correlation coefficient of .80 (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Cohen, 1996) and they show similar correlation patterns with other important related variables. However, in contrast to the OCQ, the ACS does not include 'value-goal congruence.'

Using the criticism of the OCQ as an impetus (see above), Balfour and Wechsler (1996) developed a new scale, the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), which also captures a three-component commitment; identification, exchange, and affiliation. Exchange commitment relies on what employees believe they should receive in exchange for their efforts. This includes intrinsic as well as extrinsic rewards. Affiliation commitment is based on interpersonal relationships with the people with whom they

work — the feeling of being a ‘part of a family.’ This concept is similar to Kanter's cohesion commitment, and O'Reilly and Chatman's identification commitment. Finally, identification commitment is based on the person's identification with the organization's mission, goals, and values — an employee's sense of ‘pride’ related to the goals and mission of the organization's services to its clientele.

Empirical studies investigating the psychometric properties of the OCS are comparatively rare and its construct validity remains unclear. Kacmar, Carlson, & Brymer (1999) compared two measures — the OCQ and the OCS — to examine the similarities and differences of the two. What they found is that they differ with respect to the components each measures, showing very few overlapped factor structures.

However, several problems remain with regard to the OCS. First, it is unclear whether the OCS covers the theoretical domains that it intends to capture because it has relatively few items — three items for each sub-scale. In addition, its applicability to private employees is still uncertain since it was developed through interviews with public employees only. White (1995) failed to replicate Balfour and Wechsler's work in a comparative study with the sample of 555 public and private employees.

All in all, OC theorists still remain divided about the multidimensionality of commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Jaros et al., 1993; Brown, 1996).<sup>4</sup> However,

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<sup>4</sup> The arguments for uni-dimensionality of commitment are well represented by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Brown (1996). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) argue that, although OC represents multiple dimensions such as identification and a desire to remain, “unless the more micro aspects of attitudinal commitment are demonstrated to have different relationships with other variables of interest, it serves little purpose to operate at a more micro-mediational level” (p.186). Brown (1996) also argues that, “a commitment is best conceptualized as a single, fundamental construct that may vary according to differences in focus, terms, and time-specific” (p.230). He also suggests that a commitment to a particular entity is a distinct phenomenon, which is continuously perceived and evaluated by an individual.

preliminary empirical evidence supports the value of recognizing the existence of different forms of commitment. Table 3 illustrates studies adopting multi-base commitment approaches in a variety of settings. From a broad point of view, then, we can witness a noticeable tendency — the previous uni-dimensional view of OC has been increasingly changing into a multidimensional concept (Meyer & Allen, 1996; Becker, 1992; Balfour & Wechsler, 1990). At this stage, researchers are consistently finding that single-factor models do not represent the conceptual and empirical domain of OC (Jaros et al., 1993).

Table 3. Studies Adopting Multi-base Commitment Approaches

Author (Year)	Samples	Measures	Key Findings and Conclusions
Kidron (1978)	353 business and university employees	Moral and calculative commitment	Despite support for the relationship between moral commitment (identification with organizational goals and values) and the Protestant Ethic, empirical evidence for such a relationship between calculative commitment and the latter remained lacking.
Wiener and Vardi (1980)	141 sales agents and staff professionals	Calculative and normative commitment	Different types of commitment had different effects on behavioral outcomes. A separation of a normative process from a calculative one was valid in the prediction of work outcomes. One of new lines of research is to classify individuals into "commitment profiles" and to compare the resultant groups in terms of work behaviors.
Angle and Perry (1981)	1,244 bus drivers and transit managers	Two sub-scales (Value commitment and commitment to stay) within the OCQ	Turnover was more strongly associated with commitment to stay than with value commitment. Tardiness rate was negatively correlated with value commitment, but was not significantly correlated with commitment to stay. Neither organizational adaptability nor absenteeism showed a differential strength of association with the two commitment scales.

Balfour and Wechsler (1990)	342 public and private sector employees	O'Reilly and Chatman Scale	Employment in the public sector was associated with higher levels of internalization commitment and lower levels of identification commitment. There was evidence for the existence of a "public service ethic" that serves to bolster the attachment of public employees to their organization.
Balfour and Wechsler (1991)	232 public sector employees	O'Reilly and Chatman Scale	In general, the antecedents of three distinct bases of commitment were identified in the public sector, regardless of limited support for hypothesized antecedents of compliance commitment. Compliance commitment was negatively associated with extra-role behaviors. The 'desire to remain' was mainly related to both identification and identification commitment, not to compliance commitment.
Becker (1992)	Two waves of surveys (763 and 440 military supply company employees)	O'Reilly and Chatman Scale	A greater recognition of the importance of multiple foci and bases of commitment is clearly warranted. The OCQ should probably be used less frequently than is currently the case. Needed is the creation of commitment profiles, which might be developed by classifying individuals into the cells of a foci-by-bases matrix.
Becker and Billings (1993)	440 military supply company employees	O'Reilly and Chatman Scale	By cluster analysis, four profiles were identified: the Locally Committed, the Globally Committed, the Committed, and the Uncommitted. The profiles were differentially related to intent to quit, job satisfaction, pro-social organizational behaviors, and certain demographic and contextual variables.
Jaros et al. (1993)	270 employees of an aerospace firm	Affective, continuance, and moral commitment	Via factor analysis, the authors were able to conceptualize and measure three distinct forms of OC. Also, the emerging contention that affective and moral commitments are indeed distinct concepts was supported.
Allen and Meyer (1993)	Two samples (123 library employees, 168 hospital employees)	Meyer and Allen Scale	Affective and normative commitment increased across employee age, while continuance commitment increased as organizational and positional tenure increased. There appeared little evidence that work experiences correlated differently with affective commitment at different career stages.
Angle and Lawson (1993)	232 private employees	Meyer and Allen Scale	Changes in two forms of commitment were associated with different patterns of antecedent factors. The discriminant validity of affective and continuance commitment was supported. Normative commitment was found to be strongly associated with both affective and continuance commitment.

Harris et al. (1993)	192 employees	O'Reilly and Chatman Scale	The existence of three dimensions of OC was supported. Reliability estimates were acceptable.
Vandenberg et al. (1994)	553 employees from a software R and D firm	O'Reilly and Chatman Scale	Although reliable, the identification measure was redundant with the OCQ and thus contributed nothing beyond that captured already through the OCQ. The use of internalization measure is reliable but should also proceed cautiously.
Hackett et al. (1994)	2,301 nurses	Meyer and Allen Scale	The existence of three dimensions was supported by confirmatory factor analysis. Some differential relationships of these dimensions to antecedents and outcomes of commitment were observed.
Dunham, et al. (1994)	2,734 public and nonprofit sector employees	Meyer and Allen Scale	Results support the existence of three major OC dimensions (affective, continuance, and normative), with two sub-dimensions (personal sacrifice and lack of alternatives) for the continuance dimension. Results also suggest that the widely used OCQ assesses primarily the affective dimension.
Cohen and Kirchmeyer (1995)	227 female nursing staff in Canada	Meyer and Allen Scale	Although non-work variables explained a significant percentage of the variance for all three dimensions of commitment, their individual contributions differed across the dimensions.
Vandenberghe (1996)	277 nurses and nursing aids in Belgium	Meyer and Allen Scale	Results support a three-dimensional view of OC. The existence of two related sub-dimensions inside the continuance commitment scale was not confirmed.
Ko (1996)	887 Korean Private sector employees	Meyer and Allen Scale	The applicability of Meyer and Allen's 3 scales in Korea is dubious. The CCS had very low reliability. The three scales had acceptable convergent validity but the ACS and NCS lacked discriminant validity. The construct validities of the ACS and NCS were supported whereas that of the CCS was not.
Balfour and Wechsler (1996b)	828 public sector employees	Identification, affiliation, and exchange commitment	Each base of commitment had a direct effect in 'desire to remain' which is inversely associated with 'turnover intent', whereas only affiliation commitment directly influenced extra-role behaviors. There are three conceptually distinct dimensions of commitment.
Becker et al. (1996)	1,217 graduate students of a large northwestern university	Internalization and identification commitment with two foci (supervisor and organization)	Employees in many organizations distinguished between commitment to supervisors and commitment to the organization and between identification and internalization as bases of commitment to these two foci. In contrast to the common view that the link between commitment and performance is largely non-existent, certain forms of commitment were

			related to performance in predictable and meaningful ways. For example, overall commitment to supervisors was positively and significantly associated with performance.
Chang (1999)	225 Korean researchers	Meyer and Allen scale	The CCS was not clearly operationalized with Koreans as it was with Americans.
Jorgensen (1999)	75 police officer	Meyer and Allen scale	The 3-components of commitment were confirmed. Degree centrality was significant predictor of normative commitment. Closeness centrality was a significant predictor of affective commitment.
Jung (1999)	1,053 private sector workers	Meyer and Allen scale	The 3-component model of commitment is not generalizable to Korean employees. The reliability of the CCS was not acceptable. They lacked discriminant validity.
Flynn (2000)	262 college faculty	Meyer and Allen scale	Reliability estimates of the 3-components were acceptable (ACS = .82, CCS = .79, NCS = .67) The ACS and NCS were moderately correlated ( $r = .41$ ). The CCS was independent of the ACS and had weak but positive correlation with the NCS.

One big advantage of multidimensional OC approaches is that they shed light on why, or on what bases, an employee uses as a psychological bond or linkage to an organization. This sort of understanding might not be captured in the concept of uni-dimensional commitment — say, the OCQ (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Balfour & Wechsler, 1996). Put it another way, even though commitment levels among employees in the different organizations are the same, there remains a possibility that employees in an organization are more value-congruent and less rewards-oriented than employees in other organizations. Obviously, the former is better than the latter in a practical sense for an organization. Therefore, understanding the bases of an employee' commitment is of some use in planning change, creating readiness for change, and predicting the reaction for the change (Harris et al., 1993). This theoretical reasoning gains support from findings that show different association of each form of commitment with work-related

outcomes (e.g., absenteeism, job performance, and citizenship behavior) as well as with antecedents (see Table 3).

Multi-base OC approaches are also appropriate for the purpose of public–private comparison (Balfour & Wechsler, 1990). Wiener and Vardi (1980) suggest that public and business organizations differ in the primary mechanisms by which their members are controlled. In business organizations, the primary control mechanism is based on calculative or instrumental processes, and the essence of a member's attachment to an organization is economic and incentives–oriented. On the other hand, in non-business organizations, OC may be more independent of direct and immediate interests and based on values or goals. Then, to simply say that public employees have lower OC than their private sector counterparts does not provide a complete picture of the nature and effects of employment in public organizations, and may be flat-wrong (Balfour & Wechsler, 1990).

The multi-base OC view also opens the possibility that concepts such as public service motivation (Perry & Porter, 1982), reward preferences (Rainey, 1982; Wittmer, 1991) and the service ethic (Buchanan, 1975) have linkages with OC (Crewson, 1997). Perry and Wise (1990) theorized that public service motivation (PSM) is comprised of rational, norm–based, and affective motives. Based on this reasoning, Perry (1996) recently proposed a measurement scale for the PSM. Clearly, the multi-base OC models and the PSM share common grounds. Crewson (1997) reports, "[public] federal workers who prefer service over economic rewards are more committed to the organization than are those [employees] with a preference for economic rewards" (512).

### Multi-focus Approaches

All commitments have an object or focus (Brown, 1996). When we say that someone is committed, we usually mean that he or she is committed to something or someone (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The object of commitment may be a person, an entity made of people (e.g. organization), or even a cause (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Bielby, 1992; Brown, 1996). Within the OC literature, much attention has been paid to 'commitment to an organization.' However, critiques have emerged.

Reichers (1985) argues that most conceptualizations of OC assume that an organization is a "monolithic, undifferentiated entity that elicits an identification and attachment on the part of individuals" (p.469). However, in reality, an organization consists of various coalitions and constituencies, and frequently pursues multiple and often conflicting goals and values. She suggests that, "organizational commitment can be clearly understood as a collection of multiple commitments to various groups that comprise the organization" (p.469). She proposes a multi-focus OC approach that recognizes employees' multiple commitments to various entities both inside and outside the organization. These multiple commitments reflect a complex reality that cannot be captured by current approaches to OC.

Some researchers agree with her (Abrahamson & Anderson, 1984; Morrow, 1983; Becker, 1992). For example, Mowday et al. (1982) indicate that individuals are committed to entities other than organizations. Abrahamson and Anderson (1984) also imply that an individual has a number of different commitments and is a part of a web of different institutional affiliations and involvements.

One theory underlying the multi-focus OC views is the social identity theory,

which posits that a man has many different social selves, and social identity is enhanced by belonging to groups positively evaluated by self or others. Organizational identification is a special form of social identification because an individual's social identity may be derived not only from the organization but also from his/her work group, department, union, and so on (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Lawler (1992) argues that various social structures place people in multiple, nest collectivities in which they are members of at least two groups at the same time.

However, concern remains over whether multi-focus commitment approaches refine our understanding of work-related behaviors and thus add values in both theoretical and practical senses. Whether multi-focus approaches are empirically verifiable or not awaits further research, too.

Although rare, however, empirical research suggests evidence for multi-constituency approaches. Table 4 summarizes studies that utilized the multi-focus commitment approaches. The foci tested thus far are mainly internal entities such as the organization, reference group, top management, work unit, and supervisors.

Zacarro and Dobbins (1989) report that it was possible to distinguish between group and organizational commitment as each has a different psychological basis. They found that the major correlates of group commitment were group-level variables such as group cohesiveness and task-based group liking, whereas organizational commitment was related more strongly to role conflict, met expectations, and satisfaction with the organization and promotion chances.

Table 4. Studies Adopting Multi-focus Commitment Approaches

Author(s) (Year)	Samples	Tested Foci	Findings and Conclusions
Reichers (1986)	124 mental health profession- als	Top management, professional- ism, funding agencies, and clients/public	Conflicts among commitments to several constituencies (three internal and one external) were correlated with global OC. Only commitment to top management's goals was positively associated with commitment to organization.
Zaccaro and Dobbins (1989)	203 Cadet Corps at a large university	Organization and group	Results substantiated a conceptual distinction between group and OC. The major correlates of group commitment were group-level variables like cohesiveness and task- based group liking, while OC was related more strongly to role conflict, met expectations, and satisfaction with the organization and promotion.
Suszko (1990)	890 employees	Organization, job, and supervisor	The existence of different commitment foci (organization, job, and supervisor) was confirmed. These foci were unique but interrelated objects of commitment for individuals working within an organization. Leader behaviors, especially those of consideration and reciprocity were positively related to supervisor commitment.
Becker (1992)	763 and 440 military supply employees	Organization, top management, supervisors, and groups	A greater recognition of the importance of multiple foci and bases of commitment is clearly warranted. Needed is the creation of commitment profiles, which might be developed by classifying individuals into the cells of a focus-by-base matrix.
Becker and Billings (1993)	440 military supply company employees	Organization, top management, supervisors, and groups	By cluster analysis, four profiles were identified; the Locally Committed, the Globally Committed, the Committed, and the Uncommitted. Profiles were differentially related to intent to quit, job satisfaction, pro-social organizational behaviors, and certain

			demographic and contextual variables.
Gregersen (1993)	290 non- manage- ment employees	Top management, supervisors, coworkers, and customers	Tenure was related to both four commitment foci and the OCQ. Commitment to proximal supervisors and OC exhibited significant positive relationships with extra-role behavior for those with between 2 and 8 years of organizational tenure. Commitment to immediate supervisors was a positive correlate of extra-role behavior for respondents with the highest organizational tenure (more than 8 years). However, commitment to top management was a negative correlate of extra-role behavior for this high tenure group.
Hunt and Morgan (1994)	Use data reported by Becker (1992)	Organization, top management, supervisors, and groups	The 'key mediating' model showed a better fit to data, debunking the view that employee commitment to parties within an organization leads to conflicts that decrease global commitment.  Several constituency-specific commitments (specifically commitment to top management and to supervisor) indeed contributed to global OC.
Yoon et al. (1994)	1,621 Korean workers from 62 organiza- tions	Group and supervisor	Interpersonal attachment among employees in local work units had a positive effect on commitment to the organization encompassing the work unit.  Interpersonal attachment between dissimilar positions in the same work units had a more positive effect on commitment than that between similar positions.
Kingsford (1995)	280 employees in a bank and a transit agency	Top management, supervisor, coworker, and customer	A multi-focus approach produced higher correlations with performance than did the OCQ.  Supervisor commitment showed a strong correlation with performance. Differences do exist between the commitment patterns of groups studied. Top management commitment was highly associated with the nine-item OCQ.
Becker et	1,217	Supervisor	Employees in many organizations distinguished

al. (1996)	graduate students at a large university	and organization	<p>between commitment to supervisors and commitment to the organization and between identification and internalization as bases of commitment to these two foci.</p> <p>In contrast to the common view that the link between commitment and performance is largely non-existent, certain forms of commitment are related to performance in predictable and meaningful ways. For example, overall commitment to supervisors was positively and more strongly associated with performance than was commitment to organizations.</p>
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Becker (1992) provides other evidence by showing that commitments to entities other than an organization contributed significantly in the prediction of intention to quit and pro-social behavior. Using cluster analysis, to illustrate, Becker and Billings (1993) identified four commitment profiles — (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 organization), (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). Among those profiles, the Committed had the highest levels of both job satisfaction and prosocial behaviors and were least likely to leave the organization.

The measurements of the multi-focus commitment are still developing, though. Zaccaro and Dobbins (1989) operationalized commitment to group by modifying the OCQ to refer to the group rather than to the organization (see also Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1993). Reliability in this study was very high (a Cronbach alpha = .91).

To summarize, the multi-focus commitment approaches are useful in understanding employee commitment for several reasons. First, recently, organizations have increasingly been adopting flexible and lateral forms. Rousseau (1997) argues that traditional measures of OC are problematic for new employment patterns, suggesting that more nuanced research efforts should be made for multiple commitments.

Second, the ability to identify the absence or presence of these particular foci of commitment and their relative strength should be valuable in organizational diagnosis and intervention. Multi-focus approaches may give a manager a more comprehensive picture of employee commitment.

Third, multi-focus approaches have another advantage, that of directing attention to potential conflicts among commitments. Social identity and role theories generally support this possibility. The multiple identities that an individual might have could impose inconsistent demands upon that individual. Reichers (1986) tested a multi-focus approach for samples of 124 mental hospital professionals. She asked the respondents to endorse the entities to which they are committed and used the standard deviation of an individual's endorsements as a measure of conflicts among different commitments. She found that there were conflicts among multiple commitments to four constituencies — top management, professionalism, funding agencies, and clients/public. Moreover, only commitment to top management's goal was positively associated with commitment to the organization.

Within an organization, however, conflicts between work group, departmental, divisional, and organizational roles are somewhat constrained by the nested character of these roles (e.g., a hierarchical means–end chain). Nonetheless, even nested identities can

be more or less at odds with one another (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Holographic organizations have individuals who share common identities across subunits, whereas ideographic organizations have individuals who display subunit-specific identities.

Finally, the multi foci approach appears more adequate for the study of OC in "public organizations". Business organizations also have a variety of related groups, masters and principals — for example, stockholders and clients (March, 1962). However, the scholarly literature in political science and public administration supports the view that public employees have multiple masters such as the public, the president, the legislature, and the citizen; and that they are much influenced by external influences, such as attentive publics (Ring & Perry, 1985). Furthermore, public organizations, unlike private firms, should be responsive to these external influences even in a legal sense. Thus, it is fairly natural to assume that the pattern of multiple commitments may vary according to such situational contexts as publicness.

Some empirical studies in public administration also point out the need to pay attention to multiple commitments. Several decades ago, via a study of organizational identification in the U.S. Forest service, Hall, Schneider, and Nygren (1970) argue that, "in describing a person's growing identification and commitment, it is necessary to specify the object of that identification — the job, the profession, or some subsystems of the organization, to name a few other possibilities (p.187)." Rainey (1982) also raises the possibility that "clients, programs, policies, or other foci may be more important than the organization, and the implications of organizational commitment or similar orientations vary according to the mission of the agency" (p.299). All in all, further study is warranted on the question "To what and to whom are public employees committed?"

The following sections deal with the literature on OC among public employees, and in particular OC in Korean employees. Through the literature review, this paper suggests specific research questions.

### Organizational Commitment of Public Employees

OC in the public sector has not been as thoroughly investigated as in the private sector, and fundamental empirical contradictions still remain. Furthermore, the newly emerging potential to explain public employees' commitment in somewhat different ways, and thus to fill the gaps between commitment literature and public administration, merits further research as well. Table 5 shows some, albeit few, empirical studies on the OC of public employees.

Table 5. Studies on Public Employees' Commitment

Author (Year)	Samples	Measures	Findings and Conclusions
Hall et al. (1970)	156 foresters	Organizational Identification Scale	Identification was positively associated with time (career stages), commitment to a pivotal organizational goal, and personal factors (high-order need satisfaction, self-identity, and public service orientation).
Buchanan (1974)*	279 public & private managers	Several scales	Public managers were lower on job satisfaction, OC, and perceived organizational constraints and rules.
Romzek (1985)	484 public employees	Organizational involvement scale	The sense of recognition awarded to the public service had a strong influence on the employee's organizational involvement, in particular among higher-level employees.
Balfour and	342 public	O'Reilly and	The strength of an individual's attachment to the

Wechsler (1990)*	and private sector employees	Chatman's scale, and Cook and Wall's one item	organization is a function of several organizational experiences influenced by the sector.  Employment in the public sector is associated with higher levels of internalization commitment and lower levels of identification commitment. There is some evidence for the existence of a "public service ethic" that serves to bolster the attachment of public employees to their organization.
Balfour and Wechsler (1991)	232 public employees	O'Reilly and Chatman's scale	Compliance commitment was not related to desire to remain. Organizational support was the most significant variable in identification commitment. Internal motivation and organizational support had a positive effect on internalization commitment. Desire to remain was mainly determined by internalization and identification commitment.
Flynn and Tannenbaum (1993)*	118 private and 139 public managers	OCQ	The existence of clarity and challenge was positively related to OC. Sector moderated the relationship between at least some job characteristics and OC.  Private sector managers reported higher levels of commitment and greater autonomy and challenge in their jobs than their public sector counterparts.
Zeffane (1994)*	1,418 employees from public and private organizations	OCQ	Results revealed higher commitment among private sector employees. The concept of OC was multidimensional, incorporating the notion of "corporate loyalty/citizenship" and the notion of "attachment to the organization." Tenure was more related to feelings of attachment to the organization, whereas supervision had effect on feelings of loyalty/citizenship.

White (1995)*	555 employees in public and private utility systems	Balfour and Wechsler scale	Private sector employees scored higher on all three types of commitment. There were no differences in the public/customer, political interference, and participation in decision-making. Balfour and Wechsler's study was not confirmed when private employees were considered.
Steinhaus and Perry (1996)*	The 1992 General Social Survey	Four items nearly identical to the OCQ	The additional variance explained by the public and private sector distinction was negligible, and no significant correlations between the sector and OC were found. The industry variable did a better job in predicting OC than did the public/private variable.
Balfour and Wechsler (1996b)	828 public employees in 12 state agencies	OCS	Participation, political penetration, supervision, and opportunity for advancement had significant direct impact on all three dimensions of OC.
Crewson (1997)*	Three secondary data (GSS, FEAS, and IEEE)	-	There were generalizable and stable differences in the reward motivations between public and private sector employees. There was also evidence that public service motivation in the federal sector was positively related to OC. Public employees have a greater potential to be duty-oriented than do their peers in the private sector.

Note. The asterisk (\*) indicates comparative studies.

Table 5 does not offer an easy summary, but challenges the analyst. Research on public employees' attitudes toward their organizations has been conducted using diverse definitions and measures — e.g., organizational identification, commitment, and involvement. Hall et al. (1970) found organizational identification of the U.S. Forest

Service to be positively related to time (career stages), commitment to a pivotal organizational goal, and personal factors such as high order need satisfaction, self-identity, and public service orientation. Hall et al. defined organizational identification as "the process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent" (177). Note that this definition is similar to O'Reilly and Chatman's Internalization Commitment.

Buchanan (1974) compared OC of public and private managers. Buchanan (1974) defined commitment as "a complex attitude which can be parceled into three components: (a) a sense of identification with the organizational mission, (b) a sense of involvement or psychological immersion in one's organizational duties, and (c) a sense of loyalty and affection for the organization, indicated by an unwillingness to depart for other opportunities" (340). Note that the first component is identical to Hall et al.'s definition of organizational identification. Thus, organizational identification is a component of OC in Buchanan's standpoint. OC is a more complex concept in that it includes identification and extends to affective attachment (Romzek & Hendricks, 1982).

Romzek and Hendricks (1982) studied organizational involvement, which they argue is more complex than the other two constructs in that it encompasses both behavioral and cognitive components. Although they adopted items that Buchanan (1974) used, their conceptualization is not identical to Buchanan's. While Buchanan's measure includes a component of job involvement, commitment in Romzek and Hendricks' study has work organization as the exclusive focus of attachment (Romzek, 1985a). In addition, involvement in Romzek and Hendricks' conceptualization represents a continuum of psychological attachment to the organization that ranges from high positive

(commitment) to high negative (alienation). In this sense, the concept of involvement as an attitude is broader than commitment alone. To Romzek, commitment is only the positive end of the dimension.

However, since the late 1970s, most studies on OC of public employees has relied on the OCQ developed by Porter et al. (1974). Recently, like the OC research in the private sector, several studies have adopted the multi-base OC approaches (Balfour & Wechsler, 1991; White, 1995; Kacmer et al., 1999).

As Table 5 also illustrates, comparative OC research is not only relatively small but also has yielded inconsistent results. In an early effort, Buchanan (1974) reported that federal executives expressed lower OC than executives from private firms. Zeffane (1994) supported the same point via an analysis of survey responses from 1,418 Australian employees in both public and private sector organizations. These findings were also echoed by other comparative studies (Chubb & Moe, 1990; Flynn & Tannenbaum, 1993; White, 1995), supporting the view that public sector employees are less committed and more security-oriented than private sector employees.

However, several empirical studies reported contrasting results (Balfour & Wechsler, 1990; Cho, 1992; Crewson, 1997; Steinhaus & Perry, 1996;). Using the 1991 General Social Survey, for example, Steinhaus and Perry (1996) found that public sector employees show no significant difference from private sector employees on a measure of OC. Using a Korean sample, Cho (1992) also reported no significant difference in the OC levels between public and private employees. In a comprehensive fashion, Baldwin (1991) concluded that public employees were equally committed to their organizations

and suggested debunking the conventional view of the negative stereotypes of public employees.

What factors help account for such indeterminacy? Obviously, one reason involves the different OC definitions and measures used in those studies (see Table 5). Little agreement on the definitions of commitment and of consequent measures has made it difficult to compare OC among private and public sector employees. Efforts to explain the indeterminacy have been made in several directions. Some scholars have tried to explain the indeterminacy by investigating a set of factors that uniquely influence public employees' OC. For example, Romzek (1985b) argues that the public service recognition should be added to the list of antecedents of public employees' organizational involvement. Similarly, Crewson (1997) also argues that public service motivation in the federal sector was positively related to OC.

Recent empirical studies adopting multi-base OC approaches also tend in the same direction. Balfour and Wechsler (1990) reported that employment in the public sector revealed a positive association with internalization commitment (based on value and goal congruence with the organization), no correlation with compliance commitment (based on specific rewards), and a negative correlation with identification commitment (based on satisfying relationship). Although insufficient, these results suggest that OC in the public sector can be understood in a way different from previous studies like Buchanan's (1974).

Consequently, this study argues that, in order to understand OC in the public sector, it is worthwhile to pay attention to unique factors and also to highlight the possibility that there is a mechanism of employee–organization linkage in the public

sector that differs from that in the private sector. One strategy is to concentrate on several focal variables, which are important in both the OC and the public–private distinction literature (see Chapter 3).

### Organizational Commitment of Korean Employees

Regardless of the attention that it has received in the American setting, research on OC outside of the U.S. is still at its early stage (Randall, 1993). Articles examining OC from a cross-cultural perspective have just recently begun to appear in academic journals (Randall, 1993). Through a computerized literature search for the period from the late sixties to 1993, Randall (1993) found only 27 empirical studies investigating OC in a setting outside of the U.S., or in a comparative and cross–cultural context across two or more cultures or countries.

It is appropriate here to remember Hofstede's (1980) warning against the assumption of general validity of culturally restricted findings. Management theories and generalizations developed in one setting may not be automatically applicable to other cultures (Cohen, 1993; Randall, 1993; Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994). From a cultural determinist standpoint, concepts, theories, and practices developed in one culture cannot be applied universally. In contrast, the theory of societal convergence argues that technology rather than culture plays a key role in determining worker attitudes and thus workers everywhere evolve similar patterns of work attitudes (Bae & Chung, 1997). This line of reasoning suggests that work attitudes in other cultural settings may resemble those of the United States.

Although Randall's (1993) study provides a good overview of research on OC outside the U.S. setting, it does not provide sufficient information on empirical research

on OC among Korean employees. Indeed, it includes only one empirical study on OC of Korean employees (Luthans et al., 1985). This section deals with the present state of OC research on Korean employees. More specifically, what sorts of measurements and variables (antecedents, correlates, and consequences) have been explored and validated in Korean settings? Furthermore, do empirical findings on Korean workers generally support the applicability of the concepts developed in the U.S.? What kinds of factors or variables that are culturally unique in Korean settings have been investigated? And what are these findings?

For this purpose, a search for empirical studies on Korean employees' OC was conducted, using both computer and manual methods. The target of the computerized search was empirical studies that were reported in English and that investigated OC in the Korean context, or in a cross-cultural context (across two or more cultures or countries). In contrast to Randall (1993), this study includes the unpublished doctoral dissertations that were identified by the computerized literature search. The search proved useful. Ultimately, 20 empirical studies (9 published articles and 11 unpublished doctoral dissertations) in English were identified (see Yoon, 2002).

### An Overview

Diverse Korean samples have been surveyed for OC — doctors, nurses, teachers, bank employees, researchers, automobile workers, public managers, and so on. In general, most studies focus on business sector employees' OC and relatively few (5 of 20) studies have been conducted on public sector employees. This study found only one empirical study that compared OC of Korean public employees to that of their private sector

counterparts (Cho, 1992). Cho (1992) reported almost equal mean scores of OC for both Korean public and private employees.

This study also identified four cross-cultural studies that surveyed employees in two or more countries (Lee, 2000; Luthans et al., 1985; Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994). When it comes to the levels of OC in two or more countries, the findings are mixed. Luthans et al. (1985) and Riordan and Vandenberg (1994) reported that the Korean employees were lower on OC than American workers. However, Oh (1995) reported that American employees showed a lower level of attitudinal OC than Korean employees. On the other hand, Lee (2000) found no significant difference in OC between Korean and American public employees. Due to differences of the measurement and samples used in those studies (see next section), however, it is not easy to pinpoint factors that influenced those mixed results.

In addition to paying attention to cultural factors (see also following section), one way to answer those mixed results would be to conceptualize OC as composed of commitments to multiple foci (Reichers, 1985). Indeed, Lee (2000) found that Korean public employees scored significantly higher on their commitment to their managerial-level group, while they scored significantly lower on their commitment to supervisor.

#### Measurements of OC

In terms of the measurements of OC, the Korean experience is very similar to the American experience. Twelve of the 20 studies (60%) have used the OCQ as their instruments for measuring OC. In Korean samples, the OCQ has shown acceptable levels of internal consistency reliabilities with a range of .75 to .89; the lone exception was Riordan and Vandenberg's study (1994), which reported .51.

One of the issues surrounding the OCQ is its dimensionality (see previous sections). Again, this situation is similar in the Korean samples. In a cross-cultural study, Luthans et al. (1985) found one factor for the OCQ in both American and Japanese samples, but two factors in the Korean sample where the second factor was associated with most negatively-worded items. They indicated that Korean employees had difficulty in responding to the negatively-worded items. Cho (1992), however, reported that the OCQ showed uni-dimensionality in a Korean sample. In addition, in a more methodologically complicated study, Riordan and Vandenberg (1994) provided evidence for the equality of factor forms in the OCQ in both American and Korean samples, suggesting that Americans and Koreans seemed to use a similar conceptual frame of reference in responding to the OCQ items, although Americans and Koreans differently calibrated the true scores underlying the items of the OCQ. This tendency toward agreement may be artifactual, however, because a variety of versions of the OCQ have been used in studies on OC of Korean employees. The OCQ consists of fifteen statements. However, only five studies on OC of Korean employees adopted the fifteen-item version of the OCQ. Others utilized the shorter (9, 8, 6, 4, 3-item) versions of the OCQ (Rahim, Antonioni, Psenicka, Kim, & Khan, 1999).

Recently, some Korean researchers have examined the applicability of the multi-base OC model proposed by Meyer and Allen (1997) to Korean samples, even though the evidence for its psychometric soundness remains unclear. Ko, Price, and Muller (1997) reported that, although Meyer and Allen's three scales had acceptable convergent validity in Korean samples, the reliability of the CCS was low ( $\alpha = .64$ ) and the ACS and the NCS lacked discriminant validity. This result is similar to the findings obtained in North

America (Morrow, 1993). In contrast to McGee and Ford (1987), however, the CCS scale was found to be uni-dimensional. The construct validities of the ACS and NCS were supported, whereas that of the CCS was not. Their findings were replicated in Jung's (1999) research. Then, the three-component model of OC does not seem generalizable to Korean employees.

However, several concerns are raised on the question of the demise of Meyer and Allen's scale. Some studies in the Korean setting also found that the reliabilities of the CCS scale were acceptable in Korean samples with a range of .77 to .84 (Chang, 1999; Kwon, 2001; Lee, Allen, Meyer, & Rhee, 2001; Oh, 1995). In addition, the results of a confirmatory factor analysis conducted by Lee et al. (2001) supported Meyer and Allen's 3-bases OC model in which the CCS was divided into the two subdimensions (low alternatives and high sacrifices). They argue that the three-component model of OC is meaningful and can be adequately applicable in Korean settings. Further examination of the three-component model of OC in a variety of samples is needed.

#### Antecedents, Correlates, and Consequences of OC

The literature of OC provides 'a long laundry list' of variables that are associated with OC directly or indirectly (Morrow, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). A variety of variables associated with OC have also been tested in the Korean context (Yoon, 2002). At the risk of overstatement, almost all the variables reported in the meta-analysis conducted by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) have been tested in Korea and their universality has been generally affirmed. As Randall (1993) found in her cross-cultural research, in addition, most studies in the Korean setting have also focused on the antecedents that influence OC rather than on the consequences to which OC may lead. However, efforts to

investigate the impact that OC has on individual behaviors as well as on organizational productivity are increasing.

When it comes to age, findings in Korean samples generally support the conclusion that older workers become more committed to their organizations (see Table 6). As in the U.S., the effect of gender on OC appears to be less consistent. Roughly speaking, however, women tend to be more committed to an organization. Most researchers reported inverse relationships between education and OC. When it comes to marital status, three empirical studies found significant but mixed results. Other demographic variables such as organizational tenure, pay level, and job level showed positive relations with OC, which is consistent with the findings obtained in North America.

When it comes to variables associated with role-states (role ambiguity, role conflicts, and role overload), job characteristics (skill variety and task autonomy), and group/leader relation (group cohesiveness and leader consideration), the applicability of those variables to Korean settings is quite clear. Each variable showed the direction and magnitude of its association with OC, which is readily comparable to empirical findings in North America.

Overall, the effect of organizational size on OC is far from being clear (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). In the literature of OC, some researchers suggest that larger organizations tend to be less personal and harder to identify with. However, other observers indicate that larger organizations may increase the chances of promotions and other forms of intrinsic and extrinsic benefits. The findings in Korea also show mixed results. Yoon, Baker, and Ko (1994) reported a positive effect of size on commitment,

which is the opposite of Sommer, Bae, and Luthans 's (1996) finding. The relationship of centralization to OC is also unclear in Korean samples, which is similar to the findings in North America. These mixed results between organizational characteristics and OC might suggest that, in forming attitudes toward an organization, employees are simply more attuned to their work experiences than to less tangible macrolevel variables (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Possibly, stronger relations between organizational characteristics and OC would be observed if they were examined by using an organizational level of analysis instead of (as is usual) an individual level of analysis.

Table 6. Antecedents of Organizational Commitment in Korean Settings

Variables	Findings in Korean Settings	Mathieu & Zajac (1990)
Age	Luthans et al. (b = .13), Tak (r = .24), Cho (r = .17), Han (r = .23), Yoon et al. (r = .20, b = .01), Kang (r = .30, b = .22), Sommer et al. (r = .23, b = .18), and Lee (b = -.55, b = -.51 <sup>cs</sup> , b = -.19 <sup>cm</sup> )	.201
Gender	Tak (r = -.27), Yoon et al. (r = .07, b = -.14), Kang (r = .20), Oh (r = -.28, r = .23 <sup>c</sup> ), Ko et al. (B = .09 <sup>c</sup> ), and Jo (r = -.16, B = -.16)	-.145
Education	Tak (r = .17), Paik (r = -.20, b = -.11), Yoon et al. (r = .10, b = -.05), Kang (r = -.17, b = -.15), Ko et al. (B = .07 <sup>a</sup> ), Lee (b = .28, b = .49 <sup>cs</sup> , b = .27 <sup>cm</sup> ), Kim (b = -.04), and Lee et al. (r = .19 <sup>c</sup> )	-.092
Marital Status	Tak (r = -.17), Yoon et al. (r = .09), and Han (r = .18)	.106
Organizational Tenure	Luthans et al. (b = .12), Tak (r = .20), Han (r = .16, b = .02), Jo (r = .12), Kang (r = .30), Chang (r = .19 <sup>a</sup> ), Ko et al. (B = .13 <sup>a</sup> ), and Lee (b = .04, b = .04 <sup>cs</sup> , b = .02 <sup>cm</sup> )	.170
Pay	Tak (r = .28), Han (r = .14), Yoon et al. (r = .21, b = .16), and Jo (r = .16), Kim (b = -.06)	.182
Protestant Work Ethic	Tak (r = .40)	.289
Job Level	Tak (r = .25), Paik (r = -.12), Yoon et al. (r = .21, b = .05), and Sommer et al. (r = .25, b = .12)	.178
Role Ambiguity	Tak (r = -.33), Cho (r = -.27), Han (r = -.29), and Jo (r = -.19)	-.218
Role Conflict	Tak (r = -.40, B = -.10) and Jo (r = -.19)	-.271
Role Overload	Han (r = -.13) and Jo (r = -.22)	-.206
Skill Variety	Tak (r = .45)	.207
Task Autonomy	Tak (r = .48), Han (r = .30), and Jo (r = .21)	.083

Group Cohesiveness	Tak (r = .32), Cho (r = .25, r = .64), Kang (r = .26)	.149
Leader Consideration	Tak (r = .41) and Kang (r = .33)	.335
Organization Size	Yoon et al. (r = .16, b = .17) and Sommer et al. (r = .26, b = -.09)	-.001
Centralization	Tak (r = .44), Cho (r = -.26), Paik (r = -.23, b = -.24), and Kang (r = -.26, b = -.19)	-.061

Note : a = Affective Commitment, c = Continuance Commitment, n = Normative

Commitment, cs = commitment to supervisor, cm = commitment to managerial-level group, r = a Pearson correlation coefficient, b = a regression or LISREL-estimated coefficient, B = a standardized regression or LISREL-estimated coefficient ( $p < .05$ )

Both the directions and magnitudes of the correlations between OC and its correlates (internal motivation, job involvement, occupational commitment, job satisfaction, supervision satisfaction, promotion satisfaction, coworkers satisfaction, pay satisfaction, and work satisfaction) are highly comparable with those that empirical findings in America have shown (see Table 7). The direction of correlations is uniformly positive. When compared to those of the antecedents, the magnitudes of the correlates are larger. Findings in the Korean setting consistently show strong correlations between OC and job satisfaction, which range from .36 to .79.

Table 7. Correlates of Organizational Commitment in Korean Settings

Variables	Findings in Korean Settings	Mathieu & Zajac (1990)
Internal Motivation	Tak (r = .31) and Cho (r = .16 — achievement needs)	.668

Job Involvement	Ko et al. (B = .17 <sup>a</sup> )	.439
Occupational Commitment	Jo (r = .32, B = .11) and Chang (r = .45 <sup>a</sup> , r = .17 <sup>c</sup> )	.438
Job Satisfaction	Han (r = .63, b = .37), Paik (r = .36), Jo (r = .40), Oh (r = .63), and Kim (r = .79)	.533
Supervision Satisfaction	Tak (r = .43), Cho (r = .31), and Oh (r = .42)	.409
Coworkers Satisfaction	Tak (r = .27), Cho (r = .27), and Oh (r = .39)	.348
Promotion Satisfaction	Tak (r = .46), Cho (r = .37), and Oh (r = .40, r = -.11 <sup>c</sup> )	.392
Pay Satisfaction	Tak (r = .42), Cho (r = .25), Paik (r = .28, b = .28), and Oh (r = .25)	.323
Work Satisfaction	Tak (r = .54, B = .18), Cho (r = .48, B = .27), and Oh (r = .48, r = -.13 <sup>c</sup> )	.595

Note : a = Affective Commitment, c = Continuance Commitment, n = Normative

Commitment, cs = commitment to supervisor, cm = commitment to managerial-level group, r = a Pearson correlation coefficient, b = a regression or LISREL–estimated coefficient, B = a standardized regression or LISREL–estimated coefficient ( $p < .05$ )

Generally, the literature of OC shows that among the potential consequences that OC may lead to, behavioral intentions, in particular, intention to leave, have been widely investigated with the potentiality that those intentions mediate the influence of OC on actual behaviors (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Few studies report the influence of commitment on actual behaviors such as performance, attendance (or absenteeism), lateness, and turnover, which makes it almost impossible to draw definite conclusions about the relationship between OC and actual work behaviors (see Table 8). The directions and magnitudes of the correlations between OC and its consequences — e.g., intent to leave, intention to search, attendance, and turnover — are relatively clear and

robust in Korean settings. Two studies reported modest associations of OC with organizational citizenship behaviors (Jung, 1999; Lee, 2000).

Table 8. Consequences of Organizational Commitment in Korean Settings

Variables	Findings in Korean Settings	Mathieu & Zajac (1990)
Job performance	Tak (r = .30 — self-rated)	.135 (others' rating)
Perceived Job Alternatives	Jung (r = .54, r = .39 <sup>a</sup> , r = .46 <sup>c</sup> , r = .41 <sup>n</sup> - lack of alternatives), and Lee et al. (r = .78 <sup>c</sup> — low alternatives)	-.085
Intention to Search	Ko et al. (b = -.47 <sup>a</sup> , b = -.28 <sup>c</sup> , b = -.45 <sup>n</sup> — search behavior), and Kim (r = -.58 - search behavior)	-.599
Intention to Leave (or stay)	Tak (r = -.51), Jo (r = .16 — intention to stay), Oh (r = -.57, r = -.12 <sup>c</sup> ), Ko et al. (b = .59 <sup>a</sup> , b = .22 <sup>c</sup> , b = .65 <sup>n</sup> — intention to stay), Chang (r = -.66 <sup>a</sup> , r = -.39 <sup>c</sup> ), Lee (b = -.09, b = -.06 <sup>cm</sup> ), Kim (r = .76 — intention to stay), and Lee et al. (r = -.44, r = -.27 <sup>c</sup> , r = -.37 <sup>n</sup> , b = -.31, b = -.21 <sup>c</sup> , b = -.16 <sup>n</sup> )	-.464
Attendance	Tak (r = -.41 — absenteeism) and Lee (b = -.81, b = -1.14 <sup>cs</sup> — absenteeism)	.102
Lateness	Oh (r = -.18)	-.116
Turnover	Oh (r = -.34, r = -.11 <sup>c</sup> )	-.277
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Jung (r = .39, r = .40 <sup>a</sup> , r = .19 <sup>c</sup> , r = .32 <sup>n</sup> ) and Lee (b = .15, b = .30 <sup>cm</sup> )	

Note: a = Affective Commitment, c = Continuance Commitment, n = Normative

Commitment, cs = commitment to supervisor, cm = commitment to managerial-level

group, r = a Pearson correlation coefficient, b = a regression or LISREL-estimated

coefficient, B = a standardized regression or LISREL-estimated coefficient (p < .05)

### Cultural Contexts

Researchers have paid attention to unique factors influencing cross-cultural differences in the levels of OC such as the influence of culture on OC. Culture may influence individuals' responses to the environment in profound ways. The rationale is obvious: culture is rooted in the values shared by the members of a human group. Researchers point out such cultural characteristics presumably influencing OC of Korean employees as pervasive organizational paternalism, authoritative relations between supervisors and subordinates, interpersonal behaviors deeply rooted in emotional sensitivity, tabooed materialism, a high degree of sense of belonging and loyalty, excessive formalism, high respect for the public service, extensive informal communication, collectivism, and Confucianism (Cho, 1980; Kang, 1995; Ko, 1996).

Despite a long list of the cultural characteristics believed to be unique and influential in the Korean setting, only two cultural variables have been tested empirically — the Confucian work ethic (Tak, 1991) and the dimension of individualism-collectivism (Oh, 1995). Tak (1991) developed a twelve-item scale — the Confucian Work Ethic — and tested its association with OC. Coefficient alpha of the scale was .71. As the evidence for its construct validity, he reported that the scale was correlated with loyalty ( $r = .54$ ) and turnover intentions ( $r = -.31$ ). He also found that the Confucian Work Ethic was the most important variable in explaining both OC ( $r = .72$ ,  $B = .31$ ) and job involvement ( $r = .73$ ,  $B = .32$ ). However, no research has replicated his findings.

The dimension of individualism-collectivism is drawn from Hofstede's Value Survey Module (VSM). The VSM consists of four common dimensions — power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity vs. femininity, and individualism vs.

collectivism — across which the culture of a country can be manifested. For example, the VSM scores of Korea are 18 (individualism/collectivism with high scores indicating greater individualism), 60 (power distance with high scores indicating greater acceptance of power distances), 39 (masculinity/femininity with high scores indicating acceptance of masculine work goals), and 85 (uncertainty avoidance with high scores indicating high levels of uncertainty avoidance) on a scale of 1 to 100.

Among those four dimensions, the dimension of individualism versus collectivism has received special attention from OC researchers (Randall, 1993; Oh, 1995; Vandenberghe, 1996; Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994). One would imagine that employees in collectivist cultures (e.g., Korea and Japan) would reflect higher levels of OC than employees in individualistic cultures (e.g., the U.S.) would do. Based on Hofstede's data, Korea and Japan can be classified as collectivistic with scores of 18 and 46, respectively. On the other hand, the U.S. with a score of 91 is the most individualistic of the 50 countries included in his study (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994).

Some studies on the cultural features, that leave their imprints on Korean organizations and their employees, support the view of conceiving of Korean employees as collectivist rather than individualist. Cha (1994) conducted a study to define the specific components of Korean culture and to examine changes in the culture on the individualism–collectivism dimension. Through a factor analysis, Cha (1994) found in-group favoritism and family–centeredness across ages. Cha (1994) also found that in addition to extended family or clan, which serves as the primary in–group in traditional Korean collectivism, school was a new in–group for the younger respondents.

Ko (1996) also pays attention to the collectivistic features of Korean society. The place of the individual in society is largely negligible and more emphasis is placed on the group. In such a society, there is an urge for people to be loyal to the groups to which they belong, and to sacrifice for their groups. In general, these elements are believed to be associated with Confucianism, which widely influences many Asian countries (Kang, 1995; Ko, 1996).

Following this line of reasoning, Oh (1995) conducted a cross-cultural study and explicitly included the dimension of individualists versus collectivists to investigate the effect of cultural context on job satisfaction, OC, and career commitment. Using Korean and American samples, she originally hypothesized that job satisfaction was more relevant to individualists (i.e. Americans), whereas OC is more applicable to collectivists (i.e. Koreans). In contrast to her hypothesis, however, she found that OC is more predictive of withdrawal for individualists than for collectivists. While discussing these unexpected results, Oh (1995) suggested that the result might be due to the fact that employees' expectations for the organization differ between individualistic and collectivistic cultures. Generally, this issue remains unsolved and requires further study.

Lee's (2000) study also deserves attention here from a different perspective. Following recent advocacy for the multi-focus commitment approaches, several researchers also emphasize the need to pay attention to "commitment to what" in a cross-cultural context (Besser, 1993; Cole, Kalleberg, & Lincoln, 1993; Chen & Francesco, 2000). Besser (1993) argues, "The committed behavior of the Japanese workers is partially explained by the presence of the work group, family, and community, rather than strong attitudes of commitment to the organization" (879). In a similar vein, Chen

and Francesco (2000) demonstrate that under the influences of traditional Chinese culture — i.e. *quanxi*, or personal relationship network — OC of Chinese employees was highly based on loyalty to the boss or supervisor. Given that Korean employees are under similar cultural influence (e.g. Confucianism), their empirical finding has some implications for OC research among Korean employees.

Responding to the call for more attention to the multi-faceted nature of commitment, Lee (2000) conducted a cross-cultural study with American and Korean samples. He found that the three foci (organization, supervisor, and managerial-level group) were differently associated with other key variables in both the U.S. and Korea, demonstrating the value of distinctions among individual foci of commitment to explain variance in key variables beyond that explained by commitment to organization. For one thing, the major factor affecting an employee's willingness to support productivity improvement strategies was commitment to supervisor in the U.S., while commitment to the managerial-level group was the major factor in Korea. Compared to American public managers, Korean public managers were significantly higher on the commitment to their managerial-level group and lower on commitment to supervisor. Interestingly, this finding is contrary to Chen and Francesco's (2000) finding in the Chinese context.

Combining this result with Oh's (1995) finding, one potential explanation is that the collectivistic nature of Korea culture may be more easily manifested in small groups or coworker relationships than in the supervisor-subordinate relationships. Research on individual foci of commitment in Korea is at best in its nascent stage and denies any conclusion, however. Further research efforts on the topic of "commitment to what and to whom" are much needed in the Korean setting.

## Summary

Despite the attractiveness of the basic view that management theories developed in one setting may not be automatically applicable to other cultures, research on OC outside of the U.S. is in its early stages. As Randall (1993) reports, empirical studies on commitment of the Korean employees published in academic journals are very few. An independent search as part of this dissertation found substantially more cases, but the total remains small. This study identified twenty empirical studies in the Korean setting with the help of both computer-based and manual methods.

Among those twenty studies, four are cross-cultural in nature. The OCQ has been the most popular instrument of OC and has shown a relatively good track record on its psychometric properties in Korean settings. Recently, efforts have also been made to examine the applicability of Meyer and Allen's three-component model in Korean samples. Its applicability is now far from clear, however.

A variety of variables have been tested in Korean contexts with more focus on antecedents than on consequences of commitment. At the risk of overstatement, the applicability of key constructs developed in the U.S. has been affirmed. On the other hand, scholarly efforts to investigate the cultural factors that are unique and influential in the Korean setting have also been made, albeit few. Due to the paucity of empirical studies on those unique cultural factors, however, one cannot draw serious conclusions from them.

Based the review on the OC research in Korean settings, several research directions seem strategic. First of all, more research on public employees' commitment is needed because OC in the Korean public sector has not been investigated as thoroughly

as in the Korean private sector. In particular, comparative studies that investigate the potentially different mechanisms of OC sector by sector are few. This paper identified only one comparative study (Cho, 1992).

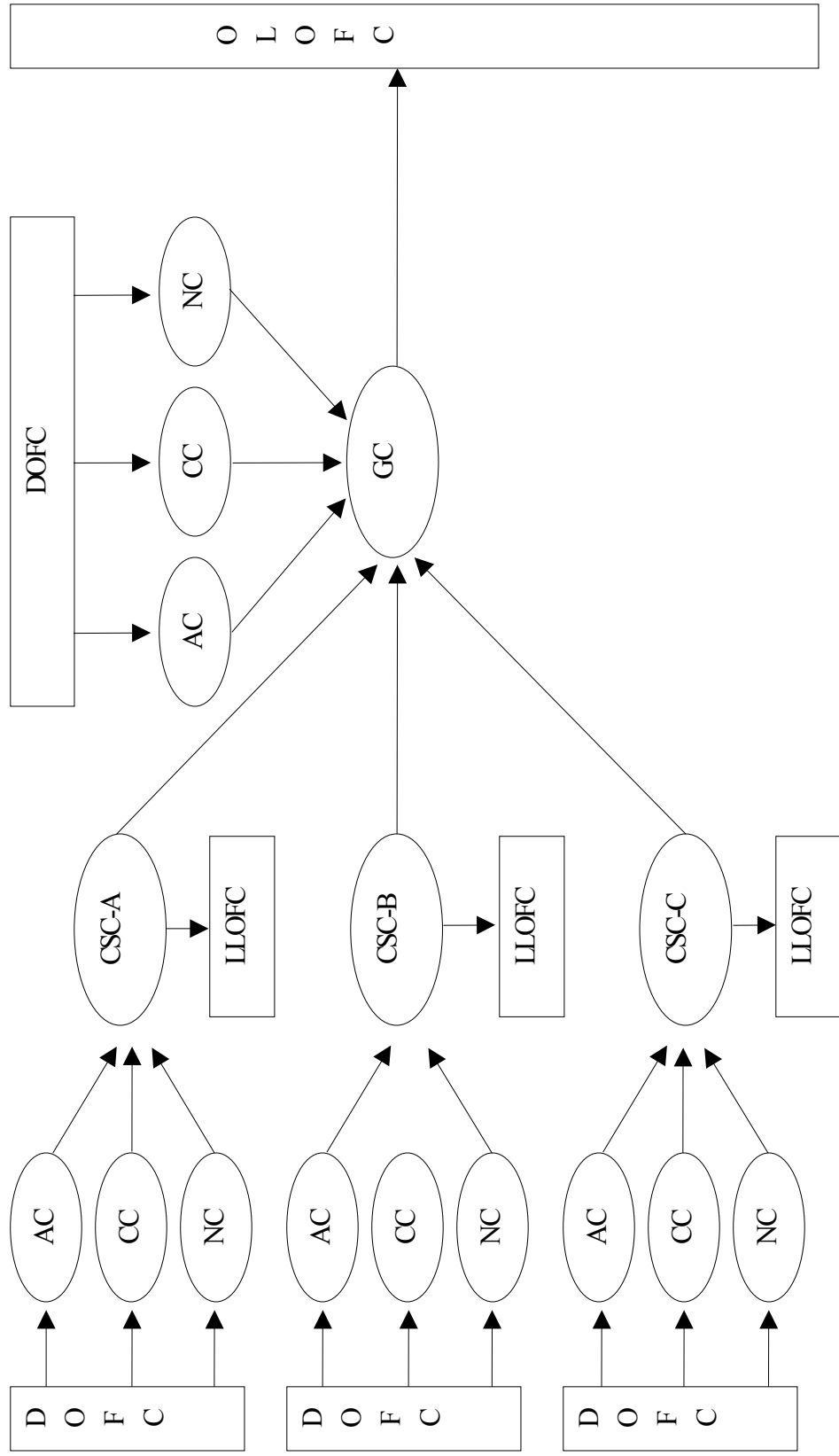
Second, in order to investigate the cultural influences on OC, if any, the inclusion of the individual–collectivism dimension as an explicit variable in empirical studies also seems sound. It may help us understand and interpret the research results from a cross–cultural perspective (Randall, 1993). Third, the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approaches now receiving increasing attention in U.S. settings also deserve more attention in the Korean setting. Combined with the dimension of individualism–collectivism, the decomposition of the concept of OC into its multi–dimensions and foci may help more clearly understand the OC of Korean employees.

## CHAPTER 3

### DEVELOPMENT OF MODELS AND HYPOTHESES

This dissertation has a complex reach-and-grasp. To prepare the reaches somewhat, chapter 3 deals with models and hypotheses. Chapter 3 is composed of five sections including the final section, a summary. The first section of this chapter presents a basic model (see Figure 2) directing this study, with special attention to definitions and measurements of OC, integration of multi-base and multi-focus approaches, and relationships between global commitment (the traditional OC) and constituency-specific commitments (commitment to a specific focus — such as top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers). The first section suggests five hypotheses.

In the second section, five submodels are presented to validate the basic model in ‘nomological net’ (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955), which includes models of global commitment, top management commitment, supervisor commitment, coworker commitment, and citizens/customers commitment. In addition, fifty-five hypotheses are also tested. The third section is devoted to testing hypotheses regarding public and private distinction. The basic question examined in this section is that public employees have different levels and patterns — i.e. foci and bases — of OC. In this section, a total of five hypotheses are examined. The fourth section deals with hypotheses regarding Public Service Motivation (PSM) and the individualism-collectivism dimension. The themes and their rationales need major development as below.



**Figure 2. A Basic Model of Organizational Commitment**

Note: AC (Affective Commitment), NC (Normative Commitment), CC (Continuance Commitment), CSC (Constituency-specific Commitment), GC (Global Commitment), OLOFC (Organizational Level Outcomes of Commitment), LLOFC (Local Level Outcomes of Commitment), DOFC (Determinants of Commitment)

### A Basic Model and Hypotheses

This study explicitly deals with OC among public and private employees using a framework that combines the bases and foci of OC in order to know whether public employees manifest different patterns of the bases and foci of OC compared with their private counterparts. Figure 2 shows a basic theoretical model directing this study.

Concepts and assumptions in the basic model are drawn from previous empirical and theoretical studies (Becker, 1992; Becker & Billings, 1993; Becker et al., 1996; Yoon et al., 1994; Zaccaro & Dobbins, 1989; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Kingsford, 1995).

### Definitions and Measures of Organizational Commitment

This study defines commitment to an entity as a psychological state that characterizes the person's relationship with the entity in question (Becker et al., 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997). This study takes the position that ‘willingness to act on behalf of an entity’ is a correlate or an outcome, not an element of commitment. In addition, the notion of ‘intent to stay’ is excluded from the concept of commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Suszko, 1990).

This study also posits that commitment to an entity can be based on three bases: calculative (or utilitarian), affective (or emotional), and normative (or moral). As Table 2 and 3 show, so far, no conceptualizations or measurements of multi-base OC approaches have dominated the field. This dissertation intends to break this log-jam.

More details help frame this analysis. There remain subtle similarities and differences among the multi-base commitment approaches. Clearly, they all advocate for the 3-component commitment models, which basically resemble Kanter (1968). In

addition, all approaches treat subdimensions as bases (or components), not as different types of OC.

However, some differences about the bases essential for OC are also clear. First, Meyer and Allen's ACS is a very broad concept that encompasses some components of both cohesion and control commitment from Kanter (or identification and internalization commitment by O'Reilly and Chatman). This explains why high conceptual and empirical associations between the OCQ and the ACS have been reported (Morrow, 1993). In addition, the NCS leans too much toward capturing 'intent to stay', a consequence of OC, and leads to the inflation of the association between the NCS and 'intent to remain.'

Second, in contrast to other scales — i.e., Kanter's cohesion commitment, O'Reilly and Chatman's compliance scale, and Meyer and Allen's continuance scale — Balfour and Wechsler's exchange commitment scale explicitly includes intrinsic rewards as well as extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic rewards refer to rewards intrinsic to the individual and stemming directly from job performance itself, which satisfy higher-order needs such as self-esteem and self actualization — for example, feelings of accomplishment and of using and developing one's skills and abilities. On the other hand, extrinsic rewards refer to rewards extrinsic to the individual, part of the job situation, given by others (Rainey, 1997). By this explicit inclusion, exchange commitment has a high level of conceptual overlap with identification and affiliation commitment. Illustratively, Kacmar et al. (1999) report standardized path coefficients among three factors with a range of .70 to .87 and also report that exchange commitment has correlations with identification (.55) and affiliation commitment (.71).

With these conceptual enrichments in mind, this study defines each base of commitment as Table 9 shows. This study used items selected from the existing scales, instead of relying on one of the scales discussed above. Also note that these elaborated definitions open the possibility of multiple foci of each commitment. Thus, this study also recognizes that there are many entities (or constituencies) that can be objects of employees' commitment. Commitment foci refer to any people, programs, or collectives to which one can become psychologically attached (Becker et al., 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Table 9. Definitions of Each Base of Commitment

Bases	Definitions	References
Continuance Commitment (CC)	Commitment based on personal investment, rewards, and costs associated with membership of an entity	. Kanter's continuance commitment . O'Reilly and Chatman's compliance commitment . Meyer and Allen's continuance commitment . Balfour and Wechsler's exchange commitment
Affective Commitment (AC)	Commitment based on attachment to social relationship with an entity or a desire for affiliation	. Kanter's cohesion commitment . O'Reilly and Chatman's identification commitment . Balfour and Wechsler's affiliation commitment
Normative Commitment (NC)	Commitment based on congruence with the norms, mission, and values of an entity.	. Kanter's control commitment . O'Reilly and Chatman's internalization commitment . Balfour and Wechsler's identification commitment. . Jaros et al.'s moral commitment . Wiener and Vardi's moral commitment

Although work-related entities are of interest, the issue remains as to whether they are restricted within an organization or not. This issue is closely linked to how we view an organization (Pennings & Goodman, 1979). Pennings and Goodman (1979) view an organization as a coalitional entity. This view differs from commitment theorists' view that an organization is unitary "whole" (Reichers, 1985). This view is similar to the political economy theory of organization (Wamsley & Zald, 1973 and 1976), which suggests that organizations operate in an environment of multiple interest groups that seek conflicting goals. Based upon this view, employees are assumed to be aware of and committed to the multiple entities.

Most studies on the multiple commitments at work have focused on within-organization entities such as top management, work group, or supervisor (Becker, 1992; Becker & Billings, 1993; Becker et al., 1996; Yoon et al., 1994; Zaccaro & Dobbins, 1989). However, Reichers (1986) treated an organization as a coalition comprised of constituencies that refers to those interest groups both inside and outside the organization. Following this line of reasoning and the lead of previous research, this research assumes the existence of five foci: four internal (organization as a whole, top management, direct supervisor, and coworkers) and one external (citizens/customers).

The measures of the multi-focus commitment scale need to have the following characteristics (Kingsford, 1995). First, the instrument must measure the level of psychological attachment to each entity: citizens/customers, coworkers, the direct supervisor, top management (those leading the organization), and the organization as a whole. Second, the scale must show consistent item wording so that only the focus word

is the source of differences between subscales. Third, the instrument must show an acceptable level of reliability (normally over Cronbach alpha .70) and validity.

In order to increase face and content validity, the measures were developed from a number of items assembled from the existing commitment scales (see Table 9 and Appendix A). Because most existing scales capture commitment to an organization, the modification of wording of those existing scales was made to substitute other foci for the word "organization". Some scholars have used this method in measuring work-related commitments (Aranya et al., 1981; Brierly, 1996; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994; Wallace, 1995). For example, Aranya et al. (1981) developed their professional commitment scale by substituting the word "profession" for "organization" in the OCQ. Each item of the measures was measured on a seven-point Likert scale from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". Some researchers advocated a seven-point Likert scale in such situations as the Japanese penchant for understatement (Besser, 1993).

#### Integration of multi-base and multi-focus approaches

As Figure 2 shows, this model assumes the existence of one global commitment and four constituency-specific commitments — i.e. a total of five foci. Also it assumes that commitment to each focus has three bases — i.e. affective, continuance, and normative. In sum, it tests the existence of 15 (5X3) related but distinguishable commitments.

The integration of multi-base and multi-focus commitment approaches is based on the theoretical reasoning of Meyer and Allen (1997). This model envisions a two-dimensional matrix with the different bases of commitment along one axis and the

different foci along the other (see Figure 3). The upper row reflects the multi-base approach, whereas the first column denotes multi-focus approach.

Foci	Bases	Affective Commitment (AC)	Normative Commitment (NC)	Continuance Commitment (NC)
Organization				
Top management				
Supervisor				
Coworkers				
Citizens/customers				

Figure 3. A Conceptual Integration of Multi-base and Multi-focus Approaches

Note: Shaded cells denote the existence of empirical evidence (Reichers, 1986; Zaccaro & Dobbins, 1989; Suszko, 1990; Becker, 1992; Becker & Billings, 1993; Gregersen, 1993; Yoon et al., 1994; Kingsford, 1995).

Source: Adapted from Meyer and Allen (1997).

Including more than one commitment in a single data collection effort entails a number of conceptual and methodological problems — e.g., concept redundancy and construct validity — deficiency, and contamination. One such problem is whether respondents are sufficiently sensitive to allow them to report multiple work commitments accurately within a single data collection format (Morrow et al., 1991). A halo effect may inflate the reported relationships among some commitments.

However, albeit preliminary, some studies report that respondents had no particular difficulty completing measures of commitment to a variety of foci (Becker, 1992; Brooks et al., 1988; Reichers, 1986). Becker et al. (1996) reported that respondents could distinguish between commitment to supervisor and commitment to organization, and between identification and internalization as bases of commitment to these two foci. Then, it may be possible "to measure the different forms of commitment to each of the various constituencies and to enter a value into each cell in the matrix to reflect an employee's multidimensional commitment profiles" (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p.20).

However, as the shaded cells in Figure 3 also show, this does not guarantee that each commitment to all the various constituencies has three components of commitment without exception. Via a series of factor analyses, Becker (1992) developed eight scales assessing the bases and foci of commitment; identification and internalization with respect to organization, supervisor, and work group; normative commitment to top management, and overall compliance commitment, without regard to foci. However, the results need further validation through replication.

In order to test the basic model in Figure 2, several hypotheses were made.

H1: Employees can distinguish global commitment — i.e. commitment to organization — and four constituency-specific commitments — i.e. commitment to top management, commitment to supervisor, commitment to coworkers, and commitment to citizens/customers.

H2: Each commitment — i.e. global commitment and four constituency-specific commitments — has three bases of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative

H3: The basic model is superior to the OCQ in explaining variances in organization–level outcome variables — e.g., extra-role behavior for organization, withdrawal intention from organization, search behavior, and external whistle–blowing. This hypothesis intends to discover whether the inclusion of five foci commitments explains more variances than the OCQ alone does.

#### Relationship between Global and Constituency–Specific Commitments

The model in Figure 2 also indicates positive relations between global commitment and multiple commitments. Several empirical studies have been devoted to this issue. Although constituency–specific commitments need attention, the value of global commitment should not be disregarded (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Kingsford, 1995).

One characteristic of the basic model in Figure 2 is that it basically assumes few conflicts between global commitment and other consistency–specific commitments. This position is in contrast to Reichers (1985). However, obviously, the zero–sum view — i.e. one cannot be loyal to both one's profession and one's organization at the same time — is not always the case. It is quite plausible to reason that employees feel committed to both or neither of these entities (Allen, Wilder, & Atkinson, 1983; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Becker & Billings, 1993; Thoits, 1983; Yoon et al., 1994). Allen et al. (1983) suggest that concordant identities associated with multiple group membership are probably more common than discordant identities in real work settings.

The assumption that concordant identities are more common and thus that there are virtually no conflicts among multiple commitments also is related to the nested character of some identities. Within an organization, it seems reasonable to assume that conflicts between work group, departmental, divisional, and organizational commitments

are somewhat constrained by the nested character of these commitments (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). The assumption of the nested relationship among constituencies raises a concern about the "dependencies" which might exist among multiple commitments—i.e. the discriminant validity problem in a psychometric sense. In figure 3, an employee's commitment profiles can be conceived as the degrees of affective, continuance, and normative commitment that he or she feels to each of several entities. However, it does not mean that each cell is independent from other cells. That's because some constituencies are nested in larger domains — e.g., work groups in an organization) (Lawler, 1992; Abrahamson & Anderson, 1984). Thus far, however, few empirical efforts have been made to understand the nested nature of constituencies and the dependencies among multiple commitments.

Some sense of these probably significant relationships can be suggested briefly. For example, Yoon et al. (1994) found that interpersonal attachment among employees in local work units had a positive effect on commitment to the work organization. These researchers suggest that, in particular, a highly centralized organization may have little conflict among commitments. Illustratively, an employee who has a strong affective commitment to his/her work group may feel continuance commitment to the organization in that he or she wants to keep his or her membership in the group. Thus, overall levels of commitment to the organization have a positive association with overall levels of commitment to the work group. Yoon et al.'s (1994) finding mentioned above also might support this speculation. In addition, another interesting speculation is that, because of nesting, the possibility of positive relationships among multiple commitments may be high. Finally, reinforcing the nested nature of commitments within an organization, some

researchers point to intentions to avoid conflicts among employees and latent nature of conflicts as two basic grounds for the "no-conflicts-among commitments" assumption. All of these speculations, obviously, need empirical support.

H4: There are positive relationships between all constituency-specific commitments and global commitment.

The issue should not be simplified, however. Thus, Becker (1992) posits that commitment to each focus — i.e. organization, top management, supervisor, and work group — has independent effects on dependent variables such as intent to quit, intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction, and prosocial behavior. In a re-analysis of Becker's (1992) data, however, Hunter and Morgan (1994) tested two competing models — the "one of many model" and the "key mediating construct model." The former posits that global commitment and other constituency-specific commitments influence organizational outcomes independently, whereas the latter assumes that global commitment directly influences organizational outcomes and that constituency-specific commitments influence outcomes only by impacting on global commitment. Their results suggest that commitment to specific constituencies might be better viewed as influencing outcome variables indirectly through their influences on global commitment. Thus, overall commitment to the organization plays a role as a mediating variable between commitment to specific constituencies and outcome variables. Reichers (1986) also suggests that, "commitment may perhaps be most accurately understood as a general (global) *and* a specific (commitments to one or more constituencies) construct" (513; emphasis in original). However, Becker et al. (1996) provide opposing evidence, reporting that the effect of commitment to supervisors was related to performance even

after partialling out the effect of commitment to the organization.

H5: Global commitment mediates impacts of constituency-specific commitments to organization-level dependent variables (e.g., extra-role behavior for organization, withdrawal intention from an organization, search behavior, and external whistle-blowing).

### Submodels and Hypotheses

From the perspective of the unitarian conception of validity, construct validation is equivalent to theory development (Binning & Barrett, 1989). Consequently, Schwab (1980) suggests that the construct validity of a measure can be assessed by examining its correlations with other constructs and by comparing these correlations with what is expected theoretically (discriminant and convergent validity). The validity of commitment measures should be demonstrated not only by factor analysis, which is sample-specific and subject to common method error variance problems, but also by their predictive validity as well as by the differences among antecedents. Responding to Schwab's call, five submodels (see Figure 4 to 8) are made to validate the basic model in a 'nomological net' (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). A basic hypothesis seems implicit;

H6: Commitments to each of five foci (organization, top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers) have a set of determinants and consequences different from each other.

Note a later elaboration. For the purpose of testing H6, some sub-hypotheses are tested using correlation and regression analyses.

### Selection of Variables for Submodels

The OC literature provides 'a long laundry list' of variables associated with OC in one way or another (Reichers, 1985; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Thus, criteria in selecting variables to be tested should be chosen strategically. First, variables should be in a nomological network for validating the basic model that combines the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approaches. Variables that can explain the discriminant and convergent validities of the constructs were selected in these submodels. For this purpose, this study includes variables such as organization–related, top management–related, supervisor–related, coworker/group–related, and citizens/customers–related variables. General field theory suggests that psychologically proximal factors should have a dominant effect on behaviors (Becker et al., 1996; Suszko, 1990). For most employees, local foci are psychologically more proximal than global foci.

H6–1: Organization–related variables are more strongly associated with global commitment than with other constituency-specific commitments.

H6–2: Top management–related variables are more strongly associated with commitment to top management than with other constituency–specific commitment.

H6–3: Supervisor–related variables are more strongly associated with commitment to supervisor than with other constituency–specific commitment.

H6–4: Coworker–related variables are more strongly associated with commitment to coworkers than with other constituency–specific commitment.

H6–5: Citizens/customers–related variables are more strongly associated with commitment to citizens/customers than with commitment to other foci.

Second, variables that can reveal sectoral differences are also selected, e.g. perceived political influences and organizational constraints and rules. This decision is intentional because focusing on these variables may help us identify unique factors in explaining public employees' commitment. Many scholars in economics and political science have taken the position that public organizations or employees have features different from their private sector counterparts (Lindblom, 1977; Ring & Perry, 1985; Wamsley & Zald, 1976). This study identified "selective" variables that have shown empirical evidence in terms of public and private distinction. They are selective in that they are not exhaustive and were selected on the basis of their direct or indirect relation to OC. While selecting those variables, only empirical and testable findings were considered. Table 10 shows definitions and measures of variables for submodels. The items of each measure are shown in Appendix A.

Table 10. Definitions and Measures of Variables (1) — For Submodels

Variables	Definitions	Measures
Organization–Related Variables		
Organizational Support (OS)	Degree to which employees perceive their organization is helpful in performing job.	3 items from Jung (1999)
Organizational Constraints (POC)	Degree to which employees perceive the constraints, or red tape, caused by the rules and procedures created by the organization	6 items from Baldwin (1990)
Job Security (JS)	Degree to which employees perceive their organization provides stable employment for them	2 items from Ko (1995)
Pay Satisfaction (PS)	Degree to which employees are satisfied with the present level of pay compared to their efforts for the organization.	3 items from Balfour and Wechsler (1996)

Job Alternatives (JA)	Degree to which employees perceive how easily they can find other jobs with other employers with the present or better level of pay and other benefits	2 items from Balfour and Wechsler (1996)
Social Supportiveness (SS)	Extent to which employees feel their organization or their job receives the proper recognition and respect for their work from the society as a whole	3 items from Romzek (1985b) and Cho (1990)
Withdrawal intention from Organization (WIO)	Extent to which employees plan to leave their current organization	3 items from Ko (1995)
Search behavior (SB)	Extent to which employees are actively seeking another job	3 items from Ko (1995)
Extra-efforts for organization (ERO)	Willingness of employees to engage in actions or extra efforts beyond a job description for an organization	3 items from Balfour and Wechsler (1996)
External whistle-blowing Intention (EWB)	Intention to report wrongdoings within an organization to the public or other external institutions that might be able to remedy it	3 items written by author
Top Management-Related Variables		
Top Management Support (TMS)	Degree to which employees perceive top management is helpful in performing job.	3 items from Jung (1999)
Participation in Decision Making (PDM)	Level of perceived participation in decision making	2 items from Balfour and Wechsler (1996)
Political penetration (PPM)	Perceived level of political influences in management practices	2 items from Balfour and Wechsler (1996)
Interaction with Top Management (IT)	Perceived level of interaction with top management	1 item from Kingsford (1995)
Leadership Turnover (LT)	Extent to which top management in an organization changes	2 items from Baldwin (1987)
Extra-efforts for Top Management (ERT)	Willingness of employees to engage in actions or extra efforts beyond a job description for top management	3 items from Balfour and Wechsler (1996)

Supervisor–Related Variables		
Supervisor Support (PSS)	Degree to which employees perceive their supervisors are helpful in performing job.	3 items from Jung (1999)
Interaction with Supervisor (IS)	Perceived level of interaction with supervisor	1 item from Kingsford (1995)
Supervisor turnover (ST)	Extent to which an supervisor changes	1 item from Baldwin (1987)
Extra-efforts for Supervisor (ERS)	Willingness of employees to engage in actions or extra efforts beyond a job description for their supervisor	3 items from Balfour and Wechsler (1996)
Withdrawal Intention from Supervisor (WIS)	Extent to which employees plan to leave their current supervisor	3 items from Ko (1995)
Coworker–Related Variables		
Interaction with Coworkers (IC)	Perceived level of interaction with coworkers	1 item from Kingsford (1995)
Coworker turnover (CT)	Extent to which coworkers or work groups change	1 item from Baldwin (1987)
Coworker Support (CS)	Extent to which employees perceive coworkers are helpful in performing job	3 items from Jung (1999)
Extra-efforts for Coworkers (ERC)	Willingness of employees to engage in actions or extra efforts beyond a job description for coworkers	3 items from Balfour and Wechsler (1996)
Withdrawal intention (WIC)	Extent to which employees plan to leave their current coworkers or work group	3 items from Ko (1995)
Citizens/Customers–Related Variables		
Direct service to citizens/customers (DS)	Extent to which employees feel their job has significant impact to the society	2 items from Balfour and Wechsler (1996)
Interaction with citizens/customers (ICC)	Perceived level of interaction with the public and customers	1 item from Kingsford (1995)
Service Orientation (SO)	Value that employees place on helping others and engaging in meaningful public service	2 items from Rainey (1982)

Extra-efforts for citizens/customers (ERCC)	Willingness of employees to engage in actions or extra efforts beyond a job description for citizens/customers	3 items from Balfour and Wechsler (1996)
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### A Model of Global Commitment

Figure 4 shows a model of the Global Commitment (commitment to organization). As determinants of global commitment, this study included organizational support (Jung, 1999; Meyer & Allen, 1997), organizational constraints or red tape (Buchanan, 1975; Baldwin, 1990), job security (Baldwin, 1987), pay satisfaction (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996b), job alternatives (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996b; Jung, 1999) and social supportiveness (Romzek, 1985b).

Organizational support (OS) refers to the degree to which employees perceive their organization is helpful in performing their job. The underlying theory is that commitment basically comes from the exchange relationship between an organization and its employees (Mowday et al., 1982; Self, Schaninger, & Armenakis 2001). An employee experiences various tangible and intangible outcomes related to his/her organization through the daily exchange process, which triggers affective feelings toward the organization. Several empirical findings support the view that OS plays a role in the development of affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Balfour & Wechsler, 1990). Jung (1999) also reported that OS is significantly related to affective commitment among Korean workers in six organizations ( $r = .51$ ).

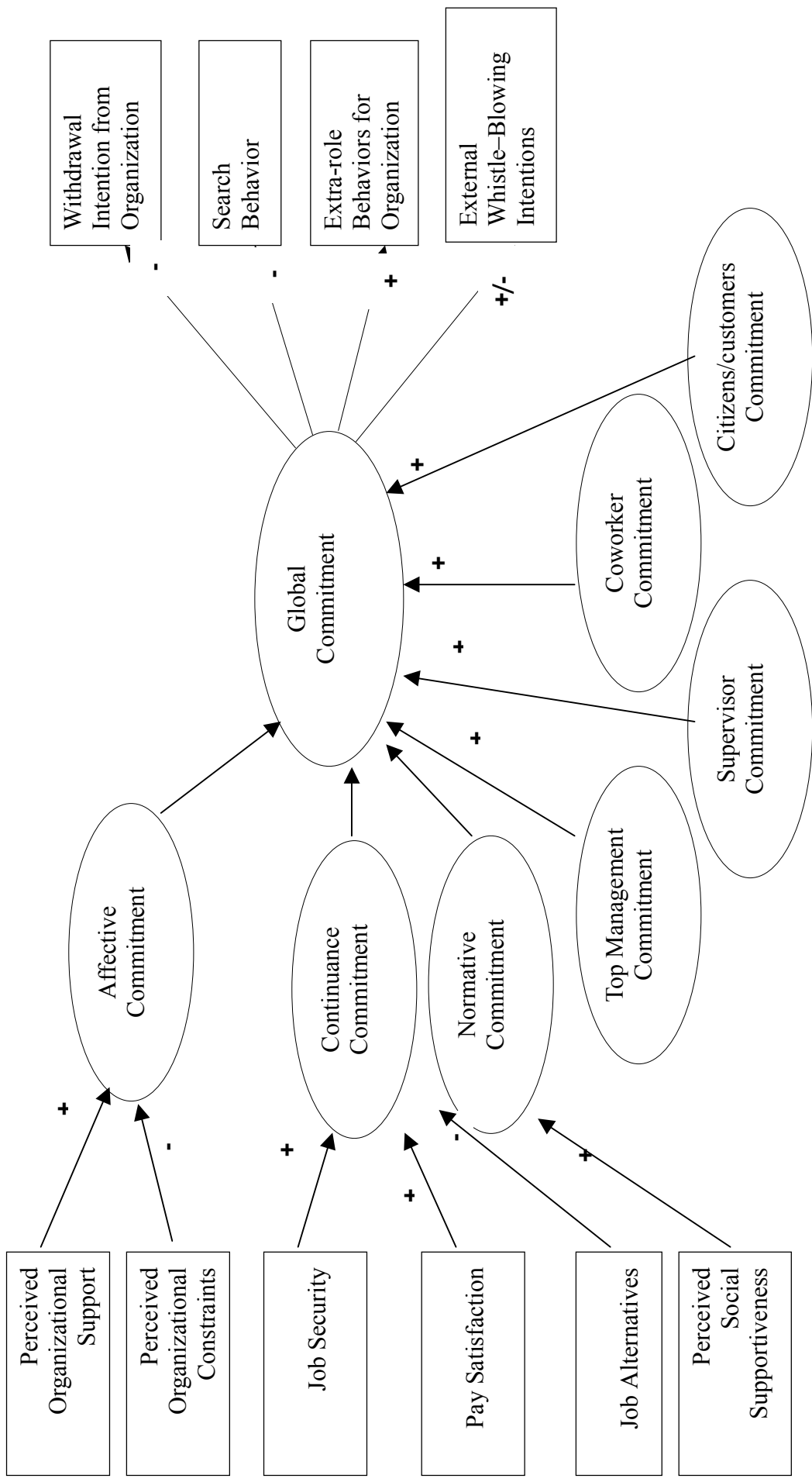


Figure 4. A Model of Global Commitment

Note: + = Positive Relation, - = Negative Relation, +/- = Positive or Negative Relation

This research measured OS using a three-item scale from the Survey of Organizational Support developed by Eisenberg and his colleagues (1986). Among 16 items in the Survey of Organizational Support, only three items showing high factor loadings in a Korean sample (Jung, 1999) are used given the length of the questionnaire.

H6-6: OS is positively associated with affective commitment to organization.

Organizational constraints (POC) refers to the degree to which employees perceive the constraints, or red tape, caused by the rules and procedures created by their organization. Even though an organization has a unified degree of formalization, the reactions of employees may differ. To be sure, the relationships between POC and affective commitment were not clear in previous empirical studies. Kang (1995) suggested there is a positive relationship between commitment and formalization in particular among older employees. On the other hand, employees may also perceive formalization as constraints imposed by an organization while doing their job.

This study focuses on the latter possibility. In addition, one general stereotype is that government agencies have higher levels of red tape and rules (Bozeman & Loveless, 1987; Chubb & Moe, 1985). However, some researchers suggest that is not always the case (Buchanan, 1975; Rainey, 1997). Rainey and Bozeman (1999) argue that public organizations differ from private ones in a particular type of formalization such as personnel and purchasing administration. Following this argumentation, this study measured the POC using a six-item scale mainly drawn from Baldwin (1990). The six items were related to constraints on pay raises, hiring, promotion, daily work routines, dismissal, and money spending.

H6-7: POC is negatively associated with affective commitment to organization.

Job Security (JS) is the degree to which employees perceive their organization provides stable employment for them (Ko, 1995). JS measured the degree of job security employees feel in their present positions and the extent to which they are satisfied with the present level of job security. Romzek (1985b) reported that personal job security had a moderate relationship with organizational involvement of public employees. Baldwin (1987) found that public managers experienced greater job security. The relationship between job security and continuance commitment has not received much attention (Ko, 1995; Gaertner & Nollen, 1989), however. Employees may conceive job security as a cost, or a vested interest that they may lose if they quit. The two-item scale drawn from Ko (1995) measured job security (JS).

H6-8: JS is positively associated with continuance commitment to organization.

Pay satisfaction (PS) refers to the degree to which employees are satisfied with the present level of pay compared to their efforts for the organization. Balfour and Wechsler (1996b) reported that PS was positively associated with exchange commitment (see also Table 7 about the results in the Korean setting). The three-item scale developed by Balfour and Wechsler measured PS.

H6-9: PS is positively associated with continuance commitment to organization.

H6-10: PS is not positively associated with normative commitment to organization.

Job alternatives (JA) was operationalized as the degree to which employees perceive how easily they can find other jobs with other employers with the present or

better level of pay and other benefits. Previous research suggests that continuance commitment is a function of employee perception of employment alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1990). Jung (1999) and Ko (1995) reported that Korean employees showed a positive relationship between the perceived lack of job alternatives and continuance commitment. The two-item scale developed by Balfour and Wechsler (1996) measured JA.

H6-11: JA is negatively associated with continuance commitment to organization.

Social supportiveness (SS) refers to the extent to which employees feel their organization or their job receives good respect from the society or the public. Romzek (1985b) reported that public service recognition had a significant correlation with organizational involvement of public employees. In addition, Cho (1990) also indicated that Korean public sector employees showed much higher levels of perceived organizational prestige than private sector employees, and he also showed that organizational prestige had the greatest impact on commitment. Employees who perceive the goals and missions of their organization are highly supported by the society as a whole may have more commitment to their organization. A three-item scale measured SS.

H6-12: SS is positively associated with normative commitment to organization.

As consequences of commitment to an organization, four variables were included: withdrawal intention from organization, search behavior, extra-efforts for organization, and whistle-blowing intention. Withdrawal intention from organization (WIO) was defined as the extent to which employee plan to leave their current organization and was

measured by the three-item scale developed by Price and Muller (1990) and used by Ko (1995) in Korean samples. Search Behavior (SB) was defined as the extent to which employees are actively seeking other jobs. SB was measured by a three-item scale used by Ko (1995). Compared to WIO, SB intended to capture the impending mobility of an employee.

Those two variables — WIO and SB — are the most widely investigated consequences of commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morrow, 1993). Empirical studies generally report negative relations between OC and those two variables. A meta-analytic result shows that commitment demonstrates moderate to high correlation with both intention to search for job alternatives ( $r = -.599$ ) and intention to leave one's job ( $r = -.464$ ) (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Since commitment was defined as a psychological bond between employees and their organization, each form of commitment should have a negative relationship with intent to quit and search behavior (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

H6-13: Global commitment is negatively associated with WIO and SB.

H6-14: Each base of commitment to organization is negatively associated with both WIO and SB.

H6-15: Each base of commitment to organization makes an independent contribution in predicting both variables after controlling for other bases.

Extra-efforts for organization (ERO) represent "the willingness of an individual member of the organization to engage in actions or extra efforts not directly specified in a job description that benefit the organization without immediate benefit to the individual" (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996, p266). The concept of extra-efforts for organization has also been titled "organizational citizenship behavior" (Organ, 1988) or "prosocial behavior"

(Puffer, 1987). The importance of the concept as a consequence of commitment comes from two reasons. First, an extra-effort behavior of an employee is a potential determinant of performance because its major role is to lubricate the social system of the organization (Organ, 1988). In addition, while all the relations between each base of commitment and withdrawal-related variables are assumed to be negative, such is not the case for those between each base of commitment and extra-effort behaviors (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In particular, for employees whose primary link to the organization is based on strong continuance commitment, there is no reason to expect that such employees will have a particularly strong desire to exert extra-efforts for the organization.

Several studies have examined the relationship between each base of commitment and extra-efforts for the organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Balfour & Wechsler, 1991; Jung, 1999). O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) found that internalization and identification commitment were related positively to prosocial behaviors. Balfour and Wechsler (1991) confirmed O'Reilly and Chatman's finding, reporting that compliance commitment is negatively associated with extra-role behaviors. Using a Korean sample, Jung (1999) also reported that continuance commitment was not significantly related to organizational citizenship behavior. This study used a modified three-item scale for measuring the ERO drawn from Balfour and Wechsler (1996).

H6-16: Global commitment is positively associated with ERO.

H6-17: Both affective commitment and normative commitment to organization are positively related to ERO, whereas continuance commitment to organization is either unrelated to or negatively related to ERO.

Finally, in this analysis, external whistle-blowing intention (EWB) refers to the intention to report wrongdoings within an organization to the public or institutions that might be able to remedy it. Few studies have paid attention to the relationship between EWB and commitment. However, Randall (1987) suggests that those with strong commitment to the organization would be least likely to engage in whistle-blowing. However, others suggest that strong commitment leads to more whistle-blowing (Hirschman, 1970). Empirical studies report no association between affective commitment and external whistle-blowing. An inverted curvilinear (U-shape) relation between affective commitment and internal whistle-blowing has been suggested, however, indicating that employees with moderate levels of affective commitment are more likely to report an organizational wrongdoing than employees with either weak or strong affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

H6-18: Affective commitment to an organization has an inverted curvilinear (U-shape) relationship with EWB.

In terms of continuance commitment, Wahn (1993) reported that continuance commitment was positively associated with an overall measure of unethical activity. One explanation is that, because employees with strong continuance commitment (CC) are more dependent on the organization than are those with weak continuance commitment, they would tolerate more organizational wrongdoings.

H6-19: CC to organization is negatively associated with EWB.

Due to the paucity of previous studies, it is speculative to make hypotheses on the relation between normative base of global commitment and external whistle-blowing.

However, employees with high value congruence are more likely to report an organizational wrongdoing than those with low value congruence.

H6–20: Normative commitment to organization is positively related to EWB.

#### A Model of Top Management Commitment

Figure 5 shows a model of Top Management Commitment. As determinants of top management commitment, this study considered top management support, participation in decision-making, political penetration in management practices, interaction with top management, and leadership turnover (see Figure 5). Few empirical studies investigate commitment to foci — top management, supervisor, coworkers/work group, and citizens/customers — other than organization. Accordingly, selection of variables is theory-oriented and admittedly very speculative. The basic stance that this study takes is that variables distinctively related to each focus — top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers — are able to have more significant influences on each facet of commitment as general field theory suggests.

Top management was defined broadly as those leading the organization and making decisions on management practices such as hiring and promotion (Kingsford, 1995). Empirical research reports that commitment to top management is quite closely related to global commitment (Reichers, 1986). Top management support (TMS) refers to the degree to which employees perceive top management to be helpful in performing their job. Affective commitment has been linked to leader consideration, which measures the extent to which a leader is friendly and demonstrates concern for employees (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987).

H6–21: TMS is positively associated with AC to top management.

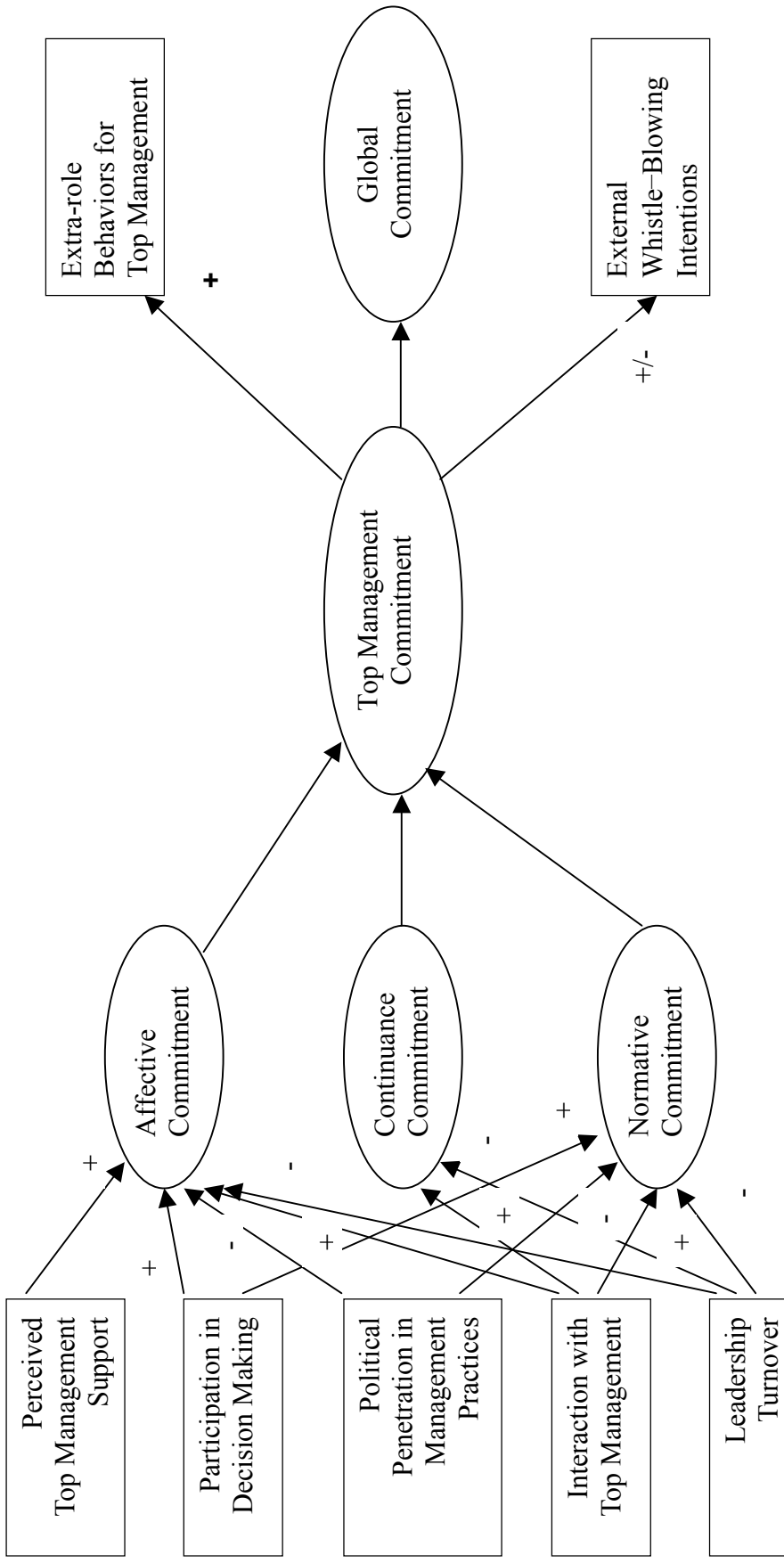


Figure 5. A Model of Top Management Commitment

Note: + = Positive Relation, - = Negative Relation, +/- = Positive or Negative Relation

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported an average corrected correlation ( $r = .335$ ) between leader consideration and OC. TMS was a modification of organizational support (OS). This use of similarly worded items for each commitment target was intentional to enable a logical claim that only the focus varies between the scales and thus to avoid the charge that the MS captures conceptual domains other than expected (Kingsford, 1995).

Participation in decision-making (PDM) measured the level of perceived participation in decision-making. Employees at all levels of the organization want to participate in decisions that affect their works and roles in the organization (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported an average corrected correlation ( $r = .386$ ) between participatory leadership and OC. Thus, the relation between affective commitment to top management and PDM is relatively clear in previous research. However, the relations of both continuance commitment and normative commitment to top management with PDM are not clear. In a study of public employees in twelve state government agencies, Balfour and Wechsler (1996) found that participation influenced each of the three types of commitment (affiliation, identification, and exchange). However, the explanation for those results still remains lacking. The more participation may lead to more value and goal congruence between employees and top management, and consequently result in normative commitment to top management. A two-item scale used in Balfour and Wechsler (1996) measured PDM.

H6-22: PDM is positively associated with both affective commitment and normative commitment to top management.

Political penetration in management practices (PPM) refers to the levels of political influences in management practices perceived by employees. The importance of

environmental factors influencing internal organizational practices has been generally recognized. From a comparative perspective, empirical research has found that public organizations are more susceptible to external influences (Chubb & Moe, 1985; Bretschneider, 1990; Bozeman & Loveless, 1987). Greater external control and review lead to more red tapes and less flexibility of organizational structure and procedures. In addition, political penetration leads to weakened organizational leadership. Bozeman and Loveless (1987) found that public R & D units were more influenced by environmental actors and less influenced by organizational leadership.

This research posits that greater political penetration in management practices leads to less affective and normative top management commitment. Employees who perceive greater PPM may think that top management has weak control of their organization and may also feel that top management does not play a role as a protector for the organizational interest. In partial support, Balfour and Wechsler (1996) found that political penetration influenced each type of commitment — affiliation, identification, and exchange commitment. A two-item scale drawn from Balfour and Wechsler (1996) measures the PPM.

H6-23: PPM is negatively associated with both affective commitment and normative commitment to top management.

The inclusion of both interaction with top management (IT) and leadership turnover (LT) aims at investigating whether frequent interactions with each focus leads to an increased level of commitment to that focus. IT refers to the level of interaction with top management perceived by employees. Kingsford (1995) found that there was a positive relationship between interaction frequency scores and their corresponding

commitment scores with one exception. Frequency of interaction with top management, supervisor, and coworkers was positively related to affective commitment to top management ( $r = .31$ ), affective commitment to supervisor ( $r = .45$ ), and affective commitment to coworkers ( $r = .24$ ). However interaction with customers was not significantly related to affective commitment to customers and rather was negatively related to both affective commitment to supervisor and affective commitment to top management. The relations of the IT with normative commitment and continuance commitment are not clear due to the paucity of previous studies. Generally, regular interaction makes it easier for an employee to have values and goals with those of local foci. In addition, frequent interactions also lead to stronger calculation-based relationships between an employee and local foci.

In sum, interaction may be a fundamental factor for any component of commitment. Following this reasoning, this study hypothesizes that interaction with top management is positively associated with affective, continuance, and normative commitment to top management. A four-item scale drawn from Kingsford (1995) measured the frequency of interaction with top management (IT), supervisor (IS), coworkers (IC), and citizens/customers (IPC).

H6-24: IT is positively associated with each base of commitment to top management.

LT was defined as the extent to which top management in an organization turns over or changes. A conventional wisdom on public-private difference is that public employees experience more frequent leadership turnover. Baldwin (1987) found that the public sector experienced greater leadership turnover in a comparative study. This study

assumes that LT has a negative relation with affective, normative commitment to top management. Frequent turnover of leadership may lead to less opportunities to develop affective, continuance, and normative commitments to top management.

H6–25: LT is negatively associated with each base of commitment to top management.

As consequences of top management commitment, this study includes extra-effort behavior for top management and external whistle-blowing intention (see Figure 5). Extra-efforts for top management (ERT) refers to the willingness of an employee to engage in actions or extra efforts beyond a job description for top management. This study assumes positive relations between ERT, affective commitment and normative commitment, while it hypothesizes that ERT has no association or negative association with continuance commitment. A three-item scale measured ERT, which was basically a modification of ERO. In addition, the relations between external whistle-blowing intention (EWB) and each base of top management commitment were also hypothesized as the same as those between whistle-blowing intention and each base of global commitment.

H6–26: Top management commitment is positively associated with ERT.

H6–27: Both affective commitment and normative commitment to top management are positively related to ERT, whereas continuance commitment to top management is either unrelated or negatively related to ERT.

H6–28: Affective commitment to top management has an inverted curvilinear (U-shape) relationship with EWB.

H6–29: Continuance commitment to top management is negatively associated with EWB, whereas normative commitment to top management is positively associated with EWB.

#### A Model of Supervisor Commitment

Figure 6 shows a model of Supervisor Commitment. As determinants of supervisor commitment, this study investigated supervisor support, interaction with supervisor, and supervisor turnover. Only a few empirical studies have dealt with supervisor commitment (Suszko, 1990; Becker, 1992; Becker & Billings, 1993; Becker et al., 1996; Gregerson, 1993; Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Kingsford, 1995). Hypotheses to be tested in the model of supervisor commitment were:

H6–30: Supervisor Support (PSS) is positively associated with affective commitment to supervisor.

H6–31: Interaction with Supervisor (IS) is positively associated with each base of commitment to supervisor.

H6–32: Supervisor Turnover (ST) is negatively associated with each base of commitment to supervisor.

As consequences of supervisor commitment, three variables — i.e. extra-effort behaviors for supervisor, external whistle-blowing intention (EWB), and withdrawal intention from supervisor (WIS) — were investigated. Extra-efforts for supervisor (ERS) refers to willingness of employees to engage in actions or extra efforts beyond a job description for their supervisors. A three-item scale measured ERS, which is basically a modification of ERO.

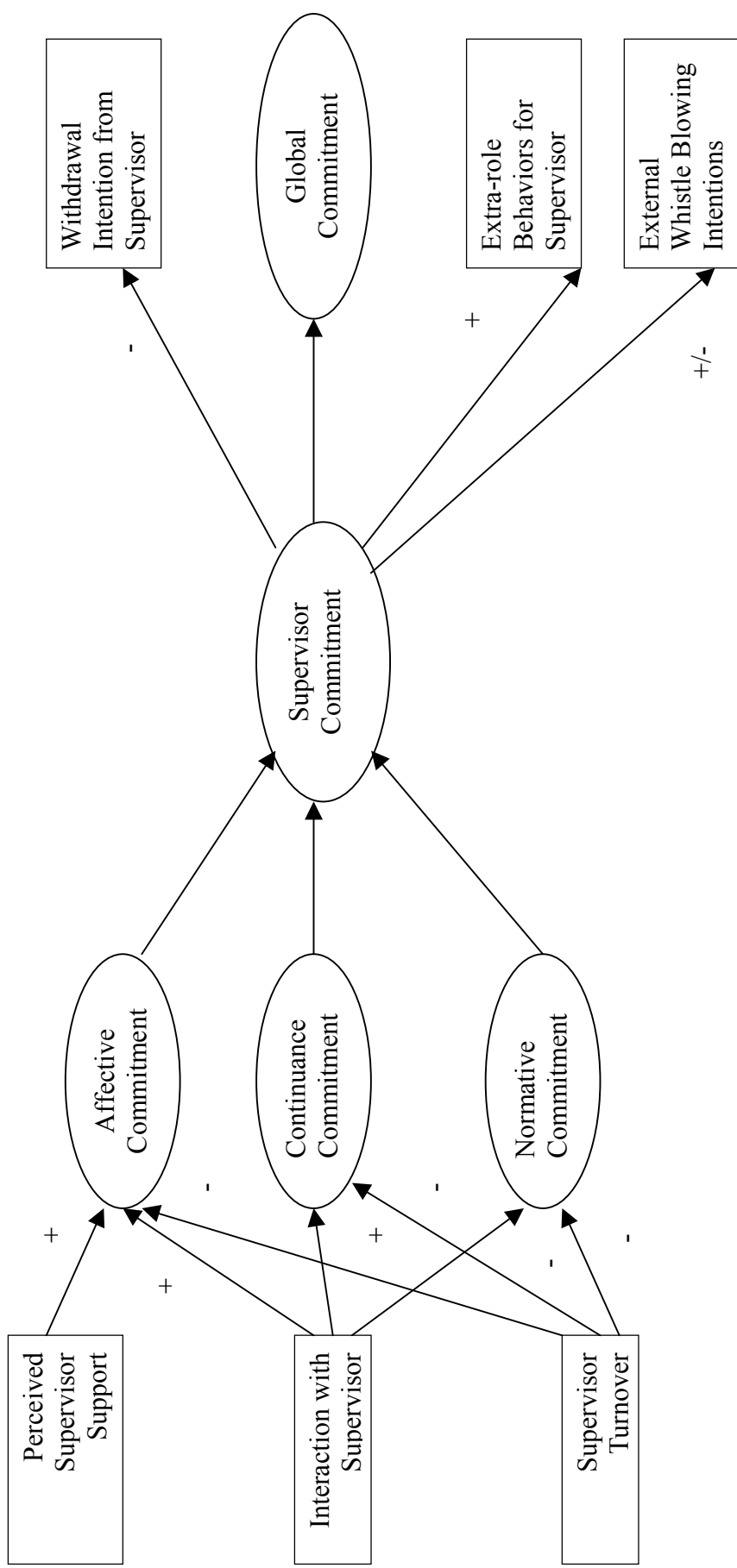


Figure 6. A Model of Supervisor Commitment

Note: + = Positive Relation, - = Negative Relation, +/- = Positive or Negative Relation

The relations between external whistle-blowing intention (EWB) and each base of supervisor commitment were also hypothesized as the same as those between whistle-blowing intention and each base of OC.

H6-33: Supervisor commitment is positively associated with ERS.

H6-34: Both affective commitment and normative commitment to top management are positively related to ERS, whereas continuance commitment to top management is either unrelated or negatively, related to ERS.

H6-35: Affective commitment to supervisor has an inverted curvilinear (U-shape) relationship with EWB.

H6-36: Continuance commitment to supervisor is negatively associated with EWB, whereas normative commitment to supervisor is positively associated with EWB.

Withdrawal intention from supervisor (WIS) refers to the extent to which employees plan to leave the current supervisor. In a similar fashion to withdrawal intention from organization (WIO), this study hypothesized;

H6-37: Supervisor commitment is negatively associated with WIS.

H6-38: Each base of supervisor commitment is negatively associated with WIS.

H6-39: Each base of supervisor commitment makes an independent contribution in predicting WIS controlling for other bases.

#### A Model of Coworker Commitment

Figure 7 shows a model of Coworker Commitment. As determinants of coworker commitment, this study investigated such variables as coworker support (PCS),

interaction with coworkers (IC), and coworker turnover (CT) (Zaccaro & Dobbins, 1989). Several studies have investigated commitment to coworkers or work group (Zaccaro & Dobbins, 1989; Becker, 1992; Becker & Billings, 1993; Gregersen, 1993; Yoon et al., 1994; Kingsford, 1995). Hypotheses to be tested were:

H6-40: PCS is positively related to affective commitment to coworkers.

H6-41: IC is positively associated with each base of commitment to coworkers.

H6-42: CT is negatively associated with each base of commitment to coworkers.

As consequences of coworker commitment, this study investigated three variables — i.e. extra-efforts for coworkers (ERC), external whistle-blowing intention (EWB), and withdrawal intention from coworkers (WIC) (see Figure 7). Hypotheses to be tested were:

H6-43: Coworker commitment is positively associated with ERC.

H6-44: Both affective commitment and normative commitment to coworkers are positively related to ERC, whereas continuance commitment to coworkers has no association or negative association with ERC.

H6-45: Affective commitment to coworkers has an inverted curvilinear (U-shape) relation with EWB.

H6-46: Continuance commitment to coworkers is negatively associated with EWB, whereas normative commitment to coworkers is positively associated with EWB.

H6-47: Coworker commitment is negatively associated with WIC.

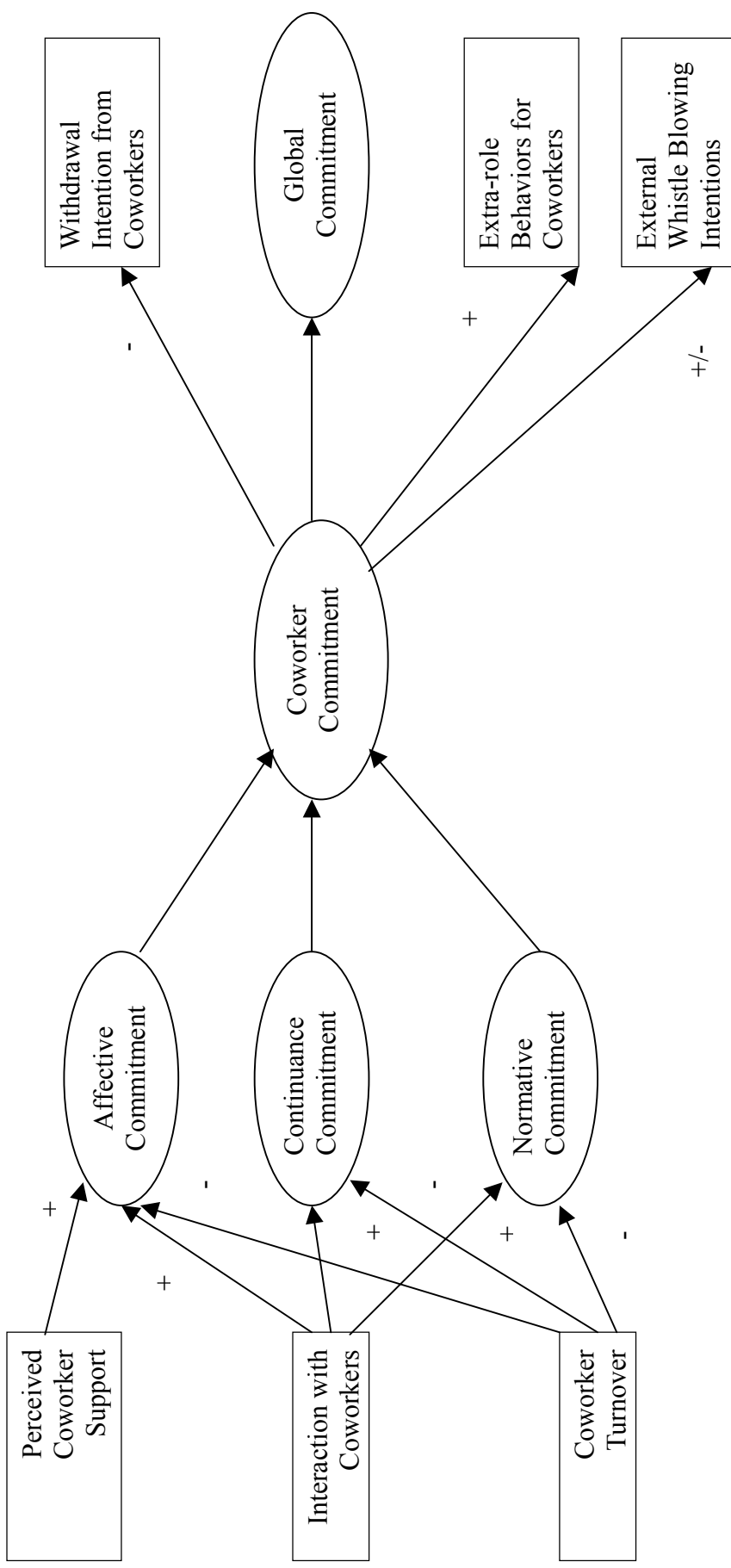


Figure 7. A Model of Coworker Commitment

Note: + = Positive Relation, - = Negative Relation, +/- = Positive or Negative Relation

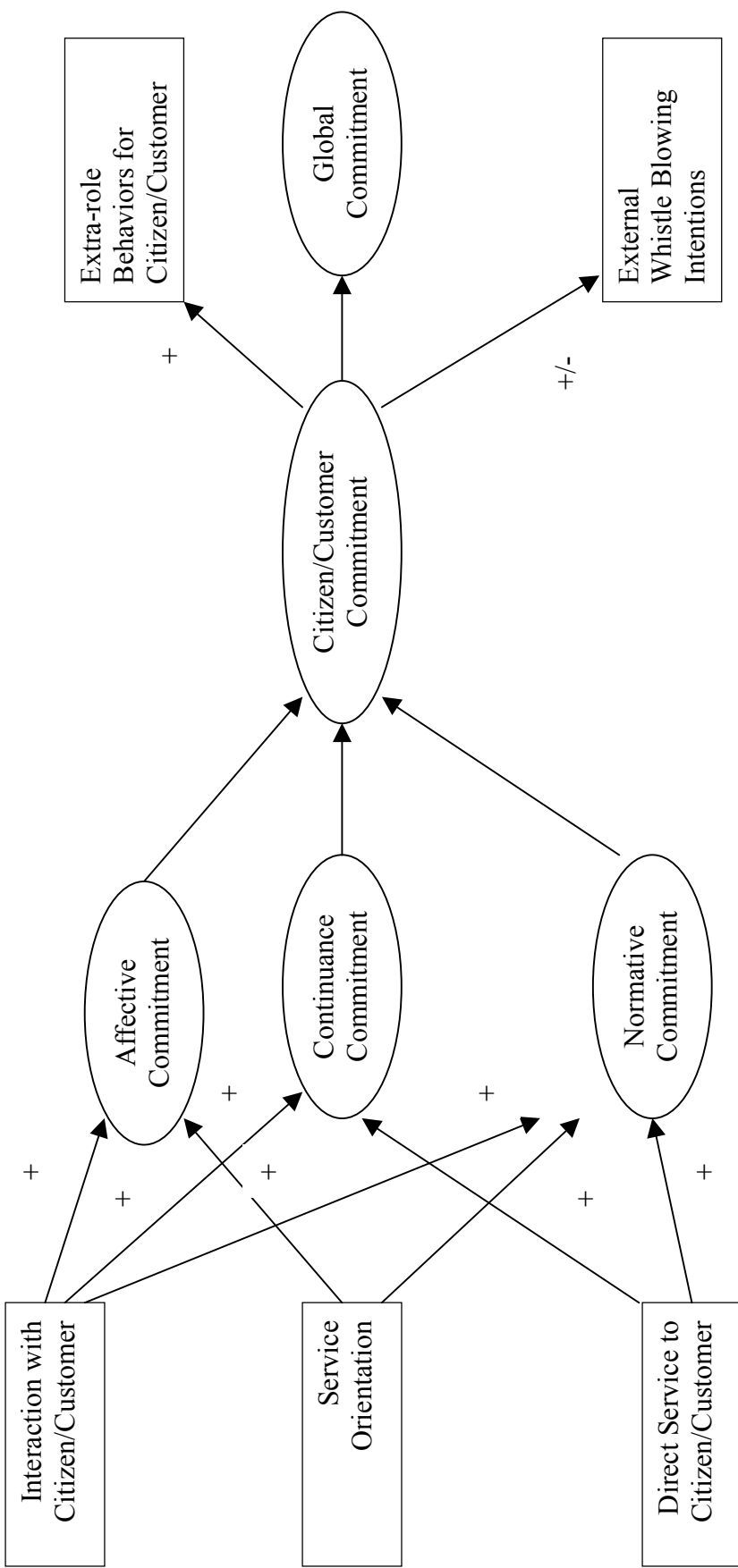


Figure 8. A Model of Citizens/Customer Commitment

Note: + = Positive Relation, - = Negative Relation, +/- = Positive or Negative Relation

H6–48: Each base of coworker commitment is negatively associated with WIC.

H6–49: Each base of coworker commitment makes an independent contribution in predicting WIC after controlling for other bases.

#### A Model of Citizens/Customers Commitment

Figure 8 shows a model of Citizens/customers Commitment. In this study, the "citizens/customers" means whoever are seen as direct beneficiaries of the employee's work. In general, the concept of citizen is appropriate for public employees, whereas the concept of customer is appropriate for private employees. However, as the result of recent reform efforts in many countries, e.g., REGO (Reinventing Government), the term customer is also widely used in the public sector. Thus, this study does not distinguish one from the other.

Because empirical studies on determinants of commitment to the citizens/customers are extremely rare, hypotheses in this study are pretty speculative and wholly depend on logical reasoning. Interaction with citizens/customers (ICC) refers to the perceived level of interaction with the public and customers. The logic of proximity suggests that, when employees have frequent contacts with customers and those interactions are perceived positively in general, they could develop commitment (Gregersen, 1993).

H6–50: ICC is positively associated with each base of commitment to citizens/customers.

This study also includes two determinants of commitment to citizens/customers — service orientation and direct service to society. The decision was made because

physical and face-to-face interaction cannot wholly explain each base of commitment to citizens/customers. This study assumes that employees could develop commitment to citizens/customers without physical and face-to-face interaction with citizens/customers.

Service Orientation (SO) was operationalized as the value that an employee places on helping others and engaging in meaningful public service. The literature of public administration suggests that public managers rank service orientation as more important than private managers (Rainey, 1982; Wittmer, 1991; Bozeman & Loveless, 1987). However, Gabris and Simo (1995) argue that public service orientation is not monopolized by the public sector and that its impact on employee behavior is negligible. On the other hand, some empirical research suggests that service orientation has a positive relationship with commitment (Hall, et al., 1970; Crewson, 1997). A two-item scale used in Rainey (1982) measured SO.

H6-51: SO is positively associated with both affective commitment and normative commitment to citizens/customers.

Direct service to citizens/customers (DS) refers to the extent to which employees feel their job has a significant impact to the society. Compared to SS dealing with social evaluation of the organization, this variable refers to task significance with regard to its impact on the society. Balfour and Wechsler (1996) found that direct service to the public had a positive relationship with identification commitment.

H6-52: DS is positively related to both AC and NC to citizens/customers.

As consequences of commitment to citizens/customers, this study investigated two variables, that is, extra-effort behavior for citizens/customers and external whistle-blowing intention (see Figure 8). Extra-efforts for citizens/customers (ERCC) refers to

the willingness of employees to engage in actions or extra efforts beyond a job description for citizens and customers. A potential outcome of commitment to citizens/customers would be extra-efforts for citizens/customers. Gregersen (1993) found that commitment to customers was not significantly related to extra-efforts rated by immediate supervisors. However, he did not differentiate extra-role behaviors for each focus and thus did not test the relationship between commitment to customers and extra-role behaviors for customers. This deficiency is unfortunate since Kingsford (1995) found that interaction with customers was negatively related to affective commitment to top management and to supervisor. This suggests that sometimes extra-efforts for customers are not necessarily equal to overall extra-efforts for organization, top management, supervisor, and coworkers.

H6-53: Citizens/customers commitment is positively associated with ERCC.

H6-54: Both affective commitment and normative commitment to citizens/customers are positively related to ERCC, whereas continuance commitment to citizens/customers has no association or negative association with ERCC.

H6-55: Both affective commitment and normative commitment to citizens/customers are positively associated with EWB, whereas continuance commitment to citizens/customers is negatively associated with EWB.

#### Hypotheses Regarding Public and Private Distinctions in OC

This study hypothesized that public employees may have different levels and patterns (foci and bases) of OC. In terms of levels of OC (global commitment), a

conventional view on OC of public employees is that public sector employees are less committed than private sector employees (Buchanan 1984; Chubb and Moe, 1990).

H7: Public sector employees reveal lower level of commitment to an organization than business sector employees.

This researcher recognizes the controversial status of H7. To explain, some studies report the opposing view and suggest that public employees may be committed to foci other than their organization (Balfour & Wechsler, 1990; Cho, 1992; Crewson, 1997; Rainey, 1982). Moreover, overall low OC among public employees may be due to low calculative commitment, regardless of high normative commitment. These two possibilities can be answered by testing the following series of hypotheses. The former possibility is examined by testing hypotheses regarding the foci of commitment. First, Romzek (1985b) argues that the sense of public service recognition should be considered as an antecedent of public employees' organizational involvement.

H8: Public employees will have higher levels of commitment to citizens/customers than private employees.

Second, it can be assumed that, given high level of leadership turnover and frequent political penetration,

H9: public employees show low levels of commitment to top management.

With regard to commitment to supervisor and coworkers,

H10: There are no differences between public and private employees in terms of commitment to supervisor and coworkers.

The latter possibility was examined by testing the hypotheses regarding the multidimensionality of commitment. The literature on public service ethics suggests that

public employees have higher level of service orientation and intrinsic reward motivation (Crewson, 1997).

H11: Without regard to foci, public employees will show higher level of normative commitment, lower level of continuance commitment, and the same level of affective commitment compared to business employees.

### Other Hypotheses

This study includes Public Service Motivation (PSM) (Perry, 1996; Brewer, Selden, & Facer II, 2000). This decision was made for two reasons. In response to Perry's call for an iterative validation process, this study tried to investigate the applicability of the PSM scale to Korean samples. Also, the similarity of theoretical reasoning underlying both the PSM and multi-component commitment approach makes it plausible to investigate its relationship with commitment to citizens/customers.

H12: PSM is positively associated with normative and affective bases of commitment, whereas it has no significant association with continuance bases of commitment.

H13: PSM is positively associated with commitment to citizens/customers.

H14: PSM explains some significant variances in Korean employees' commitments—global commitment and four constituency-specific commitments.

In order to clarify the cultural influences (if any) on variables developed in western settings, this research includes the attitude subscale from the individualism–collectivism dimensions (Oh, 1995). The individualism–collectivism dimension may help interpret research results gained from Korean samples. Previous research suggests that Korea is a collectivist society. One might expect that cultures that emphasize collectivist values might experience higher aggregate levels of normative commitment than do

cultures characterized by individualist values and greater employment mobility (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Given the emphasis on the employee loyalty to the group rather the individual, normative and affective bases of commitment should be more salient. In particular, affective commitment based on emotional attachment to coworkers, and supervisors should be conspicuous. However, continuance commitment based on the side-bets or low alternatives should be relatively less emphasized.

H15: Collectivism has positive relations with both normative and affective bases of commitment, whereas it has no significant relation with the continuance base of commitment.

H16: The attitude dimension of individualism–collectivism explains some variances in Korean employees' commitments (global commitment and four constituency-specific commitments).

Finally, this study collects data for personal characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, income, and education, all of which are related to OC (Yoon, in press).

Table 11 shows the definitions and measures of variables discussed in this section.

Table 11. Definitions and Measures of Variables (2) – For Other Hypotheses

Variables	Definitions	Measures
Demographics		
Sex	Yearly income	0=female 1=male
Age		Years
Income		Categorical numeric
Marital Status		numbers 0=single 1=married

Education	Highest level of education completed	Categorical numeric numbers
Position		
Tenure		
- TO	- Length of time in the present organization	Years and months
- TT	- Length of time with present top management	Years and months
- TS	- Length of time with present supervisor	Years and months
- TC	- Length of time with present coworkers	Years and months
Other Variables		
Public Service Motivation (PSM)	An individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions	14 items from Perry(1996, 1997)
Individualism-collectivism (INCO)	Individualism — the emotional independence from groups, organizations, or other collectives Collectivism — the tendency for a group of people to place greater emphasis on norms, views, duty, goals, and beliefs of the ingroup, readiness to cooperate with ingroup members, and emotional attachment to the ingroup	8 items from attitude subscale of the Individualism–Collectivism Inventory in Triandis (1991)

### Summary

This study explicitly deals with OC among public and private employees using a framework that combines the bases and foci of OC in order to know whether public employees manifest different patterns of the bases and foci of OC compared with their private counterparts. For this, chapter 3 deals with models and hypotheses. This chapter also suggests definitions and measurements of OC and other variables.

The first and second sections are devoted mainly to the development of OC models combining the bases and foci of OC. In the first section, special attention is paid to the integration of multi-base and multi-focus approaches, and relationships between

global commitment (the traditional concept of OC) and constituency-specific commitments (commitment to a specific focus — such as top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers). Five hypotheses in the first section suggest that; (1) Employees can distinguish between five commitments (H1); (2) Each commitment has three bases of commitment (H2); (3) The inclusion of five foci commitments explains more variances than does OCQ alone (H3); (4) there are positive relationships between four constituency-specific commitment and global commitment (H4); and global commitment mediates the impacts of the four constituency-specific commitments on organization-level dependent variables (H5). The second section tries to test the hypothesis that commitments to each of the five foci have a set of determinants and consequences different from each other (H6). In an effort to test this hypothesis in a ‘nomological net,’ 55 subhypotheses from H6–1 to H6–55 are suggested.

On the other hand, the third and fourth sections focus mainly on testing whether there are different levels and patterns of OC among public and private employees in Korean settings when OC is conceptualized and measured by the multi-base and multi-focus OC approach. In order to know possible cultural features, if any, of the Korean context, the individualism–collectivism dimension is included. In the third and fourth sections, ten hypotheses from H7 to H16 are suggested.

Now, with chapter 3 behind us, the readers should have a better idea of what this dissertation intends, and why. The next step will provide details about how these hypotheses will be dealt with.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESEARCH METHODS

This chapter discusses the research methods used to examine the comparative edge of the multi-base and multi-foci commitment approaches over the conventional OC approaches in the Korean setting. Five topics are addressed here: sampling, survey procedures, translation of the questionnaire from the English to the Korean version (see also Appendix C), survey procedures, sample quality, and strategies for data analysis.

#### Sampling

##### Research Sites

The sites for this research were a total of five organizations — three in Seoul and two in Kyunggi Province, South Korea. For sampling, the researcher contacted three public organizations — a central agency, a central training institute, and a municipal city government near Seoul — and two private sector organizations — a training institute and a credit company. Personal letters requesting participation in the research, research proposals, and questionnaires were sent to the organizations chosen for research sites for this study in February, 2002. Those five organizations agreed to participate in this research with the promise of full support for the confidentiality of the research.

The selection of those organizations was based on both practical and technical/theoretical considerations. Due to the difficulties in securing organizations' cooperation for conducting surveys, the selection of those organizations relied on the

researcher's personal connections with high-level officials of those organizations.

However, two other strategies for selecting those organizations were also prominent. First, two training institutes (one public and one private) were selected to increase the external validity of this research by sampling diverse respondents in terms of their age, gender, jobs or career, and organizations they work for. Second, the decision to include a municipal government was made because the two training institutes operate programs only for employees working for Korean central agencies.

Providing brief information about each organization seems appropriate here.<sup>5</sup> The Civil Service Commission (CSC) is a central public agency in charge of personnel management of the Korean government. It is a small agency with 83 employees in total. The Central Officials Training Institute (COTI), located in Kwachon city near Seoul, is responsible for training Korean public employees working for central agencies. The Gwangmyung City Government, also located near Seoul, has 783 employees in total.

The private training institute is a member organization of A Group's eight companies. It is also responsible for training employees of both A group and other companies. It is located in Seoul. A Group is one of the largest companies (called Chaebol) in Korea. It has 4,842 employees and over 1 billion dollars in total sales. On the other hand, the private credit company is also a member organization in B group, which is also a Chaebol. The credit company has 8 million customers, 10,000 associated stores, 58 branches nation-wide, 2 trillion won in total capital, and 320 billion won in revenue. The survey was restricted to the department of Internet-marketing, which has 33 employees in total.

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<sup>5</sup> The names of the two private organizations are not used because they asked not to be identified by others.

### Sample

This study surveyed a sample that consists of Korean full-time white-collar employees from those five organizations. The sample consisted of a total of 720 employees — 490 public and 230 private employees. From the CSC, 50 employees were selected randomly from the Internet list of employees. Although the size of the organization was relatively small, it was difficult to survey all the employees within the restricted survey period due to employees' irregular work schedules.

This survey also included 240 trainees in the COTI, who were in six training programs during the survey period of late May to early June of 2002. Six programs were: (1) a program for administrative innovation (62 public employees in class 5), (2) a program for administrative management (70 public employees in class 6 or below), (3) a program for junior managers (23 public employees in class 6), (4) a program for fiscal and economic policy (37 public employees in class 4 or 5), and (5) a program for high-level managers (48 public employees in class 2 or 3). In South Korea, the ranks of public employees are divided into nine levels, namely the first class (the highest level) through the ninth class (the lowest level). Public employees in the first class in central agencies of Korea take charge of such positions as assistant ministers. In general, the higher-level (managerial level) public officials are ranked in classes one through five. However, in municipal cities, public officials in class six also serve at the managerial level. As shown above, those programs (and participants) were selected for the sample to represent public employees in a wide range of classes. In addition, the selected trainees in the COTI came from almost all Korean central agencies. The information on the central agencies that respondents work for is available from the researcher upon request.

Two hundred employees in the Gwangmyung City Government participated in the survey. They were selected randomly from the list of the total 783 employees. In selecting a sample of 200 respondents, every 3<sup>rd</sup> employee was selected until 200 respondents were collected. From the private training institute, 200 trainees were selected randomly from the list of the trainees. Most trainees were engaged in such affairs as finance, accounting, general affairs. Finally, all thirty employees in the internet-marketing department of the private credit company also participated in the survey.

Adequate sample size is an issue that remains unsolved among researchers. Some researchers suggest empirical formulas, rules of thumb, or absolute numbers. For example, in subjecting items to factor analysis, 5 or 10 to 1 subjects to items (or variables) ratio, or at least 200 subjects are ideally recommended. Even though factor analysis requires 5 or 10 times more subjects than items, the sample size depends on a variety of factors such as the research purpose, the number of variables, expected effect size, and so on (Green, 1991; Gudanowski, 1995). This study aimed at obtaining 200 or more subjects for each sector.

#### Preparation of Questionnaire

This research relied on a self-administered questionnaire. In terms of the adequate length of questionnaires, Dillman (1978) reports that there is almost no difference in response rate for various lengths between 12 pages, or about 125 items. He concludes that a 10 to 12 page questionnaire appears to be an optimal length. Compared to Dillman's suggestion, the 175 items in this study are somewhat large. Thus, this study made efforts on the questionnaire design in order to produce a questionnaire format that is not overwhelming but concise. The questionnaire was formatted including question

headers and subset item numbering which is believed to give the overall appearance of fewer questions and logically combined content areas for the constructs measured.

On the other hand, there is a concern about its applicability to other cultural settings when a construct developed in one country is used in other countries. Since Koreans use a different language and have a different culture, the measures developed in the United States should be translated into Korean. In the translation process, one important thing is to ensure that the translated measures have linguistic and psychometric equivalence. Unless equivalence criteria are met, conclusions drawn from the results may have limited generalizability.

To achieve linguistic equivalence of the constructs, therefore, careful translation procedure is a necessity. This study adopted the translation/back–translation procedure suggested by Brislin (1970).<sup>6</sup> Of the 175 items of the questionnaire, 111 items were subjected to the translation/back–translation process because 64 items had already gotten through the translation/back–translation procedure in previous research. For example, several empirical studies investigating OC among Korean employees used the translation/back-translation method to assure the equivalence between the two different

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<sup>6</sup> Brislin (1970) suggests a seven–step procedure for adequate translation in cross-cultural studies: (1) Write an English form that is likely to be translatable. (2) Secure competent translators familiar with the content involved in the source language materials. (3) Instruct one bilingual to translate from the source to the target language, and another to blindly translate back from the target to the source. (4) Have several raters examine the original, target, and/or the back-translated versions for errors that lead to difference in meaning. If errors are found, repeat step three, changing the original English when necessary, the process known as "decentering." (5) When no meaning errors are found, pretest the translated materials on target language speaking people. (6) To finally demonstrate translation adequacy, administer the material to bilingual subjects, some who see the English versions, some who see the translation, and some who see both. (7) Report experiences using different criteria for equivalence.

languages (Ko, 1996; Oh, 1995; Jung, 1999). Among them are the Meyer and Allen scale, Job Descriptive Index, and the OCQ.

As the first step, two bilingual doctoral students majoring in public administration translated the questionnaire into Korean independently. Second, two other bilingual doctoral students majoring in law and management back-translated the Korean version of the questionnaire into English. In total, four bilingual experts participated in the translation/back-translation process. After each student translated the questionnaire, they gathered together to evaluate the equivalence of the questionnaires and to solve the differences among the questionnaires. Finally, three English experts assessed equivalence of the original and back-translated English version in order to evaluate the quality of the Korean language translation. In the first wave of the procedure, three English experts agreed on the equivalence of 86 items (77.5 percent) in the questionnaire. This study needed two waves of translation/back-translation procedures until most discrepancies were resolved.

### Survey Procedures

The survey was conducted between May 20 and June 12 in 2002, so major historical events were not likely to contaminate the data. Before the main survey, the researcher visited the research sites in order to explain the purpose of this study to high-level officials in the organizations, and also to secure friendly ties with them. Those officials promised to cooperate in this research. Basic statistics and documents about the research sites were also obtained during the visits.

The survey packets were distributed to the target sample through the internal mail systems with the assistance of some key personnel in target organizations. Each

packet included a questionnaire and an assent form that described the research purpose, its importance, procedure, potential risks and benefits, confidentiality, compensation, rights to refuse or withdraw, and the IRB oversight paragraph.

Most research in Korea has recognized the low response rate in mail surveys (Ko, 1996), and some key personnel in target organizations also advised the researcher not to wholly rely on mail surveys. In principle, respondents were first instructed to mail surveys directly to the researcher. Respondents had an alternative option of returning the questionnaire to key personnel through the internal mail systems with no signs of personal identification. Almost all the respondents chose the latter option. Only five questionnaires were returned directly to the researcher by mail. The collected data were coded into a computer disk file by the researcher.

#### Sample Quality

The quality of the sample was evaluated in terms of response rate, sample characteristics, and missing data. The characteristics of the sample were reviewed in terms of age, gender, education, and tenure.

#### Response Rate

Of a total of 720 participants selected for the sample, 528 participants returned their questionnaires. Twenty questionnaires were discarded due to extensive missing data. A questionnaire was discarded when it had over 10 percent unanswered questions. The response rate of the usable questionnaires ( $n = 508$ ) was 70.6 percent. The breakdown of the response rate is presented in Table 12.

Response rate is one indicator of the sample representativeness. As a rule of thumb, a response rate of at least 60 percent is considered acceptable. Therefore, the

overall response rate obtained in this study is relatively solid. The response rate of the public employees was 78.2 percent, whereas that of the private employees was 54.3 percent. One reason for this relatively low response rate in the private employee sample was the assent form that asked respondents to write down their names. Private sector respondents confessed concerns over completing the assent form despite the assurance of confidentiality that both the researcher and organizations promised.

Table 12. Response Rate

Research Site	Distributed Cases	Returned Cases	Usable Cases	Response Rate (%)
Civil Service Commission	50	43	43	86.0
Central Officials Training Institute	240	178	168	70.4
Gwangmyung City Government	200	176	172	86.0
Subtotal — Public Employees	490	397	383	78.2
The Private Training Institute	200	104	98	49.0
The Private Credit Company	30	27	27	90.0
Subtotal — Private Employees	230	131	125	54.3
Total	720	528	508	70.6

### Sample Characteristics

The demographic breakdown of the sample by sector is presented in Table 13. The sample consisted of 508 respondents. Male respondents account for 85.5 percent of the respondents. The mean levels of their age and tenure are 40.16 (years) and 162.05

(months). The modes of their marriage, education, position and income are Married (85.5 percent), College Graduate (51.9 percent), Clerks (41.0 percent), and 160-219 (ten thousand Won, 34.2 percent), respectively.

Compared to the private sector employees in the sample, the public sector employees were older, less educated, and had longer organizational tenure. When it comes to the public employees, 329 (86.1 percent) respondents in the sample were male. The mean level of age was 42 years with a standard deviation of 7.47 and the mean value of their tenure was 186.9 months. The modes of their marriage, education, position and income are Married (91.6 percent), College Graduate (43.5 percent), Clerks (42.5 percent), and 160-219 (ten thousand Won, 36.1 percent), respectively.

On the other hand, 103 (83.7 percent) private employees in the sample were male. The mean level of age was 34.5 years with a standard deviation of 7.37 and the mean value of their tenure was 85.45 months. The modes of their marriage, education, position and income are Married (66.7 percent), College Graduate (78.0 percent), Clerks (36.4 percent), and 160–219 (ten thousand Won, 28.1 percent), respectively.

#### Sample Representativeness

A sample is representative if the characteristics of the sample are close to those in the population. Although the selection of the research sites was rather convenient, it is useful to compare the sample characteristics with those of the population because the sample representativeness has much to do with the external validity of this study. This issue was evaluated, focusing on both age and gender. Due to the data availability, an evaluation was conducted only on the sample of public employees.

Table 13. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

		Public Employees	Private Employees	Total
Age (Years)	Valid N	381	123	504
	Mean	42.00	34.46	40.16
	Median	43.00	33.00	40.50
	SD	7.47	7.37	8.12
	Min	24	20	20
	Max	58	50	58
Tenure (Months)	Valid N	376	122	498
	Mean	186.90	85.45	162.05
	Median	181.00	58.50	146.50
	SD	106.79	80.08	109.88
	Min	2	1	1
	Max	420	252	420
Gender	Valid N	382 (100%)	123 (100%)	505 (100%)
	Male	329 (86.1%)	103 (83.7%)	432 (85.5%)
	Female	53 (13.9%)	20 (16.3%)	73 (14.5%)
Marriage	Valid N	382 (100%)	123 (100%)	505 (100%)
	Single	28 (7.3%)	41 (33.3%)	69 (13.7%)
	Married	350 (91.6%)	82 (66.7%)	432 (85.5%)
	Separated	1 (0.3%)	-	1 (0.2)
	Divorced	3 (0.8%)	-	3 (0.6)
Education	Valid N	382 (100%)	123 (100%)	505 (100%)
	High School	90 (23.6%)	3 (2.4%)	93 (18.4%)
	Junior College	49 (12.8%)	7 (5.7%)	56 (11.1%)
	College Graduate	166 (43.5%)	96 (78.0%)	262 (51.9%)
	Master Degree	67 (17.5%)	17 (13.8%)	84 (16.6%)
	Doctoral Degree	10 (2.6%)	-	10 (2.0%)

Position	Valid N	381 (100%)	121 (100%)	502 (100%)
	Clerks	162 (42.5%)	44 (36.4%)	206 (41.0%)
	Associate Director	124 (32.5%)	32 (26.4%)	156 (31.1%)
	Director	51 (13.4%)	14 (11.6%)	65 (12.9%)
	Deputy Director General	1 (0.3%)	16 (13.2%)	17 (3.4%)
	Director General	34 (8.9%)	8 (6.6%)	42 (8.4%)
	Others	9 (2.3%)	7 (5.8%)	16 (3.2%)
Income (ten thousands Won)	Valid N	382 (100%)	121 (100%)	503 (100%)
	Below 80	1 (0.3%)	-	1 (0.2%)
	80-119	22 (5.8%)	11 (9.1%)	33 (6.6%)
	120-159	81 (21.2%)	16 (13.2%)	97 (19.3%)
	160-219	138 (36.1%)	34 (28.1%)	172 (34.2%)
	220-279	59 (15.4%)	23 (19.0%)	82 (16.3%)
	280-349	49 (12.8%)	21 (17.4%)	70 (14.0%)
	350-429	22 (5.8%)	12 (9.9%)	34 (6.8%)
	430 or more	10 (2.6%)	4 (3.3%)	14 (2.8%)

Table 14 compares the sample characteristics with the population, public employees in both national and local governments in Korea. When it comes to age, the sample is generally comparable to the population although older employees are slightly overrepresented in the sample. This is due to the fact that high-level public managers are overrepresented in the sample. The director generals are 8.9 percent in the sample (see Table 13), whereas they are about 1.21 percent in the national governments and 0.14 percent in local governments (MOGAHA, 1998).<sup>7</sup>

<sup>7</sup> The data are based on ranks (rank 2 and 3), not on positions. Therefore, the data approximate the number of the directors general within government.

The gender distribution of the sample is 86.1 percent male and 13.9 percent female, respectively. This is similar to the population of the national governments. However, compared to the population of the local governments, male employees are over-represented in the sample. This is also partly due to the fact that the sample included high-level public managers in the COTI. In Korea, male employees generally predominate in high-ranked positions, which are concentrated in the national governments. Therefore, the underrepresentation of female employees in the sample is not surprising. In sum, the sample of public employees is fairly representative of its own population in terms of both age and gender distributions.

Table 14. Comparison of the Sample Characteristics with those of the Population  
by Age and Gender

	Sample (Public Employees)	Population <sup>1</sup>	
		National	Local
Age (Mean)			
Male	42.87 years	40.34 years	40.85 years
Female	36.60 years	32.81 years	32.89 years
Gender			
Male	86.1 %	85.96 %	76.17 %
Female	13.9%	14.04 %	23.83 %

Note: 1. Employees in General Schedule (MOGAHA, 1998).

### Missing Data

Another way to assess sample quality involves examining missing data. Table 15 presents information on the missing data for each scale. The mean percent of missing data for the sample was slightly over one percent (1.13). More specifically, the sample of the public employees was 1.22 percent, whereas the sample of the private employees was 0.86 percent. This result appears to show that the issue of missing data was not a major problem in this study.

There are two methods in dealing with missing data — deletion and estimation. In the deletion strategy those cases with missing data are completely deleted and calculation of the estimates is made from those remaining cases. This study adopted the estimation strategy to avoid data loss occurring when the deletion strategy was employed. The estimation was based on the mean substitution method. Missing values on items of a scale were substituted with the series means of the non-missing values for the other items of that scale.

Table 15. Distribution of Missing Data

Scale	# of Items	Public Employees	Private Employees	Total
		# of Missing(%)	# of Missing (%)	#ofMissing(%)
Commitment to Organization	12	19 (4.96)	2 (1.60)	21(4.13)
Commitment to Management	12	20 (5.22)	6 (4.80)	26 (5.11)
Commitment to Supervisor	12	13 (3.39)	3 (2.40)	16 (3.15)
Commitment to Coworkers	12	8 (2.08)	5 (4.00)	13 (2.56)
Commitment to citizens/customers	12	8 (2.08)	2 (1.60)	10 (1.97)
Organizational Support	3	2 (0.52)	0 (0.00)	2 (0.39)
Top Management Support	3	1 (0.26)	0 (0.00)	1 (0.20)

Supervisor Support	3	5 (1.31)	0 (0.00)	5 (0.98)
Coworker Support	3	2 (0.52)	0 (0.00)	2 (0.39)
Social Supportiveness	3	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
Organizational Commitment	9	10 (2.61)	2 (1.60)	12 (2.36)
Job Security	2	4 (1.04)	0 (0.00)	4 (0.78)
Pay Satisfaction	3	1 (0.26)	2 (1.60)	3 (0.59)
Job Alternatives	2	1 (0.26)	0 (0.00)	1 (0.20)
Participation in Decision Making	2	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
Political Penetration	2	1 (0.26)	1 (0.80)	2 (0.39)
Service to citizens/customers	2	2 (0.52)	0 (0.00)	2 (0.39)
Service Orientation	2	2 (0.52)	1 (0.80)	3 (0.59)
Interaction with Top Management	1	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
Interaction with Supervisor	1	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
Interaction with Coworker	1	2 (0.52)	0 (0.00)	2 (0.39)
Interaction with Citizens/customers	1	3 (0.78)	0 (0.00)	3 (0.59)
Organizational Constraints	6	15 (3.91)	7 (5.60)	22 (4.33)
Leadership Turnover	2	2 (0.52)	0 (0.00)	2 (0.39)
Supervisor Turnover	1	1 (0.26)	0 (0.00)	1 (0.20)
Coworker Turnover	1	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)
Individualism–Collectivism	8	10 (2.61)	3 (2.40)	13 (2.56)
External Whistle Blowing	3	6 (1.57)	0 (0.00)	6 (1.18)
Public Service Motivation	14	11 (2.87)	1 (0.80)	12 (2.36)
Withdrawal Intention -organization	3	4 (1.04)	0 (0.00)	4 (0.78)
Withdrawal Intention - supervisor	3	5 (1.31)	1 (0.80)	6 (1.18)
Withdrawal Intention - Coworker	3	3 (0.78)	2 (1.60)	5 (0.98)
Search Behavior	3	1 (0.26)	1 (0.80)	2 (0.39)
Extra-efforts for Organization	3	6 (1.57)	0 (0.00)	6 (1.18)
Extra-efforts for Management	3	3 (0.78)	1 (0.80)	4 (0.78)
Extra-efforts for Supervisor	3	4 (1.04)	1 (0.80)	5 (0.98)
Extra-efforts for Coworker	3	2 (0.52)	0 (0.00)	2 (0.39)
Extra-efforts for citizens/customers	3	1 (1.26)	0 (0.00)	1 (0.20)
Mean	4.34	4.68 (1.22)	1.07 (0.86)	5.76 (1.13)

### Data Analysis

Using the raw data collected by self-administered questionnaires, the following analytical procedures were conducted with the aid of the SPSS for Windows. The basic statistical tools used in this research were descriptive statistics, reliability estimates, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis.

#### Strategies for Data Analysis

Frequency and Descriptive statistics of all items on all variable scores were examined. The means and standard deviation were checked in order to get information about whether the program of computing variable score was implementing properly as well as the nature of distributions for each item and variable. In particular, research suggests that normality violation leads to biased statistical results while conducting factor analysis and regression analysis. This issue was reported in detail in the following section.

For use in a study, any measure should be evaluated through construct validation procedures. Although this study focuses on the psychometric properties of the multi-base and multi-focus commitment measure, other measures were also evaluated on the basis of their reliability, dimensionality (factor structure), and convergent/discriminant validity.

Reliability refers to the extent to which consistent results are obtained when different measurement techniques, or questions, are used to measure the same object. Reliability estimates were checked to know whether the scales used in the current study were reliable measures (Cortina, 1993; Crocker & Algina, 1986). Although reliability may be calculated in a number of ways, this study adopted internal consistency reliability using Cronbach's alpha. Item-total correlations were also examined to identify unreliable items.

Factor analysis assesses the factor structures of the measures. Factor analysis is a statistical technique for summarizing interrelationships among some observed variables in order to find some smaller number of underlying factors (Lance & Vandenberg, in press). It has been widely used for identifying factorial structure of items as well as for data reduction. Twenty measures with 3 or more items were subjected to factor analysis because research suggests that at least 3 to 5 measured variables representing a common factor should be included in factor analysis (Fabrigar, L. R., Wegener, D. T., MacCallum, R. C., & Strahan, E. J., 1999).

Special interest was paid to assessing the psychometric properties of the multi-base and multi-focus commitment scale using EFA, whose results are presented in the next section. By knowing factorial structures of items, we can get clues about the convergent and discriminant validity of the construct scale for each variable. As an example, if the items of a measure factor together, it indicates a uni-dimensional factor structure and also the convergent validity of a measure. On the other hand, if items from different measures appropriately load on different factors, this indicates the existence of discriminant validity.

Separate factor analyses were performed for the measures, or scales, used in this study. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was employed using both the principal axis factoring method of extraction and the oblique rotation. When it comes to the sample size for factor analysis, researchers usually propose several rules of thumb. Adequate sample size is recognized as a function of such factors as the levels of communalities, statistical power, and the nature of sample (i.e., homogeneity of the sample). However, in general, under moderate conditions (communalities of .40 to .70, three to four measured variables

for each factor), a sample size of 200 or more seems advisable. In this sense, the sample sizes of this study (383 for public employees, 125 for private employees, 508 for total sample) are quite reasonable, although the sample size of private employees is a bit smaller than one might want. However, Arrindell and van der Ende (1985) also show some flexibility in the number of subjects for factor analysis. Moreover, consistency across the two samples increases confidence in the results obtained, despite any concerns about the small sample size of the private employee sample. Given concern about a single dataset (i.e., the sample of public employees), decisions regarding the appropriate factor numbers to retain, can be further improved by examining the other dataset (i.e., the sample of private employees).

On the other hand, most factor analyses in psychology have relied on principal component analysis (PCA), which most researchers believe is a type of EFA (Fabrigar et al., 1999). However, there are clear conceptual and mathematical distinctions between PCA and EFA. The former does not differentiate between common and unique variances, while the latter does. PCA also tends to inflate the factor loadings compared to EPA. Different results may occur especially under the situation of low communalities (e.g., less than .40) and few measured variables (e.g., less than three per factor). This study used EFA with the principal axis method as a method of factor extraction, one of the preferred exploratory–descriptive methods of factor extraction when analysis of common variance is desired (Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987).

Factor rotation helps select a single unique solution from among the infinite number of possible solutions by eliminating as many medium-sized loadings as possible and thus making the factors as distinctive as possible while retaining cases. Thus, it does

not change the number of factors, nor the total variance explained. It simply rearranges the manner in which the variables load on the factors (Kachigan, 1982). This study adopted the oblique rotation method, which assumes that the extracted factors have some degree of correlation among them. Advocacy of oblique rotation over orthogonal rotation is well established (Vandenberg, Self, & Seo, 1994). No single method of oblique rotation dominates the field, however. This study used direct oblimin option with delta zero, which corresponds to a direct quartimin rotation.

Researchers used several criteria in determining the number of factors. This study relied on a combination of three criteria — eigenvalues-greater-than-1, scree tests, and parallel analyses. Most variables were subjected to both eigenvalues and scree tests. Although both have been widely used in research, they have some drawbacks. Methodologists suggest that the eigenvalues-greater-than-1 rule consistently leads to underfactoring (Fabrigar et al., 1999) and a scree test is somewhat subjective (Kachigan, 1982). Therefore, the variables with two or more initial factors were additionally subjected to parallel analysis. Parallel analysis is an approach to compare eigenvalues obtained from the sample data with eigenvalues one would expect to obtain from random data. And the number of factors that have real eigenvalues greater than eigenvalues obtained from random data is selected. Research suggests that parallel analysis functions pretty well (Fabrigar et al., 1999).

These several rounds of factor analyses led to both combination and some elimination of variables. Based on factor analytic results for variables other than the commitment scales, items with factor loading less than 0.30 were dropped from that scale and from the subsequent analyses (see Table 16).

Table 16. Factor Loadings of Variables Other than Commitment Scales

Variables Items <sup>1</sup>	Public Employees (N=383)	Private Employees (N=125)	Total (N=508)
Organizational Support			
I 6-1	.820	.746	.807
I 6-2	.830	.678	.802
I 6-3	.465	.537	.476
Percentage of Variance	66.0	61.7	65.2
Top Management Support			
I 6-4	.796	.810	.800
I 6-5	.912	.887	.909
I 6-6	.479	.476	.484
Percentage of Variance	68.2	67.8	68.4
Supervisor Support			
I 6-7	.861	.832	.858
I 6-8	.912	.737	.875
I 6-9	.431	.509	.445
Percentage of Variance	68.7	65.0	67.9
Coworker Support			
I 6-10	.820	.877	.832
I 6-11	.820	.877	.832
Percentage of Variance	83.7	88.4	84.6
Social Supportiveness			
I 6-13	.823	.788	.814
I 6-14	.883	.901	.885
I 6-15	.823	.701	.804
Percentage of Variance	80.7	75.5	79.7
Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)			
I 7-1	.628	.468	.602
I 7-2	.853	.760	.840
I 7-3	.821	.752	.816
I 7-4	.867	.733	.846

I 7-5	.760	.667	.742
I 7-6	.768	.684	.752
I 7-7	.628	.441	.603
I 7-8	.773	.774	.777
I 7-9	.612	.698	.637
Percentage of Variance	61.0	51.1	59.6
Pay Satisfaction			
I 7-12	.894	.900	.895
I 7-13	.894	.900	.895
Percentage of Variance	90.0	90.5	90.1
Individualism–Collectivism			
I 8-1	.505	.378	.485
I 8-2	.395	.371	.399
I 8-3	.665	.775	.699
I 8-4	.776	.794	.780
I 8-6	.359	.414	.374
I 8-8	.574	.443	.554
Percentage of Variance	42.1	40.7	42.3
External Whistle-blowing Intention			
I 8-10	.595	.621	.598
I 8-11	.595	.621	.598
Percentage of Variance	67.7	69.3	67.9
Withdrawal Intention from Organization			
I 9-1	.903	.872	.900
I 9-2	.863	.935	.884
I 9-6	.404	.329	.411
Percentage of Variance	67.6	66.4	68.4
Withdrawal Intentions from Supervisor			
I 9-5	.879	.943	.892
I 9-7	.878	.843	.874

I 9-9	.388	.339	.388
Percentage of Variance	66.8	66.1	67.0
Withdrawal Intention from Coworkers			
I 9-3	.792	.830	.802
I 9-8	.792	.830	.802
Percentage of Variance	81.4	84.5	82.2
Search Behavior			
I 9-4	.661	.557	.654
I 9-10	.725	.748	.739
I 9-11	.396	.715	.495
Percentage of Variance	56.5	63.4	59.5
Extra-role Behaviors for Organization			
I 10-1	.494	.480	.489
I 10-2	.887	.793	.870
I 10-3	.769	.797	.775
Percentage of Variance	67.1	64.7	66.6
Extra-role Behaviors for Top Management			
I 10-4	.756	.895	.781
I 10-5	.881	.817	.866
I 10-6	.850	.702	.820
Percentage of Variance	79.1	76.3	78.4
Extra-role Behaviors for Supervisor			
I 10-7	.790	.746	.782
I 10-8	.878	.802	.863
I 10-9	.829	.827	.827
Percentage of Variance	79.5	75.1	78.6
Extra-role Behaviors for Coworkers			
I 10-10	.748	.768	.751

I 10-11	.902	.752	.870
I 10-12	.792	.771	.789
Percentage of Variance	77.4	72.2	76.3
Extra-role Behaviors for citizens/customers			
I 10-13	.774	.831	.792
I 10-14	.897	.861	.894
I 10-15	.853	.827	.855
Percentage of Variance	80.5	80.3	81.1

Note: 1. The item numbers in the first column indicated the location of the items in the questionnaire (see Appendix B). For example, ‘I 6-2’ means the second item in the sixth section of the questionnaire.

Across the two samples, most variables (items) show consistent factor loadings, suggesting that they have sound psychometric properties. However, thirteen items were deleted. All six items of Organizational Constraints were dropped due to their low factor loading and difficulties in interpreting those results. The eight items of Individualism–Collectivism with the initial two-solution were subjected to parallel analysis. After comparing the eigenvalues obtained from the samples with eigenvalues obtained from random data, one factor solution appeared. There were consistent results in both samples.

Although most hypotheses regarding the basic model (H1 to H5) were tested by EFA, this study also used hierarchical regression analysis suggested by Cohen and Cohen (1983), which allows the researcher to enter independent variables in blocks based on hypotheses. Hierarchical regression is a method that has been used widely for analyses that identify effects of independent variables of interest after controlling for a priori

effects of other variables (e.g., control variables). The procedure begins with the identification of the variables to be controlled for. These variables are entered into the regression equation as a block. An examination of the F and t values indicates whether the variables provide significant effect to be accounted for in analyzing the independent variables of interest. After accounting for the effect of the control variables, the independent variables of interest are entered together as a block. At this point, additional F and t values are tested to determine which effects are significant and the amount of variance explained after accounting for the effects of the control variables. The magnitude of the relationship is indicated by the change in  $R^2$  from the first block to the second block. Additional blocks may also be assessed in comparison to the previous blocks following the hierarchical structure of the model being tested.

In addition to hierarchical regression, correlation analysis was used to test hypotheses regarding the basic and submodels. It enabled the researcher to look at the directions and strengths of the correlations among variables. Significance tests of each correlation were conducted. The correlation analysis confirmed or disconfirmed the existence of significant correlations where predicted by the hypotheses. Of particular interest here is to check whether a constituency-specific commitment has a different (i.e. a sign of discriminant validity) or similar (i.e. a sign of convergent validity) set of significant correlations with antecedents and outcome variables compared to other constituency-specific commitments.

In order to test the sectoral differences in terms of global commitment and four constituency-specific commitments (H7 to H11), a series of t-tests for differences in certain mean values was performed. In addition, both factor analysis and regression

analysis were employed to test other hypotheses regarding the PSM and the Individualism–Collectivism. In data analysis, individual scale items were used in determining scale reliabilities and in EFA. For all other procedures such as correlation analysis and regression analysis, average scale scores were used.

### Statistical Issues

The important assumptions to be met before the application of the statistical tools discussed above are multivariate normality, linearity, and the absence of multicollinearity. Multivariate normality was examined through a test of univariate normality for each variable on the basis of its skewness and kurtosis. In general, severe nonnormality exists when skewness is greater than 2 and kurtosis is greater than 7 (Fabrigar et al., 1999). All the variables examined had less than 1 (or  $-1$ ) skewness. Only eight items had kurtosis greater than 1 but smaller than 7. Results indicate that variables do not have severe nonnormality problems.

Linearity assumption was examined for each dependent variable with each of its independent variables. Tests for this assumption were conducted using the SPSS MEANS procedure in the process of regression analysis. This procedure provides results of the tests of linearity and deviations from linearity, as well as  $R^2$  and  $\text{Eta}^2$ . Deviations from linearity that were significant at the .05 level were examined for nonlinearity. For those relationships that showed significant nonlinearity,  $R^2$  was compared with  $\text{Eta}^2$ s, along with a graphical examination of the relationship.  $R^2$  reflects the proportion of variation in the dependent variable accounted for by the linear model, whereas  $\text{Eta}^2$  do not assume a linear relationship between the variables. Large discrepancies between  $R^2$  and  $\text{Eta}^2$  suggest the nonlinearity between the variables. Overall results showed that the deviations

from linearity were either nonsignificant or minor that no transformations were required for the variables included in this study.

Multicollinearity concerns the relationship of independent variables to each other. It refers to the presence of intercorrelations among the independent variables. When high multicollinearity exists, it may result in serious estimation and interpretation problems. However, one thing to be noted is that it is a question of degree and not of kind and the distinction between the presence and the absence of multicollinearity is not meaningful at all. In order to detect the presence of high multicollinearity, first, an examination of the zero-order correlations among the independent variables was performed. Correlations less than .40 are considered acceptable, while those exceeding .80 are considered as indicating the presence of multicollinearity problems.

However, high zero-order correlations are not a necessary condition for the presence of high multicollinearity because high multicollinearity can exist even when the zero-order correlations are low. Consequently, an examination of VIF (Variance Inflation Factors) and tolerance was also conducted in the process of regression analysis. Generally, a value in VIF more than 10 (or a value in tolerance less than .10) indicates the presence of high multicollinearity. Overall results alleviated concerns for multicollinearity. In sum, multicollinearity does not appear to be a major problem in this study.

## CHAPTER 5

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of statistical analyses regarding the present hypotheses are presented in this chapter, which consists of five sections. In the first section, the results of descriptive statistics, internal consistency (reliability) tests, and t-tests are reported. In the second section, the analytic results for the hypotheses regarding the Basic Model (H1 to H5) are presented. Special attention is paid to the results of factor analyses on the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approach. The third section addresses the results for the hypotheses (H6) that were made for the purpose of validating the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approach within its nomological network with other related variables. Correlation and regression analyses were conducted and reported. The fourth section presents the results for public and private distinction in terms of commitment patterns and levels (H7 to H11). In the fifth section, the results for other hypotheses (H12 to H16) are presented. The final section summarizes the results briefly.

#### Preliminary Statistical Results

Table 17 reports descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) and reliabilities of the measurements used in this study. As a general rule, reliabilities over .70 are considered acceptable. The results indicate that most of the measures used in this study have acceptable levels of internal consistency. Three measures — Job Alternatives (.44), Participation in Decision-Making (.47), and External Whistle-blowing

Intention (.53) — showed low levels of internal consistency reliability by conventional standards. A conventionally acceptable level of reliability is a function of both the type of decisions made and the maturity of the instruments involved. Higher reliability is recommended when scores are used for the purpose of making important decisions that may influence the individuals and organizations, whereas lower reliability is tolerable for exploratory studies like this. In addition, the internal consistency (alpha) scores tend to increase as the number of items in a scale increase. Those three measures are quite short (two or three items). Therefore, this dissertation decided to retain those three measures — Job Alternatives, Participation in Decision-Making, and External Whistle-blowing Intention.

Comparisons of the differences of mean levels of study variables between public and private sector employees provide useful preliminary information. Table 17 shows the results of t-tests on mean scores on the ratings of study variables. First of all, the results suggest that Korean public employees had a higher level of commitment toward their organization, which is measured by both the global commitment scale and the OCQ. This result contradicts with previous research showing that public employees have lower levels of organizational commitment than private sector employees. When it comes to the constituency-specific commitments, the mean levels of commitment citizens/customers were different between the two samples. Public employees showed higher levels of the citizens/customers commitment than the private sector employees.

Such study variables as social supportiveness and job security were selected in the hope of identifying sectoral differences (see previous section). In general, the results support previous research on the sectoral differences measured by those variables.

Korean public employees perceived higher levels of job security, political penetration in management practices, direct service to citizens/customers, service orientation, and leadership turnover than Korean private sector employees. However, in contrast to previous research (Romzek, 1985b; Cho, 1990), Korean public employees perceived almost equal levels of social supportiveness, which is defined as the extent to which an employee feels her organization or job receives the proper recognition and respect for her work for the society as a whole.

Korean public employees also showed a higher collectivistic tendency than their counterparts in private firms. This is interesting because public service has to do with such characteristics as group, family, or community centeredness. In a similar and consistent manner, the mean level of PSM was significantly higher among public employees than among private employees. This result provides initial evidence that the PSM can be applied to Korean samples and has some discriminant validity. More detailed analyses on the factor structure of PSM are presented in the next section.

Korean public employees were less likely to plan to leave their current organizations, supervisors, and coworkers than private sector employees. Similarly, private employees were actively seeking another jobs more than public employees. Korean public employees also had more willingness to engage in extra-efforts beyond job descriptions for citizens/customers. But, in terms of extra-efforts for organization, top management, and supervisor, there were no differences between the two samples.

Table 17. Descriptive Statistics and Reliabilities of the Variables

Scale	Items	Public Employees			Private Employees			Total		
		M	SD	A	M	SD	A	M	SD	A
Global Commitment *	12	4.78	.66	.66	4.66	.56	.65	4.75	.64	.66
Commitment to Management	12	4.24	.76	.75	4.13	.69	.79	4.21	.74	.76
Commitment to Supervisor	12	4.29	.79	.78	4.34	.76	.82	4.30	.78	.79
Commitment to Coworkers	12	4.50	.66	.73	4.40	.72	.81	4.48	.68	.75
Commitment to citizens/customers**	12	4.45	.68	.72	4.19	.60	.77	4.39	.67	.74
Organizational Support	3	4.30	1.19	.74	4.23	1.00	.69	4.28	1.15	.73
Top Management Support **	3	4.23	1.25	.76	3.86	1.19	.75	4.14	1.24	.76
Supervisor Support	3	4.63	1.24	.77	4.62	1.07	.73	4.63	1.20	.76
Coworker Support	2	4.77	1.22	.81	4.75	1.16	.87	4.77	1.20	.82
Social Supportiveness	3	4.27	1.31	.88	4.23	.99	.84	4.26	1.24	.87
Organizational Commitment **	9	5.01	1.07	.92	4.59	.85	.88	4.91	1.03	.91
Job Security **	2	5.32	1.20	.84	4.00	1.38	.84	4.99	1.37	.87
Pay Satisfaction	2	3.90	1.46	.89	3.89	1.23	.89	3.90	1.41	.89
Job Alternatives	2	3.69	1.23	.42	3.87	1.07	.50	3.74	1.19	.44
Participation in Decision Making	2	4.24	1.21	.49	4.06	1.19	.39	4.20	1.21	.47
Political Penetration **	2	4.48	1.34	.73	3.89	1.20	.60	4.34	1.33	.71
Service to Citizen/ Customer **	2	5.05	1.12	.84	4.44	1.12	.77	4.90	1.15	.83

Service Orientation **	2	5.52	1.03	.86	5.06	1.02	.86	5.41	1.05	.86
Interaction with Top Management **	1	4.71	1.33	NA	4.14	1.32	NA	4.58	1.35	NA
Interaction with Supervisor **	1	5.05	1.25	NA	4.67	1.15	NA	4.96	1.23	NA
Interaction with Coworker **	1	5.13	1.22	NA	4.88	1.08	NA	5.07	1.19	NA
Interaction with Citizens/customers **	1	5.05	1.38	NA	4.46	1.15	NA	4.91	1.35	NA
Leadership Turnover **	2	4.12	1.41	.81	3.02	1.27	.88	3.85	1.45	.84
Supervisor Turnover **	1	4.20	1.36	NA	3.31	1.29	NA	3.99	1.40	NA
Coworker Turnover *	1	4.02	1.37	NA	3.78	1.21	NA	3.96	1.33	NA
Individualism- Collectivism **	6	5.28	.81	.70	4.95	.70	.67	5.20	.79	.70
External Whistle Blowing *	2	3.94	1.16	.52	3.73	.91	.56	3.89	1.11	.53
Public Service Motivation **	14	4.47	.61	.73	4.09	.54	.72	4.38	.61	.74
Withdrawal Intention – organization **	3	3.29	1.30	.73	3.99	1.16	.72	3.46	1.30	.74
Withdrawal Intention – supervisor **	3	3.33	1.24	.72	3.73	1.13	.71	3.43	1.22	.73
Withdrawal Intention – Coworker **	2	3.01	1.06	.77	3.42	.95	.82	3.11	1.05	.78
Search Behavior **	3	3.06	1.21	.61	3.80	1.22	.71	3.25	1.25	.66
Extra-efforts for	3	4.70	1.00	.74	4.55	.86	.72	4.67	.97	.74

Organization										
Extra-efforts for Management	3	4.23	1.17	.87	4.06	1.03	.84	4.19	1.14	.86
Extra-efforts for Supervisor	3	4.37	1.15	.87	4.40	.97	.83	4.37	1.11	.86
Extra-efforts for Coworker	3	4.75	.96	.85	4.61	.85	.81	4.72	.94	.84
Extra-efforts for citizens/customers	3	4.89	1.03	.88	4.37	.88	.88	4.76	1.02	.88
**										
Age **	1	42.0	7.47	NA	34.5	7.37	NA	40.2	8.12	NA
Organizational Tenure **	1	186.9	106.8	NA	85.5	80.1	NA	162.1	109.9	NA
Tenure with Top Management	1	30.7	30.3	NA	29.2	24.3	NA	30.3	28.9	NA
Tenure with Supervisor	1	21.4	36.6	NA	25.5	30.0	NA	22.4	35.1	NA
Tenure with Coworkers **	1	39.0	60.7	NA	25.9	22.7	NA	35.7	54.1	NA

Note: M, SD, and A denote arithmetic mean, standard deviation, Cronbach's alpha, respectively. The significances of t-tests for the mean differences between the public and private employees are noted by \* ( $p < .10$ , two-tailed) and \*\* ( $p < .05$ , two-tailed) in the first column.

### Testing Hypotheses Regarding the Basic Model

The Basic model assumes the existence of one global commitment (commitment to an organization as a whole) and four constituency-specific commitments (commitment

to top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers). In order to test the basic model, five hypotheses were made in the previous section.

### Testing H1 and H2

*Unidimensionality of the Fifteen (3 X 5) Commitment Scales.* H1 states that employees can distinguish global commitment and four constituency-specific commitments (distinction between five foci). H2 also recognizes that each commitment has three bases of commitment (affective, continuance, and normative). In order to test two hypotheses, a series of exploratory factor analyses (EFA) were performed. In the first wave of factor analyses, each of the 15 commitment subscales (5 foci X 3 bases) was subjected to EFA. This procedure aimed at making sure that each scale had unidimensionality. Principal axis extraction and oblique rotation were used in this procedure. Table 18 shows the results of EFA for public, private, and total samples. Only items with .40 or greater factor loadings were conservatively retained for the scales and from the subsequent analyses. As shown in Table 18, this decision resulted in the deletion of 5 items from the public employees sample and of 13 items from the private employees sample.

Table 18. Factor Loadings of the Commitment Scales

Variables Items <sup>1</sup>	Public Employees (N = 383)	Private Employees (N = 125)	Total (N = 508)
AC to Organization			
I 1-1 <sup>3</sup>	.543 <sup>2</sup>	.542	.552
I 1-6	.482	.449	.473
I 1-7	.763	.752	.768

I 1-8	.629	.412	.583
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.685, 5.04	.610, 4.72	.677, 4.96
Percentage of Variance	52.1	46.7	51.4
NC to Organization			
I 1-2	.136(deleted)	-.001(deleted)	.116(deleted)
I 1-5	.698	.651	.694
I 1-10	.804	.751	.795
I 1-11	.830	.751	.819
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.819, 5.01	.760, 4.69	.812, 4.93
Percentage of Variance	73.5	67.6	72.7
CC to Organization			
I 1-3	.560	.623	.571
I 1-4	.560	.623	.571
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.478, 4.86	.560, 4.82	.493, 4.85
Percentage of Variance	65.7	69.5	66.4
I 1-9	.533	.273(deleted)	.508
I 1-12	.533	.273(deleted)	.508
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.443, 3.72	-	.411, 3.84
Factor Correlation	-.262	-	-.247
AC to Top Management			
I 2-1	.643	.680	.651
I 2-6	.592	.636	.604
I 2-7	.787	.737	.782
I 2-8	.709	.698	.711
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.776, 4.29	.782, 3.94	.781, 4.20
Percentage of Variance	60.0	60.5	60.4
NC to Top Management			
I 2-2	.383(deleted)	.388(deleted)	.386(deleted)
I 2-5	.698	.617	.684
I 2-10	.735	.669	.725
I 2-11	.855	.860	.856
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.805, 4.37	.754, 4.11	.797, 4.31
Percentage of Variance	72.0	67.2	71.2

CC to Top Management			
I 2-3	.509	.557	.513
I 2-4	.509	.557	.513
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.412, 4.24	.475, 4.34	.417, 4.26
Percentage of Variance	63.0	65.6	63.2
I 2-9	.566	.310(deleted)	.527
I 2-12	.566	.325(deleted)	.527
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.484, 3.77	-	.433, 3.87
Factor Correlation	-.132	-	-.100
AC to Supervisor			
I 3-1	.690	.753	.700
I 3-6	.592	.506	.571
I 3-7	.738	.894	.769
I 3-8	.780	.787	.783
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.792, 4.46	.816, 4.45	.796, 4.46
Percentage of Variance	61.8	65.6	62.4
NC to Supervisor			
I 3-2	.467	.498	.473
I 3-5	.698	.708	.700
I 3-10	.742	.787	.752
I 3-11	.801	.827	.806
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.770, 4.41	.795, 4.42	.775, 4.41
Percentage of Variance	59.5	62.4	60.1
CC to Supervisor			
I 3-3	.537	.678	.565
I 3-4	.537	.678	.565
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.449, 4.28	.631, 4.37	.484, 4.30
Percentage of Variance	64.5	73.1	66.0
I 3-9	.541	.176(deleted)	.507
I 3-12	.541	.311(deleted)	.507
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.454, 3.70	-	.410, 4.10
Factor Correlation	0.02	-	.143
AC to Coworkers			

I 4-1	.656	.620	.630
I 4-6	.373(deleted)	.434	.382(deleted)
I 4-7	.799	.809	.813
I 4 -8	.719	.609	.713
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.766, 4.94	.719, 4.84	.760, 4.92
Percentage of Variance	68.2	55.1	67.7
NC to Coworker			
I 4-2	.337(deleted)	.527	.386(deleted)
I 4-5	.550	.700	.582
I 4-10	.620	.831	.679
I 4-11	.967	.835	.935
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.742, 4.72	.811, 4.43	.767, 4.64
Percentage of Variance	66.3	64.3	68.5
CC to Coworker			
I 4-3	.571	.747	.612
I 4-4	.571	.747	.612
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.490, 4.33	.714, 4.29	.544, 4.32
Percentage of Variance	66.3	78.0	68.8
I 4-9	.548	.515(deleted)	.519
I 4-12	.548	.393(deleted)	.519
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.463, 3.54	-	.425, 3.54
Factor Correlation	.363	-	.325
AC to citizens/customers			
I 5-1	.525	.433	.534
I 5-6	.416	.386(deleted)	.416
I 5-7	.841	.917	.842
I 5-8	.702	.917	.672
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.706, 4.61	.627, 4.21	.701, 4.53
Percentage of Variance	54.0	58.0	53.5
NC to citizens/customers			
I 5-2	.299(deleted)	.576	.348(deleted)
I 5-5	.587	.554	.581
I 5-10	.660	.699	.632

I 5-11	.910	.752	.930
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.756, 4.84	.738, 4.04	.750, 4.74
Percentage of Variance	67.4	56.2	66.7
CC to citizens/customers			
I 5-3	.520	.731	.572
I 5-4	.520	.731	.572
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.427, 4.51	.696, 4.14	.494, 4.42
Percentage of Variance	63.6	76.8	66.4
I 5-9	.627	.456(deleted)	.593
I 5-12	.627	.375(deleted)	.593
Reliability Alpha, Mean	.566, 3.46	-	.522, 3.51
Factor Correlation	.116	-	.051

Note: 1. The item numbers in the first column indicate the location of the items in the questionnaire (e.g., 'I 1-2' means the second item in the first section of the questionnaire.). 2. The factor loadings are based on principal axis extraction with oblique rotation. 3. It is the shaded items that were used for the scales.

Most affective (AC) and normative (NC) commitment scales without regard to foci showed medium to high factor loadings, which strongly suggests their unidimensionality. In addition, they also showed acceptable internal consistency reliabilities with the range of .610 to .819. For the public employee sample, most of the four AC items converged in one factor with acceptable factor loadings. The second item in the AC scales to any foci — “I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization (top management, supervisor, coworker, and citizens/customers.” — showed relatively lower factor loadings than the other three AC items, however. This pattern was almost exactly replicated in the private sector employee sample.

In terms of NC items, the first items of NC to organization, top management, coworker, and citizens/customers — “If the values and goals of this organization (top management, coworker, and citizens/customers) were different, I would not be as attached to this organization.” — showed low factor loadings across the two samples and were deleted from the scale. This seems to be related to the wording of those items (double negation). The first NC item for supervisor was retained because it showed acceptable factor loading (.467 for the public employees and .498 for the private employees), however.

Items for Continuance commitment (CC) scales to any foci showed an inconsistent pattern. In the public sector sample, two-factor solutions generally emerged. The two items of the CC scales to any foci — “Right now, staying with my organization (top management, supervisor, coworkers, citizens/customers) is a matter of necessity as much as desire.” and “ If I had not already put too much myself into this organization (top management, supervisor, coworkers, citizens/customers), I might consider working elsewhere.” — resulted in one factor. On the other hand, the other two items — “My private views about this organization (top management, supervisor, coworkers, citizens/customers) are different than those I express publicly.” and “Unless this organization (top management, supervisor, coworkers, citizens/customers) rewards me for it in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort on behalf of this organization.” — led to another factor. The factor correlations between the two factors across the CC scales to five foci were relatively low and also showed negative associations in CC to organization and CC to top management.

This result is hard to interpret, but it generally suggests that Korean respondents conceive the latter two items differently from the former two items. The means for the first and second items for CC to organization were 4.77 and 4.95, while the means for the third and fourth items for CC to organization were 3.71 and 3.73.

On the other hand, CC items also produced two factor solutions in the private employee sample. However, the second factor consisting mostly of the third and fourth items of the CC scales shows low ( $< .40$ ) factor loadings. Therefore, the third and fourth items with low factor loadings were deleted from the scales.

Only items with acceptable ( $.40$  or greater) factor loadings across the two samples were used for the scales for correlation and regression analyses. All in all, this led to deletion of sixteen of sixty items. Table 18 summarizes the factor loadings, reliabilities, and mean values of commitment scales used in study.

*Zero-order Correlations among the Commitment Scales.* Following initial factor analyses, two additional analyses — correlation analyses and factor analyses — were performed in order to test H1 and H2. Zero-order correlations were examined first. High correlations (over  $.50$ ) generally indicate that the two scales lack discriminant validity, whereas low correlations (below  $.30$ ) suggest discriminant validity. The examination of the correlations provides initial evidence about the psychometric properties of the commitment scales.

All correlations except two were significant at the level of  $p < .01$  (see Table 19). In order to test H1, correlations among AC (NC, and CC) scales to five foci were examined.

Table 19. Zero-order Correlations among the Commitment Scales

Scales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. AC to Organization		.648**	.335**	.593**	.563**	.288**	.522**	.506**	.145	.334**	.253**	.299**	.410**	.278**	.147
2. NC to Organization	.701**		.455**	.605**	.703**	.476**	.534**	.619**	.300**	.414**	.407**	.341**	.506**	.418**	.193*
3. CC to Organization	.375**	.458**		.266**	.411**	.424**	.277**	.354**	.444**	.276**	.255**	.436**	.237**	.184**	.317**
4. AC to Top Management	.624**	.566**	.356**		.734**	.456**	.559**	.557**	.321**	.325**	.355**	.331**	.462**	.373**	.248**
5. NC to Top Management	.501**	.572**	.363**	.749**		.548**	.534**	.694**	.425**	.434**	.508**	.391**	.507**	.486**	.350**
6. CC to Top Management	.234**	.323**	.367**	.440**	.477**		.322**	.510**	.622**	.424**	.423**	.501**	.361**	.472**	.423**
7. AC to Supervisor	.587**	.483**	.221**	.677**	.628**	.259**		.760**	.353**	.402**	.359**	.370**	.427**	.336**	.243**
8. NC to Supervisor	.482**	.495**	.328**	.575**	.734**	.419**	.741**		.551**	.449**	.544**	.480**	.519**	.479**	.449**
9. CC to Supervisor	.278**	.283**	.305**	.331**	.489**	.531**	.377**	.593**		.423**	.464**	.700**	.360**	.490**	.603**
10. AC to Coworkers	.454**	.382**	.235**	.411**	.398**	.195**	.497**	.414**	.285**		.685**	.548**	.489**	.527**	.221*
11. NC to Coworkers	.438**	.472**	.291**	.379**	.482**	.289**	.455**	.552**	.393**	.645**		.602**	.536**	.620**	.481**
12. CC to Coworkers	.138**	.167**	.170**	.197**	.243**	.414**	.202**	.346**	.481**	.313**	.434**		.367**	.455**	.543**
13. AC to Citizens/Customers	.494**	.477**	.263**	.519*	.488**	.253**	.495**	.416**	.251**	.513**	.514**	.191**		.714**	.463**
14. NC to Citizens/Customers	.446**	.513**	.331**	.403**	.467**	.293**	.378**	.455**	.306**	.410**	.554**	.221**	.682**		.558**
15. CC to Citizens/Customers	.171**	.258**	.305**	.155**	.269**	.448**	.129*	.260**	.451**	.184**	.339**	.492**	.327**	.448**	

Note: Values below the diagonal are the results of the public employee sample and values over the diagonal are those of the private employee sample. \*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

The affective commitments (AC) to five foci showed medium to large positive correlations with the range of .334 to .677. The smallest correlation was between AC to coworkers and AC to organization in the private employee sample, whereas the largest was between AC to supervisor and AC to top management in the public employee sample. In general, the correlations among AC to organization, top management, and supervisor were over .50, indicating that respondents had difficulties in distinguishing them. On the other hand, the correlations between AC to organization (or top management) and AC to coworkers were relatively low, although they were over .30. The correlations among normative commitments to the five foci (NC) were also positive and large with the range of .407 to .734. The largest correlation was between NC to top management and NC to supervisor in the public employee sample, whereas the smallest was between NC to organization and NC to coworkers. This generally suggests that respondents distinguish between NC to organizations and NC to coworkers more easily than they do between NC to top management and NC to supervisor.

On the other hand, the continuance commitments to five foci displayed inconsistent correlations across the two samples with the range of .170 to .700. In the public employee sample, the largest correlation was between CC to top management and CC to supervisor (.531), whereas the smallest was between CC to organization and CC to coworkers (.170). On the other hand, in the private employee sample, the largest was between CC to supervisor and CC to coworkers (.700), whereas the smallest was between CC to organization and CC to citizens/customers (.317).

The high correlations over .50 among AC and NC to organization, top management, and supervisor raise questions about the possibility of distinguishing among

them. However, a closer look at the magnitudes of correlations among them explains that AC to organization is more strongly correlated with AC to top management (.624 and .593) than with AC to supervisor (.587 and .522), coworkers (.454 and .334), and citizens/customers (.494 and .410). This suggests the possibility (although weak) of distinctions among commitments to the five foci. In general, the correlations among the commitment scales do not support H1 fully.

In order to test H2, correlations among three bases within a commitment focus were examined. The correlations between AC and NC were larger than those between AC and CC, or between NC and CC, suggesting that respondents do not distinguish between AC and NC. The correlations between AC and NC within a commitment focus were within the range of .645 to .760. The correlations between AC and CC were from .313 to .548. The correlations between NC and CC were from .434 to .602. These results do not fully support H2 about the existence of three distinctive bases of each commitment. The next section deals with additional EFA results regarding H1 and H2.

*Assessment of the Distinction of Five Foci.* The second wave of EFA was additionally performed to ascertain whether respondents can distinguish between commitment to organization, top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers (H1). AC (or NC, CC) items to five foci confirmed to have unidimensionality were subjected to EFA. Tables 20 to 22 present the EFA results.

Table 20. Factor Loadings of AC Items without regard to Commitment Foci

Items	Public Employees					Private Employees				
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
AC to Organization										
I 1-1	.436					.448				
I 1-6					.514	.315				
I 1-7	.488					.647				
I 1-8	.368					.281				
AC to Top Management										
I 2-1	.645					.650				
I 2-6					.527	.683				
I 2-7	.688					.678				
I 2-8	.456						.563			
AC to Supervisor										
I 3-1		.320					.473			
I 3-6					.630					-.888
I 3-7		.325				.571				
I 3-8		.986				.740				
AC to Coworkers										
I 4-1			-.585					.538		
I 4-6	-	-	-	-	-			.549		
I 4-7			-.804					.709		
I 4-8			-.675					.595		
AC to citizens/customers										
I 5-1	.319								-.426	
I 5-6					.516	-	-	-	-	-
I 5-7				-.617					-.784	
I 5-8				-.774					-.454	

Note: The item numbers in the first column indicate the location of the items in the questionnaire (e.g., 'I 1-2' means the second item in the first section of the questionnaire.). Factor loadings are based on the maximum likelihood extraction with oblique rotation. Only the highest factor loadings are presented. Percentages of variance are 63.5 for the public employee sample and 63.7 for the private employee sample.

Table 21. Factor Loadings of NC Items without regard to Commitment Foci

Items	Public Employees			Private Employees		
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
NC to Organization						
I 1-5	-.821			.588		
I 1-10	-.559			.434		
I 1-11	-.584			.785		
NC to Top Management						
I 2-5		.585		.655		
I 2-10		.748				.869
I 2-11		.648		.616		
NC to Supervisor						
I 3-2		.442			.344	
I 3-5		.630		.739		
I 3-10		.745		.428		
I 3-11		.663		.717		
NC to Coworkers						
I 4-2	-	-	-		.441	
I 4-5			.388		.655	
I 4-10	-		.435		.906	
I 4-11			.527		.873	
NC to citizens/customers						
I 4-2	-	-	-		.351	
I 5-5			.468		.397	
I 5-10			.656		.520	
I 5-71			.796		.571	

Note: The item numbers in the first column indicate the location of the items in the questionnaire (e.g., 'I 1-2' means the second item in the first section of the questionnaire.). Factor loadings are based on the maximum likelihood extraction with oblique rotation. Only the highest factor loadings are presented. Percentages of variance are 59.7 for the public employee sample and 57.8 for the private employee sample.

Table 22. Factor Loadings of CC Items without regard to Commitment Foci

Items	Public Employees				Private Employees	
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 1	Factor 2
CC to Organization						
I 1-3	.545				.579	
I 1-4	.247					.428
I 1-9	.645				-	-
I 1-12		.642			-	-
CC to Top Management						
I 2-3		.649			.698	
I 2-4				.576		.669
I 2-9	.836				-	-
I 2-12			.694		-	-
CC to Supervisor						
I 3-3		.775			.699	
I 3-4				.643		.988
I 3-9	.724				-	-
I 3-12			.748		-	-
CC to Coworkers						
I 4-3		.552			.543	
I 4-4				.702		.424
I 4-9	.679				-	-
I 4-12			.647		-	-
CC to citizens/customers						
I 5-3		.653			.401	
I 5-4				.589		.404
I 4-9	.605				-	-
I 4-12			.557		-	-

Note: The item numbers in the first column indicate the location of the items in the questionnaire (e.g., 'I 1-2' means the second item in the first section of the questionnaire.). Factor loadings are based on the maximum likelihood extraction with oblique rotation. Only the highest factor loadings are presented. Percentages of variance are 55.6 for the public employee sample and 55.7 for the private employee sample.

In the public sector sample, all AC items to five foci were subjected to EFA. Five factors initially emerged with over 1 eigenvalue (see Table 20). However, a closer look at the factor pattern matrix revealed that the fifth factor was comprised of the second items of the four AC scales, which are negatively worded items — “I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (top management, supervisor, and citizens/customers)”. In the private employees sample, the fifth factor was composed of one item. Overall, the results suggested the presence of four factors. Most items meant to measure organizational AC and top management AC loaded on one factor. Most items meant to measure supervisor AC loaded on another factor. All three items to measure coworker AC loaded on another factor. Finally, items to measure citizens/customers AC loaded on another factor, although somewhat inconsistently.

Interestingly, items to measure coworkers and citizens/customers had negative factor loadings. An inspection on the factor correlation matrix in the public employee sample showed that the two factors (factor 3 and 4) presumably representing coworker AC and citizens/customers AC had negative correlations with the other two factors (factors 1 and 2) representing AC to organization and top management, and supervisor. The correlations of factor 3 with factors 1 and 2 were -.376 and -.433, respectively. The correlations of factor 4 with the factor 1 and 2 were -.230 and -.290. On the other hand, the correlation between factors 3 and 4 was .463. However, in the private employee sample, only factor 4 representing AC to citizens/customers had negative correlation with other factors. The correlations of factor 4 with factors 1, 2, and 3 were -.394, -.285, and -.314, respectively. This suggests the possible conflicts between AC to different foci.

The NC items to five foci were also subjected to EFA (see Table 21). The two samples revealed differences in terms of both factor loadings and factor correlations. In the public sector sample, three factors emerged. Overall, most items meant to measure organizational NC loaded on one factor (factor 1). On the other hand, all items meant to measure both top management and supervisor NC loaded distinctly (factor 2). Finally, all items meant to measure coworkers and citizens/customers NC loaded on the third factor (factor 3). Interestingly, the factor 1 representing organizational NC had negative factor loadings and factor correlations (-.463 with factor 2, -.421 with factor 3). The correlation between factor 2 and 3 was .539.

In the private employees sample, on the other hand, two-factor solution was appropriate, although initial EFA produced three-factor solution, as Table 21 shows. Most NC items for organization, top management, and supervisor loaded on one factor, whereas all items meant to measure NC to coworkers and citizens/customers loaded on another factor. There was a large correlation between factors 1 and 2 (.574).

The CC items to five foci were also subjected to EFA (see Table 22). Items loaded on different four (the public employee sample) and two (private employee sample) factors that follow items, not foci. This indicates that respondents do not distinguish CC according to foci.

In summary, with regard to AC (based on attachment to social relationship with an entity, or a desire for affiliation), Korean respondents distinguish four foci — AC to organization and top management, AC to supervisor, AC to coworkers, and AC to citizens/customers. These results are consistent in both the public and private employees

samples. This result generally supports the previous research in the American setting arguing that AC has multiple foci (Reichers, 1986; Suszko, 1990).

Additionally and interestingly, there were negative associations among factor correlations across the two samples. This implies that Korean employees may feel conflicts between commitments. Public employees conceive AC to coworkers and citizens/customers in a manner different from AC to organization, top management, and AC to supervisor. On the other hand, private employees conceive only AC to citizens/customers differently from AC to other foci. They seem to feel that AC to citizens/customers outside the organizations is different from AC to foci within an organization.

In terms of NC items (based on congruence between the norms, mission, and values of an entity), NC items to coworkers and to citizens/customers loaded on one factor in both samples. In addition, NC items to top management and to supervisor also loaded on another factor in both samples. One difference between the two samples is that items intended to measure NC to organization loaded on the third factor with negative factor loadings in the public employees sample. This indicates that organizational goals and values are conceived differently from goals and values of other foci among public employees.

Finally, consistent with previous research (see Figure 3), the EFA results suggest that respondents do not distinguish between CC (based on personal investment, rewards, and costs associated with membership of an entity) to any foci. H1 is partially supported.

*Assessment of the Distinction of Three Bases.* In order to know whether each commitment (organizational, top management, supervisor, coworker, and

citizens/customers commitments) has three bases (affective, continuance, and normative) (H2), items within a commitment focus were subjected to EFA. Due to the inconsistent factor structure of the CC items (see Table 18), only the first and second items of the CC scales are included in EFA.

When it comes to commitment to organization (or global commitment), the results indicate that both public and private sector respondents do not distinguish AC from NC. This result was consistent with correlation analysis in the previous section (see Table 19). Most items intended to measure AC and NC to organization loaded on one factor as shown in Table 23. However, CC items loaded on another factor. The factor correlations between the factor 1 and 2 were .451 in the public employee sample and .449 in the private employee sample.

Table 23. Factor Loadings of Items for Commitment to Organization

Items	Public Employees		Private Employees	
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2
AC				
I 1-1	.426		.494	
I 1-6	.600		.544	
I 1-7	.818		.606	
I 1-8	.524		.485	
NC				
I 1-5	.745		.765	
I 1-10	.670		.509	
I 1-11	.610		.568	
CC				
I 1-3		.363		.427

I 1-4	.584	.742
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Note: The item numbers in the first column indicate the location of the items in the questionnaire (e.g., 'I 1-2' means the second item in the first section of the questionnaire.). Factor loadings are based on the maximum likelihood extraction with oblique rotation. Only the highest factor loadings are presented. Percentages of variance are 66.1 for the public employee sample and 52.9 for the private employee sample.

With regard to commitment to top management, all items factor-analyzed loaded on one factor in both samples as Table 24 displays. Factor loadings are robust with the range of .329 to .803. This means that Korean public and private employees do not distinguish between the three bases of their commitment to top management. However, factor loadings of CC items are relatively small compared to those for the AC and NC items.

Table 24. Factor Loadings of Items for Commitment to Top Management

Items	Public Employees	Private Employees
	Factor 1	Factor 1
AC		
I 2-1	.685	.655
I 2-6	.593	.546
I 2-7	.704	.718
I 2-8	.709	.762
NC		
I 2-5	.803	.791

CC	I 2-10	.674	.639
	I 2-11	.763	.698
	I 2-3	.527	.508
	I 2-4	.329	.443

Note: The item numbers in the first column indicate the location of the items in the questionnaire (e.g., 'I 1-2' means the second item in the first section of the questionnaire.). Factor loadings are based on the maximum likelihood extraction with oblique rotation. Only the highest factor loadings are presented. Percentages of variance are 48.9 for the public employee sample and 48.2 for the private employee sample.

On the other hand, items meant to measure commitment to supervisor produced two factors. One factor is composed of AC and NC items, whereas the other consists of two CC items as Table 25 shows. The factor correlations between the two factors are .583 (for the public employees) and .455 (for the private employees). This pattern is similar to the result obtained in commitment to organization.

Table 25. Factor Loadings of Items for Commitment to Supervisor

Items	Public Employees		Private Employees	
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2
AC				
I 3-1	.552		.630	
I 3-6	.728		.622	

NC	I 3-7	.711		.849
	I 3-8	.739		.731
	I 3-5	.743		.537
	I 3-10	.328		.431
	I 3-11	.461		.525
CC	I 3-3		.761	.607
	I 3-4		.394	.776

Note: The item numbers in the first column indicate the location of the items in the questionnaire (e.g., 'I 1-2' means the second item in the first section of the questionnaire.). Factor loadings are based on the maximum likelihood extraction with oblique rotation. Only the highest factor loadings are presented. Percentages of variance are 61.6 for the public employee and 63.8 for the private employee sample.

This pattern was also replicated in items meant to measure commitment to coworkers. However, the factor loadings of items for commitment to coworkers are somewhat different in some respects. First, factor 2 in the public employee sample showed negative factor loadings and high factor correlation (-.708) with factor 1. Second, in the private employee sample, three factors emerged. Two items in the NC items to coworkers loaded on a different factor (the factor 3). All in all, the factor loadings of the NC items to coworkers are not consistent in the two samples. In the public employee

sample, AC seems to be dominant, whereas in the private employee sample, there seems to be relatively clear distinction among the three bases of coworker commitment.

Finally, factor analytic results on the items intended to measure commitment to citizens/customers also showed an inconsistent pattern across the two samples. In the public employees sample, most items loaded on factor 1 except three items that had negative loadings. This suggests that public employees do not distinguish between the three bases of citizens/customers commitment.

Table 26. Factor Loadings of Items for Commitment to Coworkers

Items	Public Employees		Private Employees		
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
AC					
I 4-1	.675			.407	
I 4-6	-	-	.282		
I 4-7	.789		.740		
I 4-8	.705		.803		
NC					
I 4-2	-	-		.707	
I 4-5	.541		.803		
I 4-10		-.818			.486
I 4-11		-.694			.878
CC					
I 4-3		-.340		.858	
I 4-4		-.236		.503	

Note: The item numbers in the first column indicate the location of the items in the questionnaire (e.g., 'I 1-2' means the second item in the first section of the questionnaire.). Factor loadings are based on the maximum likelihood extraction with

oblique rotation. Only the highest factor loadings are presented. Percentages of variance are 59.3 for the public employee and 69.5 for the private employee sample

On the other hand, the private employees sample generally showed that private employees distinguish between CC to citizens/customers and AC (and NC) to citizens/customers. However, the large factor correlation (.566) between the two factors also suggests that they are closely related.

Table 27. Factor Loadings of Items for Commitment to citizens/customers

Items	Public Employees		Private Employees	
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2
AC				
I 5-1	.661		.521	
I 5-6	.269		-	-
I 5-7		-.616	.564	
I 5-8	.	-.902	.719	
NC				
I 5-2	-	-		.389
I 5-5	.781		.583	
I 5-10		-.525	.694	
I 5-11	.506		.697	
CC				
I 5-3	.559			1.038
I 5-4	.253			.373

Note: The item numbers in the first column indicate the location of the items in the questionnaire (e.g., 'I 1-2' means the second item in the first section of the

questionnaire.). Factor loadings are based on the maximum likelihood extraction with oblique rotation. Only the highest factor loadings are presented. Percentages of variance are 54.9 for the public employee sample and 57.8 for the private employee sample.

In summary, H2 regarding the distinction between the bases of commitment to each focus is not fully supported, as evidence for the distinction between AC and NC was not found. AC and NC items loaded together except for one case (coworker commitment among private employees). However, this study found some evidence of the existence of the distinction between CC and AC (or NC). Despite this finding, the few items of CC scales prevent further interpretation.

#### Testing H3, H4 and H5

H3 states that the basic model is superior to the OCQ in explaining variances in organization–level outcome variables (e.g., extra-role behavior for organization, withdrawal intention from organization, and search behavior). This hypothesis intends to discover whether the inclusion of the multi-focus and multi-base commitment measures explains more variances in organization–level variables than the OCQ alone does.

In order to test H3, this study ran four regression analyses for each organization–level outcome variable (see Becker et al., 1996). A total of 14 regression analyses were performed for each sample. In a set of regression analyses for each organization–level outcome variable, the first regressed one outcome variable on the control variables (age, gender, and marriage). This regression allows us to examine variance in the outcome variable accounted for by those variables individually and by a set. The results of this

analysis were also used as a starting point of reference for comparing the amount of variance accounted for by sets of variables containing both the control variables and other variables of interest, for example, such forms of commitment as the OCQ and the multi-base and multi-focus commitments. If other variables of interest did not explain variance in the outcome variable beyond that explained by the control variables alone, then, the variables of interest would be less meaningful. This is a conservative, robust, and omnibus test for the usefulness of a variable of interest.

With this reasoning in mind, the second procedure regressed the outcome variable on a set of variables including the control variables and the OCQ. This regression made it possible to identify increased variance by including the OCQ. In the third step, commitments to four foci (disregarding the bases of commitment) were entered. Because OCQ measures overall commitment to organization, the Commitment to Organization scale in the multi-focus commitment scale was not entered in the regression analysis. This regression analysis was aimed at determining whether the multi-focus characteristic of the model explained variance above and beyond that explained by the control variables and the OCQ. The fourth step regressed the outcome variable on three bases of commitment (disregarding the foci of commitment). Because OCQ measures affective commitment to organization, the affective commitment scale in the multi-base commitment scale was not entered. The results of the third and fourth regression analyses were used in combination to test H3. Table 28, 29, and 30 summarize the results of regression analyses. The regression results offer only partial support for H3.

When it comes to withdrawal intention from organization, an outcome variable widely researched in the literature of organizational commitment, the inclusion of OCQ

considerably increased the variance in explaining the outcome variable, -23.7 percent in the public employees sample and 32.1% in the private employee sample. The OCQ is significantly correlated with withdrawal intention from organization ( $\beta = -.52, p < .01$  in the public employees sample and  $\beta = -.59, p < .01$  in the private employee sample). This result is consistent with the previous research (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

The inclusion of the four foci (top management, supervisor, coworkers and citizens/customers) increased variance only marginally — 0.8 percent in the public employee sample and 4 percent in the private employees sample — beyond and above that explained by the OCQ. Only commitment to citizens/customers in the private employee sample had a significant and positive relation with the withdrawal intention from organization after controlling for the OCQ ( $\beta = .20, p < .05$ ).

The inclusion of two bases (normative and continuance commitments) explained 1.2 percent more (in the public employees sample) and 3.8 percent more of the variance (in the private employees sample) in the withdrawal intention from organization more than OCQ did. Normative commitment among the public employees showed a significantly negative association with the withdrawal intention from organization after controlling for the OCQ ( $\beta = -.17, p < .05$ ). This suggests that the OCQ does not capture the normative commitment that has a negative impact on the withdrawal intention from organization among public employees. Interestingly, CC in both samples showed a positive and significant relation with the withdrawal intention. This suggests that Korean public and private employees with CC are more likely to intend to leave organization.

With regard to search behavior, the results also provide marginal support for H3. The inclusion of four foci increased 5.5 percent of variance (in the private employee

sample) and 1.3 percent (in the public employee sample) in the search behavior above and beyond that explained by the OCQ. Commitment to supervisor showed a significant and negative relation with the search behavior among private employees after controlling for the OCQ ( $\beta = -.28$ ,  $p < .05$ ). The inclusion of two bases (NC and CC) does not increase the acceptable level of variance in search behavior after controlling for the OCQ.

When it comes to extra-efforts for organization, the variances increased by the inclusion of the multi-focus commitment scales were 5 percent in the public employee sample and 2.1 percent in the private employee sample. The commitment to coworker in the public employee sample showed a positive relation with extra-efforts for organization after controlling for the OCQ ( $\beta = .18$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

The increased variance in extra-efforts for organization caused by the inclusion of two bases (NC and CC) was 2.9 percent in the public employee sample and 2.1 percent in the private employee sample (see Table 30). NC among public employees was significantly related to extra-efforts for organization ( $\beta = .19$ ,  $p < .05$ ). In the private sector employee sample, however, the inclusion of the multiple bases and foci does not provide much help in explaining extra-efforts for organization. In sum, both CC and NC had positive impacts on extra-efforts for organization only among public employees.

Finally, when it comes to external whistle-blowing intention, the regression analyses failed to generate significant results. Therefore, those results are not reported here. This result may come from inadequacy of the scale or from the tendency of respondents to avoid those questions on the external whistle-blowing intention despite the strong promise of confidentiality that both the target organizations and researcher provided during the survey. All in all, H3 was not fully supported.

Table 28. Summary of Regression Analyses — Withdrawal Intention from Organization

Variables	Public Employees					Private Employees				
	$\beta$	t	R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	F	$\beta$	t	R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	F
Step 1			.066		8.87**			.091		3.95**
Age	-.27	-4.94**				-.26	-2.20*			
Gender	-.02	-.47				-.04	.38			
Marriage	.02	.44				-.03	-.25			
Step 2			.303	.237	40.83**			.412	.321	20.49**
Age	-.09	-1.82				-.12	-1.17			
Gender	.01	.19				-.01	-.06			
Marriage	.04	.87				-.08	-.85			
OCQ	-.52	-11.30**				-.59	-7.99**			
Step 3			.311	.008	20.98**			.452	.040	11.65**
Age	-.07	-1.42				-.11	-1.16			
Gender	.01	.18				.00	.03			
Marriage	.03	.58				-.11	-1.18			
OCQ	-.46	-7.09**				-.70	-7.65**			
Com. to Tmg.	-.02	.33				.03	.30			
Com. to Sup.	-.10	-1.39				-.02	-.13			
Com. to Cow.	.07	1.23				.04	.36			
Com. to Clt.	.04	.63				.20	1.99*			
Step 4			.314	.012	28.60**			.450	.038	15.69**
Age	-.09	-1.79				-.12	-1.29			
Gender	.00	.06				-.01	.06			
Marriage	.03	.74				-.10	-1.10			
OCQ	-.44	-7.12**				-.70	-7.44**			
NC	-.17	-2.30*				.05	.44			
CC	.12	2.10*				.19	2.00*			

Note : Com. to Org. = Commitment to organization. Com. to Tmg. = Commitment to top management. Com. to Sup. = Commitment to supervisor. Com. to Cow. = Commitment to coworkers. Com to Clt. = Commitment to citizens/customers.  $\beta$  = standardized regression coefficients. \*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

Table 29. Summary of Regression Analyses — Search Behavior

Variables	Public Employees					Private Employees				
	$\beta$	t	R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	F	$\beta$	t	R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	F
Step 1			.065		8.72**			.136		6.21**
Age	-.26	-4.85**				-.40	-3.46**			
Gender	-.05	-.92				-.02	-.23			
Marriage	-.00	-.04				.04	.33			
Step 2			.193	.128	22.43**			.284	.148	11.62**
Age	-.13	-2.48*				-.30	-2.80**			
Gender	-.02	-.49				-.05	-.58			
Marriage	.01	.21				.00	.03			
OCQ	-.38	-7.72**				-.40	-4.92**			
Step 3			.205	.013	12.02**			.339	.055	7.25**
Age	-.15	-2.70*				-.36	-3.35**			
Gender	-.02	-.42				-.07	-.78			
Marriage	.00	.08				.00	.04			
OCQ	-.44	-7.25**				-.50	-5.01**			
Com. to Tmg.	.10	1.36				.31	2.55*			
Com. to Sup.	-.10	-1.15				-.28	-2.15*			
Com. to Cow.	.10	1.56				.10	.85			
Com. to Clt.	.03	.40				.07	.65			
Step 4			.196	.003	15.21**			.300	.015	8.20**
Age	-.15	-2.66**				-.31	-2.84**			
Gender	-.02	-.44				-.05	-.52			
Marriage	.01	.23				-.01	-.08			
OCQ	-.43	-6.35**				-.50	-4.69**			
NC	.06	.70				.11	.85			
CC	.03	.53				.06	.59			

Note : Com. to Org. = Commitment to organization. Com. to Tmg. = Commitment to top management. Com. to Sup. = Commitment to supervisor. Com. to Cow. = Commitment to coworkers. Com to Clt. = Commitment to citizens/customers.  $\beta$  = standardized regression coefficients. \*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

Table 30. Summary of Regression Analyses – Extra-efforts for Organization

Variables	Public Employees					Private Employees				
	$\beta$	t	R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	F	$\beta$	t	R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	F
Step 1			.097		13.43**			.052		2.17
Age	.28	5.31**				.16	1.32			
Gender	-.09	-1.82				-.15	-1.44			
Marriage	-.08	-1.45				-.08	-.67			
Step 2			.305	.209	41.34**			.167	.115	5.86**
Age	.12	2.35*				.07	.63			
Gender	-.12	-2.76**				-.12	-1.26			
Marriage	-.09	-2.00*				-.05	-.44			
OCQ	.49	10.63**				.35	4.01**			
Step 3			.356	.050	25.69**			.187	.021	3.26**
Age	.09	1.76				.06	.46			
Gender	-.12	-2.63**				-.14	-1.40			
Marriage	-.10	-2.28*				-.07	-.62			
OCQ	.33	6.13**				.32	2.86*			
Com. to Tmg.	.09	1.40				.04	.32			
Com. to Sup.	-.00	-.06				-.16	-1.12			
Com. to Cow.	.18	3.16**				.08	.61			
Com. to Clt.	.06	.98				.14	1.16			
Step 4			.334	.029	31.31**			.185	.018	4.36**
Age	.08	1.68				.08	.65			
Gender	-.12	-2.62**				-.11	-1.12			
Marriage	-.09	-1.95				-.05	-.41			
OCQ	.34	5.60**				.26	2.27*			
NC	.19	.266*				.22	1.59			
CC	.06	1.14				-.13	-1.10			

Note : Com. to Org. = Commitment to organization. Com. to Tmg. = Commitment to top management. Com. to Sup. = Commitment to supervisor. Com. to Cow. = Commitment to coworkers. Com to Clt. = Commitment to citizens/customers.  $\beta$  = standardized regression coefficients. \*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

H4 states that there are positive relationships between four constituency-specific commitments and global commitment. In addition, H5 also states that global commitment (commitment to organization) mediates the impacts of constituency-specific commitments to organization-level outcome variables (i.e., extra-role behavior for organization, withdrawal intention from organization, search behavior, and external whistle-blowing).

In order to test H4 and H5, a series of correlation and hierarchical regression analyses were utilized. If global commitment is proven to mediate the impact of four constituency-specific commitments to the outcome variables, three conditions should be met. First, significant relations between global commitment (commitment to organization) and other constituency-specific commitments should exist. Second, there should be significant relations between the commitment scales to the outcome variables of interest. Third, after the inclusion of the global commitment in the hierarchical regression analyses, the previous relations between the constituency-specific commitments with the outcome variables should disappear. With this reasoning in mind, zero-order correlations between the multi-focus commitments and the outcome variables were first examined. Second, a series of hierarchical regression analyses were performed.

Table 31 displays the zero-order correlations between the commitments scales and the outcome variables. There were significantly large correlations between the global commitment and four constituency-specific commitments. H4 was supported. In addition, most commitment scales were also significantly associated with the outcome variables.

Table 31. Correlations between the Commitments Scale and the Outcome Variables

	Global Commitment	Withdrawal intention from organization	Search Behavior	Extra-efforts for organization	External Whistle- blowing intention
Global commitment		-.410**	-.291**	.315**	-.164
Top management commitment		-.454**	-.394**	.406**	.073
Supervisor Commitment	.701**	-.301**	-.155*	.265**	-.263**
Coworkers Commitment	.632**	-.351**	-.208**	.431**	-.047
Citizens/customers Commitment	.604**	-.234**	-.244**	.205**	-.188**
	.552**	-.324**	-.210**	.392**	.030
	.484**	-.171*	-.132	.233**	-.107
	.457**	-.219**	-.120**	.421**	.040
	.428**	-.102	-.111	.254**	-.144
	.542**	-.279**	-.191**	.418**	.021

Note: Values below the diagonal within cells are the results of the public employee sample and values over the diagonal are those of the private employee sample. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

In the public employee sample, all the correlations were significant and their directions were as expected. In the private employee sample, however, some commitment scales failed to show significant relations with the outcome variables. For example, search behavior did not have significant relations with coworker commitment and citizens/customers commitment although their directions are as expected. Given the relatively small size of the private employee sample, direct interpretations of these results should be avoided.

However, with the exception of top management commitment and supervisor commitment in the private sample, most commitment variables across the two samples failed to show significant relations with the external whistle-blowing intention. Thus, the external whistle-blowing intention was omitted from the subsequent regression analyses, which had three outcome variables (withdrawal intention from organization, search behavior, and extra-efforts for organization).

The hierarchical regression analyses were performed based on two-step procedures. The first analysis regressed one outcome variable on four constituency-specific commitments. This regression allows us to examine the initial associations of the four constituency-specific commitments to the outcome variable of interest. The second regressed the outcome variable on all five commitments including the commitment to organization (global commitment). This regression makes it possible to examine the changes of the initial associations of four constituency-specific commitments to the outcome variable after the inclusion of the global commitment in the regression equation. If the initial significant associations disappear in the second regression, we can conclude that the global commitment mediates the impacts of constituency-specific commitments to the organization-level outcome variables.

Table 32 displays the results of hierarchical regression analyses. Regarding the withdrawal intention from organization, the mediating impact of global commitment is relatively clear. The previous significant impact of four constituency-specific commitments with the withdrawal intention from organization disappeared with the inclusion of global commitment, particularly in the public employee sample.

Table 32. Summary of Regression Analyses for H5

Variables	Public Employees					Private Employees				
	$\beta$	T	R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	F	$\beta$	t	R <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	F
Withdrawal from Organization										
Step 1			.141		15.55***			.102		3.42**
Com. to Tmg.	-.207	-2.85**				-.300	-2.38**			
Com. to Sup.	-.129	-1.70*				-.083	-.60			
Com. to Cow.	.030	.47				-.043	-.34			
Com. to Clt.	-.120	-.190*				.146	1.19			
Step 2			.217	.075	20.84***			.178	.076	5.15***
Com. to Tmg.	-.057	-.78				-.085	-.61			
Com. to Sup.	-.091	-1.25				-.006	-.04			
Com. to Cow.	.053	.85				-.008	-.07			
Com. to Clt.	-.030	-.48				.124	1.06			
Com. to Org.	-.376	-6.02***				-.396	-3.31***			
Search Behavior										
Step 1			.059		5.95***			.063		2.00*
Com. to Tmg.	-.084	-1.10				.018	.141			
Com. to Sup.	-.128	-1.61				-.302	-2.13**			
Com. to Cow.	.069	1.01				.174	.86			
Com. to Clt.	-.121	-1.84*				.398	.69			
Step 2			.164	.105	14.80***			.111	.049	2.97**
Com. to Tmg.	.093	1.21				.191	1.33			
Com. to Sup.	-.083	-1.10				-.241	-1.71*			
Com. to Cow.	.095	1.49				.050	.40			
Com. to Clt.	-.014	-.22				.033	.27			
Com. to Org.	-.443	-6.88***				-.318	-2.55**			
Extra-efforts for Organization										
Step 1			.260		33.23***			.090		2.98**
Com. to Tmg.	.223	3.30***				.190	1.49			
Com. to Sup.	.026	.363				-.066	-.47			

Com. to Cow.	.195	3.24***				.083	.65		
Com. to Clt.	.171	2.94***				.135	1.10		
Step 2			.269	.009	27.73***			.122	.032 3.31***
Com. to Tmg.	.172	2.41**				.050	.35		
Com. to Sup.	.013	.18				-.116	-.83		
Com. to Cow.	.187	3.12***				-.060	.48		
Com. to Clt.	.140	2.35**				.148	1.22		
Com. To Org.	.128	2.12**				.258	2.08**		

Note : Com. to Org. = Commitment to organization. Com. to Tmg. = Commitment to top management. Com. to Sup. = Commitment to supervisor. Com. to Cow. = Commitment to coworkers. Com to Clt. = Commitment to citizens/customers.  $\beta$  = standardized regression coefficients. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

With regard to search behavior, the initial regression generally failed to produce significant relations of the four constituency-specific commitments with the search behavior. Therefore, the mediating impact of the global commitment could not be tested. However, similar to the previous results, supervisor commitment among the Korean private employees had significantly negative and independent impact on search behavior even after the inclusion of the global commitment. This suggests that supervisor commitment is one of the most significant factors that influence search behavior among Korean private employees. However, the inclusion of global commitment clearly increased the model-fit in explaining the search behavior because the increase of  $R^2$  more than doubled.

The variable, extra-efforts for organization, showed more complex results. In a word, the mediating effects of the global commitment are not supported among the public employees. After the inclusion of global commitment, the effects of commitments to top management, to coworkers, and to citizens/customers on the extra-efforts for organization did not disappear and were almost at the same levels. This suggests that the three constituency-specific commitments influence the extra-efforts for organization directly without the mediating effects of global commitment. However, this result was not replicated in the private employee sample.

The results of regression analyses shown in Table 32 generally suggest that the mediating effects of the global commitment on the outcome variables are confined to withdrawal intention from organization. In the case of search behavior, among public employees, only the global commitment had a significantly large impact. However, among Korean private employees, supervisor commitment had an independent effect on the search behavior. On the other hand, commitments to top management, to coworkers, and to citizens/customers had independent effects on the extra-efforts for organization among public employees. All in all, the results support H5 only in a partial manner. As the previous research on OC suggests (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), the overall variances of the outcome variables explained by commitments were relatively small with the range of 6% to 27%.

#### Testing Hypotheses Regarding the Submodels

The validity of commitment measures should be demonstrated not only by factor analysis, which is sample-specific and subject to common method error variance problems, but also by their relations with both expected antecedents and outcomes. For

this purpose, five (see Figure 4 to 8) submodels were made in the previous section.

Although the factor analytic results were not fully supportive for the existence of 15 (3 X 5) independent commitment scales, this research tested the hypotheses made in the previous section with no modifications in order to get additional information on the diversified commitment scales.

#### Testing H6–1 to H6–5

H6 states that commitments to each five foci have a set of determinants and consequences that are different from each other. Following the general hypothesis (H6), 55 subhypotheses were made. Those subhypotheses were based upon general field theory, which suggests that psychologically proximal factors should have a dominant effect on behaviors (Becker et al., 1996; Suszko, 1990). For most employees, local foci seem psychologically more proximal than global foci. Hypotheses from H6–1 to H6–5 also follow this line of reasoning. They state that organization–related (top management–related, supervisor–related, coworkers–related, and citizens/customers–related) variables are more strongly associated with global (top management, supervisor, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers) commitment than with other constituency–specific commitments.

In order to test hypotheses H6–1 to H6–5, correlation analyses were utilized. Table 33 shows the zero–order correlations between commitments to five foci and the focus–related variables. The shaded cells in Table 33 indicate focus–congruent matches (e.g., top management commitment and top management–related variables). The data generally supported the H6–1 to H6–5 and replicated the previous research (Zaccaro & Dobbins, 1989).

Table 33. Correlations between the Commitment Scales and the Related Variables

Variables	Global Commitment	Top Management Commitment	Supervisor Commitment	Coworkers Commitment	Citizen/ Customer Commitment
Organization-Related					
Organizational	.322***	.334***	.213**	.140	.166*
Support	.465***	.346***	.380***	.195***	.248***
Job Security	.153*	.247***	.133	.198**	.085
	.377***	.160***	.167***	.113**	.237***
Pay Satisfaction	.374***	.352***	.237***	.317***	.239***
	.250***	.236***	.214***	.077	.130**
Job Alternatives	-.011	.079	.141	.130	.021
	-.011	.027	.057	.097*	.031
Social	.404***	.390***	.347***	.278***	.448***
Supportiveness	.425***	.380***	.352***	.245***	.358***
Withdrawal	-.410***	-.301***	-.234***	-.171*	-.102
Intention from					
Organization	-.454***	-.351***	-.324***	-.219***	-.219***
Extra-efforts for	.315***	.265***	.205**	.233***	.254***
Organization	.406***	.431***	.392***	.421***	.421***
External Whistle–	-.164*	.263***	-.188**	-.107	-.144
blowing	.073	-.047	.030	.040	.021
Top Management-Related					
Top Management	.462***	.479***	.258***	.212**	.187**
Support	.498***	.467***	.384***	.187***	.278***
Participation in	.361***	.277***	.273***	.127	.060
Decision Making	.389***	.393***	.394***	.188***	.211***
Political	-.170*	-.293***	-.111	-.071	-.123
Penetration	-.175***	-.235***	-.187***	-.129**	-.047
Interaction with	.307***	.403***	.257***	.242***	.278***
top management	.499***	.500***	.363***	.277***	.393***
Leadership	-.153*	-.037	-.119	-.072	-.129
Turnover	-.038	.003	-.054	-.030	-.039
Extra-efforts for	.455***	.530***	.332***	.334***	.352***

Top Management	.357***	.527***	.399***	.254***	.368***
Supervisor–Related					
Supervisor	.338***	.303***	.459***	.302***	.220**
Support	.391***	.314***	.421***	.186***	.194***
Interaction with	.346***	.312***	.412***	.415***	.303***
Supervisor	.401***	.381***	.365***	.210***	.318***
Supervisor	-.074	-.043	.001	.076	-.068
Turnover	-.037	-.015	-.044	-.052	-.033
Extra–efforts for	.465***	.447***	.507***	.373***	.405***
Supervisor	.305***	.448***	.450***	.282***	.304***
Withdrawal	-.380***	-.244***	-.310***	-.047	-.075
Intention from					
Supervisor	-.419***	-.358***	-.389***	-.228***	-.263***
Coworker–Related					
Coworker Support	.219***	.149*	.201**	.188**	.090
	.260***	.105**	.140***	.168***	.155***
Interaction with	.410***	.316***	.263***	.412***	.248***
Coworkers	.426***	.321***	.344***	.344***	.353***
Coworker	-.125	-.075	-.006	-.035	-.082
Turnover	-.052	-.005	.002	-.040	.015
Extra–efforts for	.329***	.346***	.380***	.357***	.383***
Coworkers	.361***	.309***	.285***	.339***	.331***
Withdrawal	-.289***	-.177**	-.120	-.122	-.112
Intention from					
Coworkers	-.362***	-.203***	-.201***	-.263***	-.213***
Citizens/customers-Related					
Direct Service	.173*	.086	.154*	.092	.177**
	.378***	.299***	.267***	.261***	.455***
Service	.401***	.345***	.309***	.270***	.200**
Orientation	.414***	.275***	.291***	.314***	.455***
Interaction with	.231***	.280***	.375***	.390***	.380***
Citizens/customers	.265***	.223***	.186***	.213***	.418***
Extra–efforts for	.358***	.407***	.330***	.343***	.486***
citizens/customers	.437***	.375***	.335***	.321***	.502***

Note: Values below the diagonal within cells are the results of the public employee sample and values over the diagonal are those of the private employee sample. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed). The shaded cells mean focus-congruent matches (e.g., top management commitment and top management-related variables).

Organization-related variables — such as organizational support, job security, pay satisfaction, social supportiveness, withdrawal intention from organization, and extra-efforts for organization — had stronger association with global commitment than with other constituency-specific commitments. This result was echoed in top management commitment. Such variables as top management support, political penetration, interaction with top management, and extra-efforts for top management had larger associations with top management commitment than with commitments to other foci.

In a similar fashion, supervisor-related variables such as supervisor support and extra-efforts for supervisor were more strongly related to supervisor commitment than to other constituency-specific commitments. In addition, such citizens/customers-related variables as direct service to citizens/customers, service orientation, interaction with citizens/customers, and extra-efforts for citizens/customers were more strongly related to citizens/customers commitment than to other commitments.

However, coworker-related variables such as coworker support and extra-efforts for coworkers were not more strongly associated with coworker commitment than with other constituency-specific commitments. For example, coworker support showed as

strong relation to global commitment as to coworker commitment. Withdrawal intention from coworkers was also strongly associated with the global commitment. In general, withdrawal intentions from both supervisor and coworkers were more strongly associated with the global commitment. This generally suggests that employees conceive the withdrawals from supervisor or coworkers as organizational decisions in nature, which are influenced by organizational characteristics such as atmosphere, pay satisfaction. This strongly suggests the nested nature of the withdrawal intentions from foci other than organization. This is not surprising given the fact that employees choose organizations rather than coworkers and supervisor at their entrance stage.

Participation in decision-making was also more strongly related to global commitment than to top management commitment. This also seems to have to do with the organizational nature of the variable. Turnovers — leadership turnover, supervisor turnover, and coworker turnover — generally failed to produce significant relations with the commitment scales, suggesting that frequent turnovers of those foci within the organization had no strong impacts on commitment to those foci. This opens the possibility that employees may consider top management, supervisor, and coworkers not as specific individuals but in the abstract.

The external whistle-blowing intention also failed to produce significant associations with the commitment scales. This is not surprising because empirical studies have reported no strong association between affective commitment and external whistle-blowing intention and also because the concepts and measures of external whistle-blowing intentions are still developing (see the previous section). Detailed analyses and discussions on the variables are addressed in the following section.

### Testing H6–6 to H6–20 (The Model of Global Commitment)

To test hypotheses H6–6 to H6–20, the zero–order correlations were examined. Regression analyses were used only where necessary because the purpose of this study was not to test the models, but to validate the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approach in a nomological network and because the selection of the variables was selective.

The model of global commitment that assumes the relations of the global commitment to its antecedents and outcome variables has 15 hypotheses (see the previous section). Among them, H 6–7 was not tested because of the low reliability of the measure of the Organizational Constraints (POC), -.140, in the public employee sample, and, -.124, in the private employee sample.

Table 34 demonstrates the correlations between global commitment and organization-related variables. First, H6–6 states that organizational support is positively associated with AC to organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Jung, 1999). This was supported. Organizational support had a significantly large association with AC to organization ( $r = .49$ ). However, it also had a significant relation with NC to organization, although somewhat smaller ( $r = .45$ ). This may be due to the fact that respondents had difficulty in distinguishing NC from AC as shown by the factor analytic result in the previous sector. Organizational support had no association with CC to organization among private employees as expected, but it did have a small positive association with CC to organization among public employees.

Table 34. Correlations between the Global Commitment Scales and the Related Variables

Variables	Global Commitment	Affective Commitment	Normative Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Organizational Support	.322***	.389***	.373***	.048
	.465***	.494***	.449***	.214***
Social Supportiveness	.404***	.353***	.408***	.228**
	.425***	.396***	.479***	.176***
Job Security	.153*	.144	.171*	.063
	.377***	.353***	.377***	.203***
Pay Satisfaction	.374***	.358***	.346***	.214**
	.250***	.244***	.318***	.059
Job Alternatives	-.011	-.083	.062	-.012
	-.011	.023	.011	-.059
External Whistle-blowing	-.164	-.114	-.127	-.153*
	.073	.088*	.058	.038
Withdrawal Intention from Organization	-.410***	-.416***	-.392***	-.203**
	-.454***	-.449***	-.447***	-.230***
Search Behavior	-.291***	-.306***	-.258***	-.153*
	-.394***	-.357***	-.361***	-.257***
Extra-efforts for Organization	.315***	.334***	.296***	.148
	.406***	.398***	.371***	.238***

Note: Values below the diagonal within cells are the results of the public employee sample and values over the diagonal are those of the private employee sample. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

As Baldwin (1987) found, public employees experienced greater job security (see Table 17). And public employees responded that job security had positive association with CC to organization. Job security also showed stronger associations with

AC and NC to organization, however, suggesting that job security is a predictor that explains more AC and NC to organization than CC to organization. This also means that public employees conceive job security not only as a cost or a vested interest that they may lose if they quit, but also as a factor encouraging AC and NC to their organizations. On the other hand, private employees with less job security responded that job security was not a main factor that influences each base of commitment to organization. Therefore, H6–8 was partially supported.

Among private employees, pay satisfaction rather than job security was one of the main factors that have impacts on each base of commitment. As expected in H6–9, a positive association was found between CC to organization and pay satisfaction among the private employees. However, no significant relation between the two variables was found in the public employee sample. This means that public employees, in contrast to private employees, do not conceive of pay as a factor influencing their CC to organization. Pay satisfaction was also found to be related to AC to organization as the previous research on OC in Korean settings reports (see Table 7). H6–9 was partially supported. On the other hand, pay satisfaction was also significantly associated with NC to organization across the two samples. H6–10 was not supported.

The variable of job alternatives has been a key construct that explains the CC to organization. Although Jung (1999) and Ko (1995) found a positive relationship between the perceived lack of job alternatives and CC, this study found no significant relations between the two constructs in the two samples. H6–11 was not supported.

Social supportiveness was hypothesized to have a positive association with NC to organization (H6–12). H6–12 was supported. Both Korean public and private

employees displayed strong positive associations of social supportiveness with NC to organization —  $r = .48$  and  $r = .41$ , respectively. However, social supportiveness also had a significant but weak relation with CC to organization ( $r = .18$  and  $r = .23$ , respectively). This raises the possibility that employees conceive social supportiveness for an organization as a vested interest that they may lose if they quit.

Additionally, no mean difference existed in social supportiveness between public and private employees. This is in contrast to Cho's (1990) finding that Korean public sector employees showed much higher levels of perceived organizational prestige than their private sector partners. This seems to have to do with the bureaucrat-bashing now rampant in Korea. This result may also be partly due to the characteristics of the data used in this study — both samples were drawn in the training institutes and thus from many organizations. In this sense, the variable measuring social supportiveness for an organization may not be appropriate in investigating the sectoral differences.

Global commitment showed significant and negative associations with both the withdrawal intention from organization and the search behavior as Table 35 shows. H6–13 was supported. In addition, each base of commitment to organization had significant and negative relations to both outcome variables. H6–14 was supported. In order to test H16–15, additional regression analyses were conducted (see Table 35). The results support H6–15 in a partial manner. In both samples, AC and NC to organization made independent contributions in predicting the withdrawal intention from organization after controlling for other bases of commitment to organization. However, CC to organization did not. This suggests that employees with stronger AC and NC to organization are less likely to leave organizations, which seems reasonable.

Table 35. Regression Analyses for Testing H6–15

Dependent Variables	Public Employees			Private Employees		
	AC	NC	CC	AC	NC	CC
Withdrawal Intention from Organization	-.265***	-.255***	-.014	-.193***	-.178**	-.102*
Search Behavior	-.279**	-.203*	-.017	-.237**	-.088	-.034
Extra-efforts for Organization	.263***	.156**	.068	.245**	.136	.004

Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

When it comes to search behavior, the two samples displayed somewhat different results. The public employee sample showed that each base of commitment to organization made independent contributions in predicting the search behavior after controlling for other bases of commitment to organization, whereas the private employee sample revealed that only AC to organization made an independent impact on the search behavior. However, the contribution of CC to organization in predicting search behavior was marginally weak ( $-.102$ ,  $p < .10$ )

H6–16 proposes that global commitment has a positive association with the extra-efforts for organization, and present data support that view. On the other hand, one reason for the inclusion of the variable, extra-efforts for efforts for organization, is that its relations with each base of commitment to organization are different from each other. The data showed that, in the public employee sample, each base of commitment had

positive associations with extra-efforts for organization while in the private employees sample, CC had no association with extra-efforts.

However, further regression analyses showed that among public employees, CC did not make an independent contribution in predicting extra-efforts for organization controlling for other two bases ( $\beta = .068$ , n.s.). Consequently, H6–17 is supported.

Although speculative, three hypotheses elaborated the relations of external whistle–blowing intention with each base of commitment. H16–18 hypothesized a curvilinear relation (inverted U–shape) between AC to organization and the external whistle–blowing intention. In order to test H16–18, the curve estimation procedure in SPSS was utilized. The curve estimation procedure produces curve estimation regression statistics and related plots for eleven different curve estimation regression models, which include linear, logarithmic, inverse, quadratic cubic, power, compound, S–curve, logistic, growth, and exponential models.

The results for H16–18 were not consistent across the two samples. In the public employee sample, linear, quadratic and cubic models were significant at the level of .10, whereas in the private employee sample compound, logistic, growth, and exponential models are significant. However, the variances explained by AC to organization in those models are too low — about 2 percent. H16–18 is not supported.

As Table 35 also shows, most relations of both NC and CC to organization with the external whistle–blowing were not significant. Hence, H6–19 and H6–20 are not supported. However, the interpretation of those results should proceed with caution due to low internal consistency reliabilities (.52 in the public employee sample and .56 in the

private employee sample). Further efforts for the scale development of the external whistle-blowing intention are needed.

#### Testing H6–21 to H6–29 (The Model of Top Management Commitment)

Table 36 displays the zero-order correlations between top management commitment scales and the top management-related variables. Top management support had significant relations with each base of commitment to top management in both samples. CC to top management had a weaker association with top management support, though. H6–21 was supported. This result is similar to the relations of organizational support to each base of commitment to organization as shown in the previous section. In addition, as shown in Table 17, public employees perceived more top management support than private employees perceived.

Participation in decision-making was hypothesized to have positive associations with both AC and NC (H6–22). The data were supportive for the H6–22. Both AC and NC to top management had significant associations with the participation in decision-making. However, CC to top management had a marginal (public employees) or no (private employees) associations with it.

As the literature of the public and private distinction reports (Chubb & Moe, 1985; Bozeman & Loveless, 1987), public employees felt more political penetration in management practices than private sector employees did (see Table 17). Political penetration had negative impacts on both AC and NC across the two samples. H6–23 was supported. In addition, political penetration had no relations with CC to top management at all.

Table 36. Correlations between the Top Management Commitment Scales  
and the Related Variables

Variables	Top Management Commitment	Affective Commitment	Normative Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Top Management	.479***	.480***	.531***	.182***
Support	.476***	.543***	.456***	.161***
Participation in Decision	.277***	.290***	.296***	.105
Making	.393***	.384***	.404***	.190***
Political Penetration	-.293***	-.340***	-.292***	-.099
	-.235***	-.326***	-.215***	-.042
Interaction with Top	.403***	.336***	.411***	.271***
Management	.500***	.518***	.475***	.257***
Leadership Turnover	-.037	.006	.032	-.149*
	.003	-.021	-.020	.053
Extra-efforts for Top	.530***	.482***	.529***	.326***
Management	.527***	.548***	.506***	.261***
External Whistle-	-.263***	-.170*	-.184**	-.330***
blowing	-.047	-.031	-.037	-.052

Note: Values below the diagonal within cells are the results of the public employee sample and values over the diagonal are those of the private employee sample. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

The inclusion of interaction with top management and leadership turnover intended to test whether frequent interaction with top management led to increased commitment to top management. As hypothesized (H6-24), each base of top management commitment had positive relations with the frequency of interactions with top management support. Both AC and NC to top management had stronger associations

with it than CC to top management. Additionally, public employees responded that they interacted more with top management than private employees did (see Table 17). As shown later, public employees also responded that they interacted more with supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers than private employees did.

This characteristic of public organizations was confirmed when public employees responded that they perceived more leadership turnover, supervisor turnover, and coworker turnover. More frequent leadership turnover in public organization found in the data is consistent with Baldwin's (1987) finding in the American setting. More frequent turnover of both supervisors and coworkers is partly due to the characteristic of Korean bureaucracy, which operates based on a rank system, not on a job classification system. As Table 36 shows, however, leadership turnover did not have significant relations with each base of top management commitment. The data showed that only CC to top management in the private employee sample had a marginal and weak association with leadership turnover. This implies that top management commitment is not commitment to individuals in top management, but commitment to the abstract concept of top management as a whole.

Consequently, H6-25 is not supported. This is also the case for the relations of both supervisor turnover and coworker turnover with commitments to supervisors and coworkers as discussed in the previous section.

As H6-26 proposes, the data showed that top management commitment had significantly positive relations with extra-efforts for top management. In addition, both AC and NC to top management had positive associations with extra-efforts for organization. However, unexpectedly, CC to top management also had positive impacts

on extra-efforts for top management. However, the results of regression analyses shown in Table 37 indicate that CC to top management did not make significantly independent contributions in explaining extra-efforts for top management controlling for both AC and NC to top management. H6–27 is supported.

Table 37. Regression Analyses for Testing H6–27, 28 and 29

Dependent Variables	Public Employees			Private Employees		
	AC	NC	CC	AC	NC	CC
Extra-Efforts for Top Management	.388***	.223***	-.016	.199*	.363**	.036
External whistle-blowing Intention	.001	-.016	-.044	-.037	.021	-.325***

Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

The relations of top management commitment with the external whistle-blowing intention showed different patterns between the public and private sector employees. That is, each base of top management commitment had a negative association with external whistle-blowing intention in the private employee sample (see Table 36). H6–29 was partially supported. Regression analyses showed that CC to top management had negative impact on the external whistle-blowing intention among Korean private employees.

In order to test H6–28, the U–curve estimation procedure in SPSS was used. The results showed that there was a linear association of each base of top management commitment with the external whistle–blowing intention in the private employee sample. However, in the public employee sample, quadratic and cubic relations were appropriate between AC and NC to top management and external whistle blowing. Compared to the results on commitment to organization, these results suggest that private employees’ top management commitment, in particular CC to top management, rather than commitment to organization is a key factor that negatively influences the external whistle–blowing intention.

H6–28 is not supported. However, in the public sector, there were no strong relations between top management commitment and the external whistle–blowing intention although public employees had more external whistle–blowing intention than private employees had (see Table 17).

#### Testing H6–30 to H6–39 (The Model of Supervisor Commitment)

Most relations between supervisor support and each base of supervisor commitment were positive except for the relation between supervisor support and CC to supervisor among private employees (see Table 38). CC to supervisor generally had weaker association with supervisor support than both AC and NC to supervisor had, however. This pattern is similar to those of commitment to organization and top management. H6–30 is partially supported as a compound consequence.

In general, the relations of the interaction with supervisor with the supervisor commitment showed patterns similar to those between the interactions with top

management with commitment to top management. The interaction with supervisor was positively associated with each base of supervisor commitment. H6–31 is supported.

Table 38. Correlations between the Supervisor Commitment Scales and the Related Variables

Variables	Supervisor Commitment	Affective Commitment	Normative Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Supervisor Support	.459***	.532***	.512***	.124
	.421***	.504***	.380***	.180***
Interaction with Supervisor	.412***	.321***	.439***	.280***
	.365***	.400***	.368***	.155***
Supervisor Turnover	.001	-.023	.061	-.031
	-.044	-.076	-.009	-.025
Extra-efforts for Supervisor	.507***	.485***	.559***	.242***
	.450***	.508***	.454***	.176***
Withdrawal Intention from Supervisor	-.310***	-.480***	-.310***	-.001
	-.389***	-.436***	-.383***	-.166***
External Whistle-blowing	-.188**	-.074	-.259***	-.145
	.030	.091*	.025	-.042

Note: Values below the diagonal within cells are the results of the public employee sample and values over the diagonal are those of the private employee sample. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

In addition, the supervisor turnover had no relations with any base of supervisor commitment. So H6–32 is not supported. Although public employees perceived more frequent supervisor turnovers (see Table 17), the high level of supervisor turnover did not lead to decreased supervisor commitment whatever its bases.

Table 38 also shows that supervisor commitment had a significant and large association with extra-efforts for supervisor across the two samples. Additional regression analyses shown in Table 38 indicate that the extra-efforts for supervisor was influenced more by AC and NC to supervisor than by CC to supervisor. Both H6–33 and H6–34 are supported.

The curve estimation on the relations of each base of supervisor commitment with the external whistle-blowing intention does not support H6–35. In particular, the relation between NC to supervisor and the external whistle-blowing intention seems linear.

Although there were no significant relations between the external whistle-blowing intention and each base of commitment in the public sector employee sample, there was a negative association between NC to supervisor and the external whistle-blowing intention among Korean private employees. This means that private employees with strong NC to supervisor are less likely to have the intention to report supervisors' wrongdoings to the public or others. Regression analytic results in Table 39 support the results of correlation analysis. In sum, H6–36 is not supported.

The negative correlations between the withdrawal intention from supervisor and supervisor commitment (and its bases) generally support both H6–37 and H6–38, except for the relation of private employees' CC to supervisor and their withdrawal intention from supervisor (see Table 38). In both samples, however, AC to supervisor had larger negative effects on the withdrawal intention from supervisor (see Table 39). NC to supervisor had marginally negative (in the public employee sample) or no (in the private

employee sample) association with withdrawal intention from supervisor. H6–39 was not supported.

Table 39. Regression Analyses for Testing H6–33 to H6–39

Dependent Variables	Public Employees			Private Employees		
	AC	NC	CC	AC	NC	CC
Withdrawal Intention from Supervisor	-.388***	-.131***	.132	-.548***	.000	.192*
External Whistle-blowing	.001	-.016	-.044	.296**	-.498***	.024
Extra-efforts for Supervisor	.300***	.228**	-.025	.129	.506***	-.082

Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

One interesting result shown in Table 39 is that CC to supervisor had a positive impact on withdrawal intention from supervisor. Curiously, this may mean that employees who feel stronger CC to supervisor are more likely to have withdrawal intention from supervisor. This may be partly because employees are able to leave their supervisor more easily than they leave their organization or top management. In sum, the concept of NC or CC to supervisor is not a main base for supervisor commitment as the factor analyses suggested in the previous section.

### Testing H6–40 to H6–49 (The Model of Coworkers Commitment)

The results shown in Table 40 reveal that coworker support has positive associations with AC and NC to coworkers, but no association with CC to coworkers. H6–40 is supported, then. On the other hand, interaction with coworkers had positive associations with each base of coworker commitment. H6–41 is supported by the data.

Table 40. Correlations between the Coworker Commitment Scales  
and the Related Variables

Variables	Coworker Commitment	Affective Commitment	Normative Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Coworker Support	.188***	.262***	.232***	.017
	.168***	.239***	.200***	-.029
Interaction with Coworker	.412***	.408***	.318***	.347***
	.344***	.320***	.371***	.140***
Coworker Turnover	-.035	-.041	.022	-.071
	-.040	-.055	.000	-.042
Extra-efforts for Coworkers	.357***	.366***	.381***	.192**
	.339***	.390***	.336***	.095
Withdrawal Intention from Coworkers	-.122	-.228***	-.071	-.038
	-.263***	-.352***	-.302***	.013
External Whistle– blowing	-.107	-.022	-.093	-.146
	.040	.012	.065	.020

Note: Values below the diagonal within cells are the results of the public employee sample and values over the diagonal are those of the private employee sample. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

H6–42 states that the coworker turnover is negatively associated with each base of coworker commitment. However the data does not support H6–42 at all. Like the cases of top management turnover and supervisor turnover, public employees perceive more frequent coworker turnovers than their private sector counterparts do. However, frequent coworker turnovers do not lead to the decreased coworker commitment. This is interesting in that interaction frequency was positive related to coworker commitment and turnover was not. This may be interpreted in several ways — e.g., that commitment to coworker is commitment to coworker in the abstract, not to individual coworkers. Thus, even though some coworkers come and go, coworkers as a focus to which employees are committed to do not change. However, interactions within coworkers almost always increase the level of coworker commitment.

Coworker commitment has significant and positive association with the extra-efforts for coworkers as Table 40 shows. In detail, both AC and NC to coworkers had positive association with the extra-efforts for coworkers, while CC to coworkers did not (see Table 41). Hence, H6–43 and H6–44 are supported. Across the two samples, the external whistle-blowing intention had no associations with any base of commitment. H6–45 and H6–46 were not supported.

When it comes to the relation between withdrawal intention from coworkers and the coworker commitment scales, patterns similar to supervisor commitment emerge. Coworker commitment shows weak but significant association with withdrawal intention from coworkers among public employees, whereas it has no association with the withdrawal intention from coworkers among private employees. H6–47 is not fully supported.

In the public employee sample, both AC and NC had significant and negative impacts on the withdrawal intention from coworkers, but CC has a positive effect on it. In the private employee sample, only AC to coworkers has significant effect on the withdrawal intention from coworkers. In addition, public employees show significantly lower withdrawal intention from coworkers than the business sector employees (see Table 17).

Table 41. Regression Analyses for Testing H6–43 to H6–49

Dependent Variables	Public Employees			Private Employees		
	AC	NC	CC	AC	NC	CC
Withdrawal Intention from Coworkers	-.280***	-.204***	.189***	-.359***	.096	.074
External Whistle-blowing	-.050	.100	-.008	.121	-.076	-.166
Extra-efforts for Coworkers	.301***	.175***	-.075	.226*	.290*	-.106

Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

As discussed in the section on supervisor commitment, this may be because employees are able to withdraw from coworkers or supervisor more easily than from organizations. To employees, in other words, decision to leave coworkers may be an easier one than decisions to leave organizations.

The data suggest that the present concept of CC to coworkers should be reconsidered. In sum, H6–48 and H6–49 are partially supported. In addition, note also that only a small variance of the withdrawal intention from coworkers is explained by the three bases of coworker commitment — 16 percent in the public employee sample and 7 percent in the private employee sample. This means many factors other than coworker commitment influence withdrawal intention from coworkers.

#### Testing H6–50 to H6–55 (The Model of Citizens/customers Commitment)

Table 42 displays the zero–order correlation between the citizens/customers commitment scales and citizens/customers related variables. Interaction with citizens/customers is significantly related to each base of citizens/customers commitment. In consequence, H6–50 is supported.

Service orientation defined as the value that an employee places on helping others and engaging in meaningful public service, has positive associations with both AC and NC to citizens/customers commitment. This supports H6–51, a finding consistent with the finding in American settings that service orientation had a positive relationship with commitment (Hall, et al., 1970; Crewson, 1997). Although public employees reveal a positive relation of service orientation with CC to citizens/customers, the relation is not replicated among the private employees. On the other hand, as the literature of public administration suggests, Korean public employees ranked service orientation as more important than private employees (Rainey, 1982; Wittmer, 1991; Bozeman & Loveless, 1987). In addition, the positive relations between service orientation and citizens/customers commitment scales — AC and NC — are stronger among public employees than among business employees.

Table 42. Correlations between the Citizens/customers Commitment Scales  
and the Related Variables

Variables	Citizens/customers Commitment	Affective Commitment	Normative Commitment	Continuance Commitment
Interaction with	.380***	.365***	.403***	.217***
Citizens/customers	.418***	.411***	.391***	.217***
Direct Service to	.177**	.240***	.225***	.015
citizens/customers	.455***	.364***	.470***	.273***
Service Orientation	.200**	.286***	.268***	-.006
	.455***	.418***	.431***	.261***
Extra-efforts for	.486***	.556***	.457***	.261***
citizens/customers	.502***	.463***	.475***	.286***
External Whistle-	-.144	-.083	-.063	-.204**
blowing	.021	.021	-.034	.064

Note: Values below the diagonal within cells are the results of the public employee sample and values over the diagonal are those of the private employee sample. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

Direct service to citizens/customers, defined as the extent to which an employee feels her job has a significant impact to society, has positive associations with both AC and NC to citizens/customers as hypothesized (H6-52). The relations are stronger among public employees. And the mean value of the variable of the public employee sample is higher than that of the business sector employee sample (see Table 17).

Public employees show a higher mean value of extra-efforts for citizens/customers than business sector employees. And citizens/customers commitment has positive association with extra-efforts for citizens/customers across the two samples. H6-53 is supported, then.

Table 42 shows that each base of citizens/customers commitment has a positive relation to extra-efforts for citizens/customers. Additional regression analysis reveals that public employees have the intention to exert extra-efforts for citizens/customers mainly based on AC and NC to citizens/customers, whereas private employees' intention to make extra-efforts comes from AC to citizens/customers (Table 43). Noticeable is the normative base of citizens/customers commitment among public employees in making extra-efforts for citizens/customers. H6–54 is partially supported.

Table 43. Regression Analyses for Testing H6–53 to H6–55

Dependent Variables	Public Employees			Private Employees		
	AC	NC	CC	AC	NC	CC
External Whistle–blowing	.079	-.132*	.097	-.047	.104	-.240**
Extra-efforts for citizens/customers	.257***	.262***	.084*	.474***	.139	-.036

Note: Values are standardized regression coefficients. \*  $p < .10$  (two-tailed). \*\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed). \*\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

Finally, no base of citizens/customers commitment is related to the external whistle–blowing intention, which needs some interpreting. The variance of the external whistle–blowing intention explained by citizens/customers commitment is too small — 1.2 percent in the public employee sample and 4.6 percent in the private employee sample. H6–55 is not supported, as a consequence.

### Testing Hypotheses Regarding Public and Private Distinctions

Based on the factor analyses, the fifteen commitment scales were subjected to descriptive analyses and t-tests in order to test hypotheses regarding public and private distinctions. Table 44 presents the results and shows means, standard deviations, alphas, and t-values of the fifteen commitment scales (5 foci X 3 bases).

This study generally assumes that public employees have different levels and patterns (foci and bases) of OC. In relation, first, this study compares the mean levels of commitment to organization in both samples. The previous preliminary descriptive analyses (see Table 17) already showed that public employees had a higher level of commitment toward organization (the global commitment) and commitment toward citizens/customers (the citizens/customers commitment). This is also evidenced in Table 44. The data there show that public sector employees are more committed to their organizations than business sector employees. This result is in contrast to the conventional view on OC of public employees, which holds that public sector employees are less committed than private sector employees (Buchanan 1984; Chubb & Moe, 1990).

However, the difference is marginal in this data set, and H7 is not supported. In detail, public employees show higher NC and AC to their organizations than their private sector counterparts. However, both public and private sector employees reveal equal levels of CC to organization.

Some studies in the field of public administration suggest that public employees are committed to foci other than their organization (Balfour & Wechsler, 1990; Cho, 1992; Crewson, 1997; Rainey, 1982). Thus, this study hypothesizes that public employees have higher level of commitment to citizens/customers than private employees (H8).

H8 is supported. The mean difference in the two samples is significant ( $F = 3.82$ ,  $p < .001$ ). In each base of commitment to citizens/customers, public employees show higher mean levels than private employees. Although higher AC and NC to citizens/customers are not surprising (Rainey, 1982; Romzek, 1985b), higher CC is not expected. This may reflect that commitment to citizens/customers among public employees comes from a sense of obligation as civil servants.

On the other hand, it is assumed that, given the high level of leadership turnover and frequent political penetration, public employees will show low levels of commitment to top management (H9). It is also hypothesized that there are no differences among public and private employees in terms of commitment to supervisor and coworkers (H10).

However, other than commitment to citizens/customers, there are no mean differences in top management commitment, supervisor commitment, and coworker commitment between the two samples as Table 44 shows. Therefore, H9 is not supported, whereas H10 is supported by the data. However, interestingly, despite little difference in top management commitment between the two samples, a closer look reveals that public employees show higher AC and NC to top management than private sector employees. But the levels of CC to top management do not differ between the two samples. In addition, public employees show higher NC to coworkers than their private sector counterparts.

Interestingly, the public sample reveals higher levels of commitments (AC, NC, and CC) to citizens/customers than their private sector counterparts. In combination with the previous analyses that show that the mean level of the PSM is higher among public employees than among private sector workers (see Table 17), this may be a sign of the

existence of high morals among public employees (see also the following section).

Contrary to this expectation is that the mean level of CC to citizens/customers is higher among public employees than among private employees.

Table 44. Comparison of Commitment Patterns

Scale	Items	Public Employees		Private Employees		t-value
		M (SD)	A	M (SD)	A	
Global Commitment	9	4.78 (.66)	.66	4.66 (.56)	.65	1.86*
Commitment to Management	9	4.24(.76)	.75	4.13 (.69)	.79	1.40
Commitment to Supervisor	10	4.29 (.79)	.78	4.34 (.76)	.82	-.69
Commitment to Coworkers	8	4.50 (.66)	.73	4.40 (.72)	.81	1.49
Commitment to citizens/customers	8	4.45 (.68)	.72	4.19 (.60)	.77	3.82***
AC	18	4.67 (.86)	.85	4.43 (.69)	.80	2.79***
NC	16	4.67 (.89)	.85	4.42 (.80)	.86	2.83***
CC	10	4.45 (.80)	.77	4.39 (.81)	.84	.619
AC to Organization	4	5.04 (1.03)	.69	4.72 (.84)	.61	3.18***
NC to Organization	3	5.01 (1.16)	.82	4.69 (.91)	.76	2.81***
CC to Organization	2	4.86 (1.16)	.48	4.82 (1.00)	.56	.347
AC to TMG	4	4.29 (1.17)	.78	3.94 (1.00)	.78	2.94***
NC to TMG	3	4.37 (1.25)	.81	4.11 (1.07)	.75	2.06**
CC to TMG	2	4.24 (1.10)	.41	4.34 (.90)	.48	-.93
AC to Supervisor	4	4.46 (1.17)	.80	4.45 (1.06)	.82	.08
NC to Supervisor	4	4.41 (1.10)	.77	4.42 (1.01)	.80	-.08
CC to Supervisor	2	4.28 (1.14)	.45	4.37 (1.10)	.63	-.80
AC to Coworkers	3	4.95 (1.03)	.77	4.83 (.92)	.72	1.20
NC to Coworkers	3	4.72 (4.72)	.74	4.43 (1.09)	.81	2.65***

CC to Coworkers	2	4.33 (1.07)	.49	4.29 (1.17)	.71	.357
AC to citizens/customers	3	4.60 (1.06)	.71	4.21 (.78)	.63	3.77***
NC to citizens/customers	3	4.84 (1.08)	.76	4.42 (.90)	.74	3.87***
CC to citizens/customers	2	4.51 (1.10)	.43	4.14 (1.03)	.70	3.32***

Note : M = mean. SD = standard deviation. A= Cronbach's alpha. \* ( $p < .10$ , two-tailed).

\*\* ( $p < .05$ , two-tailed). \*\*\* ( $p < .01$ , two-tailed)

The literature on public service ethic suggests that public employees have a higher level of service orientation and intrinsic reward motivation (Crewson, 1997). As the previous section described, this was also the case in Korean public employees. In relation, H11 states that without regard to foci, public employees have a higher level of NC, lower level of CC, and the same level of AC compared to business employees. The data reveal that public employees have higher levels of both AC and NC and the same level of CC as business sector employees. H11 is partially supported.

In summary, although the public employees have only marginally stronger global commitment — commitment to an organization, they have stronger commitment to citizens/customers, and stronger affective and normative commitments to organization, top management, and citizens/customers (see Figure 8). In Figure 8, shaded cells denote the existence of differences in mean values between the public and private samples. This suggests that public employees' commitments to those three foci are more based on affiliation or personal attachment and value-congruence. This result is generally consistent with the literature of public administration (Crewson, 1997; Rainey, 1982). A

closer look into the bases and foci of commitment shed light on these different patterns of commitment between public and private sector employees.

Foci	Bases	Affective Commitment (AC)	Normative Commitment (NC)	Continuance Commitment (CC)
Organization				
Top management				
Supervisor				
Coworkers				
Citizens/customers				

Figure 8. Comparison of Commitment Patterns

### Testing Other Hypotheses

This study includes Public Service Motivation (PSM) (Perry, 1996). PSM is defined as “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations” (Perry, 1996, p.6). Three hypotheses were made in its potential relation with commitment scales developed in this study. H12 argues that PSM has a positive relation with normative and affective bases of commitment, whereas it has no significant association with continuance bases of commitment. And it is also hypothesized that PSM has a positive relation with commitment to citizens/customers (H13). Finally, H14 states that PSM explains some significant variances in Korean employees' commitments (global commitment and four

constituency-specific commitments). In order to test those hypotheses, correlations are first examined and a series of hierarchical regression analyses are also utilized.

H12 is partially supported. Most zero-order correlations between PSM and the commitment scales were positive. However, when the commitment scales were closely examined, the data showed that the relations of between PSM and CC are weaker than those between AC and NC.

The relation between PSM and CC to organization is not significant in the private employee sample. However, the relations between PSM and the commitment scales in the public employee sample are much stronger than those in the private employee sample. This is not surprising, given the definition of PSM. PSM has stronger positive association with commitment to citizens/customers than with commitment to other foci across the two samples. H13 is supported.

Public employees show stronger public service motivation (see Table 17). The data in Table 45 also show that PSM has a significantly positive impact in their commitment to each focus. Table 46 summarizes the results of hierarchical regression analyses to test H14. The regression analysis is composed of two steps. The first regressed the commitment of interest on the control variables — age, marriage, gender, education, and income. The second includes PSM in addition to the control variables to check the change of the variance added by the inclusion of PSM.

Table 45. Correlations between PSM and the Commitment Scales

Variables	Public Employees	Private Employees
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	Public Service Motivation	Public Service Motivation
Global Commitment		.276***
Commitment to Management	.424***	.348***
Commitment to Supervisor	.374***	.325***
Commitment to Coworkers		.433***
Commitment to citizens/customers	.554***	.404***
Affective Commitment	.547***	.474***
Normative Commitment	.536***	.467***
Continuance Commitment	.349***	.239***
AC to Organization	.471***	.212**
NC to Organization	.447***	.324***
CC to Organization	.292***	.139
AC to TMG	.434***	.293***
NC to TMG	.395***	.276***
CC to TMG	.230***	.324***
AC to Supervisor	.377***	.322***
NC to Supervisor	.365***	.316***
CC to Supervisor	.207***	.184**
AC to Coworkers	.364***	.489***
NC to Coworkers	.411***	.462***
CC to Coworkers	.200***	.199**
AC to citizens/customers	.520***	.483***
NC to citizens/customers	.508***	.497***
CC to citizens/customers	.322***	.098

Note : \* (p < .10, two-tailed). \*\* (p < .05, two-tailed). \*\*\* (p < .01, two-tailed)

PSM explains significant changes in variances in Korean employees' commitments to each focus with a range of 4.7 percent to 23.1 percent. In particular, the role of PSM is conspicuous in the public employee sample. The inclusion of PSM increases the variance in explaining the commitments of public employees with a range of 9.8 percent to 23.1 percent. However, the variance increased by PSM is much smaller in the private employee sample with a range of 4.7 percent to 12.3 percent. In addition, in the public employee sample, the largest increase of variance that occurs by the inclusion is detected in commitment to citizens/customers and the smallest is in commitment to supervisor. However, in the private employee sample, the largest increase occurs in commitment to coworkers and the smallest in the commitment to organization.

In summary, compared to private sector employees, Korean public employees showed higher level of PSM, which was significantly associated with their commitments to each focus, in particular, commitment to citizens/customers. This result suggests that PSM is one of the important sources from which Korean public employees' commitment comes. H14 is supported. This result is consistent with the previous findings (Crewson, 1997; Rainey, 1982).

Although it is not a research topic this study tries to investigate, one interesting issue in the field of public administration is to compare the factor structure drawn from the Korean samples to Perry's (1996). The matched factor structure is a strong indication of its applicability to Korean samples and thus its universality. Thus, this study examined the factor structure of PSM using the EFA procedure described above.

Table 46. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Testing H14

	Commitment to Organization		Commitment to Top Management		Commitment to Supervisor		Commitment to Coworkers		Commitment to Citizens/customers	
	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private
Step 1										
Age	.368***	.410***	.367***	.380***	.214***	.127	.224***	.241	.358**	.218
Gender	.024	.031	.037	-.044	.022	-.099	-.007	.059	.020	-.044
Marriage	-.034	-.102	-.003	-.007	-.003	.048	.084	.110	.000	.194
Education	.052	.073	-.008	.270***	-.018	.226**	.122**	.051	.114	.110
Income	.015	-.102	.052	-.314**	.082	-.223	-.091	-.201	.041	-.301**
R <sup>2</sup>	.127	.090	.151	.150	.069	.079	.052	.044	.099	.086
F-value	10.89***	2.26*	13.33***	4.03***	5.53***	1.96*	4.10***	1.05	8.22***	2.13*
Step 2										
Age	.242***	.334***	.265***	.285**	.114***	.024	.110*	.105	.205***	.097
Gender	.013	.020	.028	-.058	.014	-.114	-.017	.039	.006	-.062
Marriage	-.039	-.107	-.007	-.012	-.007	.042	.080	.101	-.006	.187
Education	.000	.055	-.050	.248***	-.058	.202**	.075	.019	.051	.081
Income	-.011	-.047	.031	-.244*	.062	-.147	-.114*	-.101	-.097	-.212
PSM	.420***	.224**	.342***	.282***	.334***	.3-5***	.383***	.402***	.512***	.361***
R <sup>2</sup>	.283	.137	.254	.225	.167	.167	.181	.197	.330	.208
△R <sup>2</sup>	.156	.047	.103	.075	.098	.088	.129	.152	.231	.123
F-value	24.60***	3.00***	21.23***	5.47***	12.50***	3.77***	13.78***	4.61***	30.73***	4.95***

Note: Values are standardized regression weights. \* (p < .10, two-tailed). \*\* (p < .05, two-tailed). \*\*\* (p < .01, two-tailed)

Perry (1996) suggested using a PSM scale consisting of four subdimensions — attraction to public policy making, commitment to the public interest/civic duty, compassion, and self-sacrifice. This study used only fourteen items of the original 24 items of the PSM scale because of the length of the survey questionnaire. The results of EFA on Korean public employees generally support the four dimensions of the scale that Perry initially suggested. Table 47 shows the factor loadings of the fourteen items.

Factors 1, 2, 3, and 4 exactly correspond to ‘self-sacrifice,’ ‘attraction to policy making,’ ‘compassion,’ and ‘commitment to the public interest,’ respectively in Perry’s work (1996). This provides the initial evidence of the applicability of the scale to Korean public employees, given the acceptable level of internal consistency reliability (.74) and its strong relationships with public employees’ commitments. More research efforts should be paid to PSM in both Korean and American settings.

Finally, this research includes the attitude subscale from the individualism-collectivism dimensions in order to clarify cultural characteristics (if any) that may help interpret the results obtained from the Korean samples (Oh, 1995). In general, previous research has pointed that Korean is a collectivist society and two hypotheses were made in this regard. First, it was hypothesized that collectivism had positive relations with both normative and affective bases of commitment, whereas it had no significant relation with continuance base of commitment (H15). In addition, H16 states that the attitude dimension of individualism-collectivism explains some variances in Korean employees’ commitments (global and four constituency-specific commitments).

Table 47. Factor loadings of PSM in the Public Employee Sample

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor3	Factor4
1. Politics is a dirty word. (r)		.749		
2. The give and take of public policy making does not appeal to me. (r)		.494		
3. I don't care much for politicians.(r)		.692		
4. I unselfishly contribute to my community.				.265
5. I consider public service my civic duty.				.783
6. Meaningful public service is very important to me.				.774
7. I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged. (r)			.515	
8. To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others.				.366
9. I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first step to help themselves. (r)			.267	
10. I seldom think about the welfare of people I don't know personally. (r)			.913	
11. Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself.	.619			
12. Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.	.803			
13. I think people should give back to society more than they get from it.	.668			
14. I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society.	.739			

Note: "r" means the reverse-coded item. Factor loadings are based on the principal axis factoring with oblique rotation.

The data show that public employees have more collectivist tendency than business sector employees (see Table 17). This matches well the previous finding in this study, that is, higher level of the public service motivation among public employees. The zero-order correlations between the individual–collectivism dimension and the commitment scales support H15 (Table 48). In general, collectivism has strong and positive associations with the commitment scales among public employees. However, the relations of the individualism–collectivism dimension with the commitment scales are not that strong among business sector employees.

The individualism–collectivism dimension has stronger associations with AC and NC than with CC among public employees. However, more individualistic private sector employees reveal that the individualism–collectivism dimension has a positive association with CC to organization, not with AC and NC to organization. In addition, among public employees, it has stronger associations with commitments to organization, coworkers, and citizens/customers than with commitments to top management and supervisor. However, among private employees, there are stronger positive associations with commitments to top management and citizens/customers than with commitments to other foci.

In sum, the individualism–collectivism dimension has stronger associations with AC and NC to organization, to coworker, and to citizens/customers among public employees. On the other hand, among private employees, it has stronger associations with CC to organization and top management. H15 is partially supported.

Table 48. Correlations between the Collectivism and the Commitment Scales

Variables	Public Employees	Private Employees
	Collectivism	Collectivism
Global Commitment	.431***	.225***
Commitment to Management	.335***	.215***
Commitment to Supervisor	.324***	
Commitment to Coworkers	.421***	.228***
Commitment to citizens/customers	.398***	.288***
Affective Commitment	.467***	.308***
Normative Commitment	.438***	.211**
Continuance Commitment	.311***	.290***
AC to Organization	.396***	.137
NC to Organization	.357***	.131
CC to Organization	.313***	.264**
AC to TMG	.286***	.143
NC to TMG	.323***	.149*
CC to TMG	.053***	.267***
AC to Supervisor	.331***	.294***
NC to Supervisor	.288***	.155*
CC to Supervisor	.201***	.262***
AC to Coworkers	.466***	.317***
NC to Coworkers	.403***	.115
CC to Coworkers	.149***	.176*
AC to citizens/customers	.383***	.261***
NC to citizens/customers	.370***	.312***
CC to citizens/customers	.218***	.171*

Note : \* (p < .10, two-tailed). \*\* (p < .05, two-tailed). \*\*\* (p < .01, two-tailed)

The results of hierarchical regression analyses in Table 49 also show that the individualism–collectivism dimension explains significant variances in Korean employees' commitments. In particular, the variances explained by the dimension are larger in global commitment, coworker commitment, and citizens/customers commitment than in top management commitment and supervisor commitment. In addition, the increase of variance is more noticeable among public employees. However, in the case of top management and supervisor commitment, there are no differences in the increase of variance between the two samples. H16 is partially supported.

### Summary

This research tested 69 hypotheses including 54 subhypotheses. Table 50 summarizes the results. Although most hypotheses are either supported or partially supported, some are not. The implications of the results deserve attention here.

When it comes to whether employees can distinguish commitments to five foci — i.e. organization, top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers, the results were inconsistent across the two samples, which precludes a firm conclusion. However, this study found that Korean public and private sector employees can distinguish affective commitments to four foci — i.e. organization and top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers. This means that AC to these foci can be conceptually and empirically distinguishable. This result is consistent with previous findings (Kingsford, 1995; Suszko, 1990; Gregersen, 1993; Becker et al., 1996).

However, evidence for the distinction between three bases of commitment was not fully provided. In particular, the distinction between AC and NC in the samples is generally weak. All in all, this suggests that the assumption that each commitment has

three bases needs modification. For example, CC may not be an appropriate base for commitments to supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers.

One problem found in this research is that the inclusion of both four foci (top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers) and two bases (normative and continuance) increased only marginally variances explained of such variables as withdrawal intention from organization, search behavior, and extra-efforts for organization after considering the variances explained by the OCQ. This raises question about the usefulness of the multi-base and multi-focus approaches.

The mediating effects of global commitment on the organization–level outcome variables are confined to the withdrawal intention from organization. This finding is in contrast to Hunter and Morgan (1994). This study found that commitments to top management, to coworkers, and to citizens/customers have direct impacts on extra-efforts for organization without the mediating effects of global commitment.

On the other hand, the submodels in this study made in order to investigate the commitment scales in a nomological net are supported. However, none of the hypotheses including the external whistle–blowing intention are supported. Speculation is that this may be due to the inadequate measurement. Or respondents might not be honest in responding to those questions.

This study also found that public employees show higher level of commitment to an organization than business sector employees. On the other hand, there are no differences among public and private employees in terms of commitment to supervisor and coworkers. Public employees also reveal stronger affective and normative commitments to organization, top management, and citizens/customers. These generally

suggest that, although it is not yet very psychometrically solid, the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approach is a useful tool in comparing public employees' commitments with those of private sector employees.

Interestingly, this study also found that both the PSM and the individualism-collectivism had considerable effects on commitment of Korean public employees. Compared to private sector employees, Korean public employees showed higher levels of PSM, which was significantly associated with their commitments to each focus, in particular, commitment to citizens/customers. This result suggests that PSM is one of the most important sources from which Korean public employees' commitment comes. In addition, the study found a promising clue on the applicability of PSM in Korean settings. The factor analytic results show that the factor structure of PSM found in American settings is replicated in Korea.

On the other hand, the empirical data of this study show that public employees have more collectivist tendencies than business sector employees. The individualism-collectivism dimension had stronger association with AC and NC to organization, to coworker, and citizens/customers among public employees, while it has stronger associations with CC to organization and to top management among private sector employees. Additionally, the individualism-collectivism dimension explains significant variances in Korean employees' commitments. In particular, the variances explained by the dimension are larger in global commitment, coworker commitment, and citizens/customers commitment than in top management commitment and supervisor commitment.

Table 49. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Testing H16

	Commitment to Organization		Commitment to Top Management		Commitment to Supervisor		Commitment to Coworkers		Commitment to Citizens/customers	
	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private
Step 1										
Age	.368***	.410***	.367***	.380***	.214***	.127	.224***	.241	.358**	.218
Gender	.024	.031	.037	-.044	.022	-.099	-.007	.059	.020	-.044
Marriage	-.034	-.102	-.003	-.007	-.003	.048	.084	.110	.000	.194
Education	.052	.073	-.008	.270***	-.018	.226**	.122**	.051	.114	.110
Income	.015	-.102	.052	-.314**	.082	-.223	-.091	-.201	.041	-.301**
R <sup>2</sup>	.127	.090	.151	.150	.069	.079	.052	.044	.099	.086
F-value	10.89***	2.26*	13.33***	4.03***	5.53***	1.96*	4.10***	1.05	8.22***	2.13*
Step 2										
Age	.244***	.416***	.284***	.386***	.118*	.134	.089	.247*	.243***	.226
Gender	.037	.028	.046	-.047	.032	-.103	.007	.056	.032	-.049
Marriage	-.044	-.098	-.013	-.003	-.014	.053	.069	.114	-.014	.199
Education	.034	.047	-.020	.248***	-.031	.198**	.103*	.026	.097*	.080
Income	.045	-.047	.072	-.266**	.106	-.162	-.058	-.148	-.038	-.236*
Collectivism	.363***	.258***	.245***	.226**	.280***	.287***	.396***	.249***	.338***	.309***
R <sup>2</sup>	.245	.153	.205	.198	.139	.157	.192	.103	.201	.176
△R <sup>2</sup>	.118	.063	.054	.048	.070	.078	.141	.059	.102	.090
F-value	20.22***	3.41***	16.05***	4.66***	10.06***	3.51***	14.84***	2.16*	15.68***	4.02***

Note: Values are standardized regression weights. \* (p < .10, two-tailed). \*\* (p < .05, two-tailed). \*\*\* (p < .01, two-tailed).

Table 50. Summary of Hypotheses–Testing Results

<b>H1:</b> Employees can distinguish global commitment and four constituency–specific commitments.	
<b>Partially supported.</b> In terms of AC, respondents distinguished four commitments — global and top management, supervisor, coworker, and citizens/customers commitments across the two samples. Public employees distinguish NC to organization, NC to both top management and supervisor, and NC to both coworkers and citizens/customers. In the private employee sample, NC items for organization, top management, and supervisor loaded on one factor, whereas NC items for coworker and citizens/customers loaded on another factor. However, in terms of CC, respondents do not distinguish among them.	
<b>H2:</b> Each commitment has three bases of commitment.	
<b>Partially supported.</b> The evidence for the distinction between AC and NC was not found. However, this study found the evidence of the existence of the distinction between CC and AC (or NC).	
<b>H3:</b> The basic model is superior to the OCQ in explaining variances in organization–level outcome variables.	
<b>Partially Supported.</b> Inclusion of four foci (top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers) increased only marginally variances explained with the range of .8 percent to 5.5 percent And inclusion of two bases (normative and continuance commitments) explained small percentage of variance (1.2 percent to 5.5 percent) more than the OCQ did.	
<b>H4:</b> There are positive relationships between all constituency–specific commitments and global commitment.	
<b>Supported.</b> There were significant and large correlations between global commitment and four constituency–specific commitments.	
<b>H5:</b> Global commitment mediates impacts of constituency–specific commitments to organization-level outcome variables.	
<b>Partially Supported.</b> The mediating effects of global commitment on the outcome variables are confined to the withdrawal intention from organization.	
<b>H6–1:</b> Organization–related variables are more strongly associated with global commitment than with other constituency–specific commitments	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–2:</b> Top management-related variables are more strongly associated with top management commitment than with other constituency–specific commitments.	<b>Supported.</b>

<b>H6-3:</b> Supervisor-related variables are more strongly associated with supervisor commitment than with other constituency-specific commitments.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6-4:</b> Coworkers-related variables are more strongly associated with coworker commitment than with other constituency-specific commitments.	<b>Not supported.</b>
<b>H6-5:</b> Citizens/customers-related variables are more strongly associated with citizens/customers commitment than with other constituency-specific commitments.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6-6:</b> Organizational support is positively associated with affective commitment to organization.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6-8:</b> Job security is positively associated with continuance commitment to organization.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>
<b>H6-9:</b> Pay satisfaction is positively associated with continuance commitment to organization.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>
<b>H6-10:</b> Pay satisfaction is not positively associated with normative commitment to organization.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6-11:</b> Job alternatives is negatively associated with continuance commitment to organization.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6-12:</b> Social supportiveness is positively associated with normative commitment to organization.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6-13:</b> Global commitment is negatively associated with both withdrawal intention from organization and search behavior.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6-14:</b> Each base of commitment to organization is negatively associated with both withdrawal intention from organization and search behavior.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6-15:</b> Each base of commitment to organization makes an independent contribution in predicting both withdrawal intention from organization and search behavior after controlling for other bases.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>
<b>H6-16:</b> Global commitment is positively associated with extra-efforts for organization.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6-17:</b> Both affective commitment and normative commitment to organization are positively related to extra-efforts for organization,	<b>Supported.</b>

whereas continuance commitment to organization is either unrelated or negatively related to extra-efforts for organization.	
<b>H6–18:</b> Affective commitment to organization has an inverted curvilinear relationship with external whistle–blowing intention.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6–19:</b> Continuance commitment to organization is negatively associated with external whistle–blowing intention.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6–20:</b> Normative commitment to organization is positively related to external whistle–blowing intention.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6–21:</b> Top management support is positively associated with affective commitment to top management.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–22:</b> Participation in decision–making is positively associated with both affective commitment and normative commitment to top management.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–23:</b> Political penetration in management practices is negatively associated with both affective commitment and normative commitment to top management.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–24:</b> Interaction with top management is positively associated with each base of top management commitment.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–25:</b> Leadership turnover is negatively associated with each base of top management commitment.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6–26:</b> Top management commitment is positively associated with extra-efforts for top management.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–27:</b> Both affective commitment and normative commitment to top management are positively related to extra-efforts for top management, whereas continuance commitment to top management is either unrelated or negatively related to extra-efforts for top management.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–28:</b> Affective commitment to top management has an inverted curvilinear relationship with external whistle–blowing intention.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6–29:</b> Continuance commitment to top management is negatively associated external whistle–blowing intention, whereas normative commitment to top management is positively associated with external whistle–blowing intention.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>

<b>H6–30:</b> Supervisor support is positively associated with affective commitment to supervisor.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>
<b>H6–31:</b> Interaction with supervisor is positively associated with each base of supervisor commitment.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–32:</b> Supervisor turnover is negatively associated with each base of supervisor commitment.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6–33:</b> Supervisor commitment is positively related to extra-efforts for supervisor.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–34:</b> Both affective commitment and normative commitment to top management are positively related to extra-efforts for supervisor, whereas continuance commitment to top management is either unrelated or negatively related to extra-efforts for supervisor.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–35:</b> Affective commitment to supervisor has an inverted curvilinear relationship with external whistle-blowing intention.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6–36:</b> Continuance commitment to supervisor is negatively associated with external whistle-blowing intention, whereas normative commitment to supervisor is positively associated with external whistle-blowing intention.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6–37:</b> Supervisor commitment is negatively associated with withdrawal intention from supervisor.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–38:</b> Each base of supervisor commitment is negatively associated with withdrawal intention from supervisor.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–39:</b> Each base of supervisor commitment makes an independent contribution in predicting withdrawal intention from supervisor controlling for other bases.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6–40:</b> Coworker support is positively associated with affective commitment to coworkers.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–41:</b> Interaction with coworkers is positively associated with each base of coworker commitment.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–42:</b> Coworker turnover is negatively associated with each base of coworker commitment.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6–43:</b> Coworker commitment is positively associated with extra-efforts for coworkers.	<b>Supported.</b>

<b>H6–44:</b> Both affective commitment and normative commitment to coworkers are positively related to extra-efforts for coworkers, whereas continuance commitment to coworkers has no, or negative, associated with extra-efforts for coworkers.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–45:</b> Affective commitment to coworkers has an inverted curvilinear relation with external whistle-blowing intention.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6–46:</b> Continuance commitment to coworkers is negatively associated with external whistle-blowing intention, whereas normative commitment to coworkers is positively associated with external whistle-blowing intention.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H6–47:</b> Coworker commitment is negatively associated with withdrawal intention from coworkers.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>
<b>H6–48:</b> Each base of coworker commitment is negatively associated with withdrawal intention from coworkers.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>
<b>H6–49:</b> Each base of coworker commitment makes an independent contribution in predicting withdrawal intention from coworkers after controlling for other bases.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>
<b>H6–50:</b> Interaction with citizens/customers is positively associated with each base of citizens/customers commitment.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–51:</b> Service orientation is positively associated with both affective commitment and normative commitment to citizens/customers.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–52:</b> Direct service to citizens/customers is positively associated with both affective commitment and normative commitment to citizens/customers.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–53:</b> Citizens/customers commitment is positively associated with extra-efforts for citizens/customers.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H6–54:</b> Both affective commitment and normative commitment to citizens/customers are positively related to extra-efforts for citizens/customers, whereas continuance commitment to citizens/customers has no, or negative, association with extra-efforts for citizens/customers.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>
<b>H6–55:</b> Both affective commitment and normative commitment to citizens/customers are positively related to external whistle-blowing	<b>Not Supported.</b>

intention, whereas continuance commitment to citizens/customers has no, or negative, associated with external whistle-blowing intention.	
<b>H7:</b> Public sector employees reveal lower level of commitment to an organization than business sector employees.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H8:</b> Public employees will have higher level of commitment to citizens/customers than private sector employees.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H9:</b> Public employees show low levels of top management commitment.	<b>Not Supported.</b>
<b>H10:</b> There are no differences among public and private employees in terms of commitment to supervisor and coworkers.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H11:</b> Without regard to foci, public employees will show higher level of normative commitment, lower level of continuance commitment, and the same level of affective commitment compared to business employees.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>
<b>H12:</b> Public service motivation is positively associated with normative and affective bases of commitment, whereas it has no significant association with the continuance base of commitment.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>
<b>H13:</b> Public service motivation is positively associated with citizens/customers commitment.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H14:</b> Public service motivation explains some significant variances in Korean employees' commitments.	<b>Supported.</b>
<b>H15:</b> Collectivism has positive relations with both normative and affective bases of commitment, whereas it has no significant relation with continuance base of commitment.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>
<b>H16:</b> The attitude dimension of individualism–collectivism explains some variances in Korean employees' commitments.	<b>Partially Supported.</b>

## CHAPTER 6

### CONCLUSION

This chapter consists of two sections. An overview of this study is presented in the first section. The second section addresses the limitations of this study and also sketches recommendations for future research with a focus on the conceptual and methodological issues of the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approach.

#### Overview of the Study

Although OC has been a popular topic during the past three decades, there still remains confusion over its definitions and measurements. A recent research stream recognizing the multidimensionality and multiple foci of OC seems promising, regardless of its infancy in terms of conceptualization and methodology.

Following this research stream, this study conceptualized commitment to an entity as a psychological state that characterizes a person's relationship with the entity in question. In addition, the psychological bond is conceived as having three bases (affective, normative, and continuance bases). This research also recognized that, in reality, an employee may have commitments to multiple foci (organization as a whole, top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers) at the same time within an organization in contrast to the conventional research, which focused on the organization as a whole. In combination, this study followed the conceptual integration of the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approach suggested by Meyer and Allen

(1997) — the existence of fifteen (3 X 5) commitments. It also adopted the commitment model suggested by Hunt and Morgan (1994) with regard to the relationship between the global commitment and four constituency-specific commitments.

For the sake of the quality of measurements of the fifteen commitment scales, this study attempted to investigate the psychometric properties — such as reliability, convergent/discriminant validity, and construct validity — of the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approach — that is, the fifteen commitment scales. For construct validation of the fifteen commitment scales in a nomological network, in addition, five submodels were proposed, which included such variables as: (1) organization-related variables (organizational support, organizational constraints, job security, pay satisfaction, social supportiveness, withdrawal intention from organization, search behavior, extra-efforts for organization, and external whistle-blowing intention), (2) top management-related variables (top management support, participation in decision making, political penetration in management practices, interaction with top management, leadership turnover, extra-efforts for top management), (3) supervisor-related variables (supervisor support, interaction with supervisor, supervisor turnover, extra-efforts for supervisor, withdrawal intention from supervisor), (4) coworker-related variables (interaction with coworkers, coworker turnover, coworker support, extra-efforts for coworkers, and withdrawal intention from coworkers), and (5) citizens/customers-related variables (direct service to citizens/customers, interaction with citizens/customers, service orientation, and extra-efforts for citizens/customers).

On the other hand, this study was also based on the reasoning that this sort of re-conceptualization of commitment was adequate in particular for measuring OC of public

sector employees and thus was a useful tool for comparing their OC with that of their private sector counterparts. To put it another way, this research assumed that previous research on OC of public employees should be reevaluated through this re-conceptualization — the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approach.

In summary, by using the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approach, this study investigated on what bases (or why) employees are committed to their organizations, or to other foci such as top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers. Based upon this knowledge, this study also tried to identify the differences of commitment patterns and levels between public and private sector employees. This study was one of the few attempts to adopt the multidimensional and multi-facet OC approaches in comparing public sector employees with their private sector counterparts.

This study used samples selected from five (three public and two private) Korean organizations. Among them, two were training institutes selected in order to increase the external validity of this study. The data used in this study were collected from self-administered questionnaires during the period of May through June 2002. Most measures were assessed with measures that have been widely used in the study of organizations. Since the survey was conducted in Korea, the translation of the English version of the questionnaire to the Korean version was conducted using the translation and back-translation procedure suggested by Brislin (1970). The analytical tools used in this study were correlation analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and regression analysis.

The psychometric properties of the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approach — fifteen commitment scales — were mixed. A few aspects of their

psychometric properties were supported, whereas others were not. Several major findings with regard to the psychometric soundness of the multi-base and multi-focus commitment approach are as follows.

First, factor analyses conducted in order to know whether each of 15 commitment scales has uni-dimensionality showed that most AC and NC scales to five foci had acceptable levels of both factor loadings and internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha). However, CC items for five foci resulted in two factor solutions with low reliabilities, suggesting their poor psychometric properties.

Second, the correlation and exploratory factor analyses showed that the assumption that employees can distinguish between five foci was not always true. The patterns generated by those five foci were different according to the bases on which commitment relied. And the results were inconsistent across the two (public and private) samples.

In terms of AC to five foci, Korean public and private sector employees distinguished four foci — organization and top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers. On the other hand, among Korean public employees, NC items loaded on three factors — organization (factor 1), top management and supervisor (factor 2), and coworkers and citizens/customers (factor 3). However, in the private employee sample, two factor solutions were appropriate — organization, top management, and supervisor (factor 1), and coworkers and citizens/customers (factor 2). Finally CC items failed to show any interpretable and consistent factor loadings.

Third, the evidence for the distinction between AC and NC to individual focus was generally weak, although there was some evidence for the distinction between CC

and AC (or NC), particularly in case of commitment to organization and to supervisor. However, top management commitment had one dimension in both samples. Additionally, both coworker commitment and citizens/customers commitment showed inconsistent dimensions across the two samples.

All in all, this result does not fully support the conceptual integration of the multi-base and multi-focus commitments (3 X 5 commitment scales), which was suggested by Meyer and Allen (1997) and adopted by this research (see Figure 3).

Fourth, similarly, the inclusion of four additional foci — top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers — increased only marginally variances of such variables as withdrawal intention from organization, search behavior, and extra-efforts for organization with the range of 0.8 to 5.5 percent after considering the variances explained by the OCQ. The inclusion of two bases (normative and continuance commitments) also generated small increases in variances explaining those outcome variables with a range of 1.2 to 5.5 percent after considering the variances explained by the OCQ. These results generally raise questions about the usefulness of the multi-base and multi-focus approach. Thus, research using the multi-base and multi-foci approach should proceed with caution.

However, a direct rejection of the multi-base and multi-focus approach is somewhat risky. As shown before, there remains evidence for some distinguishable commitments such as AC (and NC) to organization, CC to organization, Commitment to top management, AC (and NC) to supervisor, CC to supervisor, AC to coworkers. Despite this gloomy picture of the multi-base and multi-focus approach, then, there is also advocacy for it in forms not yet recognized. In this sense, we have only just begun to

understand the complex nature of the psychological bond between organizations and employees.

First, the multi-base and multi-focus approach is a useful tool in comparing public employees' commitments with those of private sector employees. By shedding light on the multi-base and multi-focus approach, this study found that, although the public employees had only marginally stronger global commitment — commitment to an organization — they did have stronger commitment to citizens/customers, and stronger affective and normative commitments to organization, top management, and citizens/customers (see Figure 8) than their private sector counterparts had. This result is generally consistent with the literature of public administration (Crewson, 1997; Rainey, 1982).

Second, as the general theory suggests, this study also found that psychologically proximal factors had dominant effects on commitment to local foci. For example, supervisor-related variables were more strongly related to supervisor commitment than to other constituency-specific commitments.

Third, despite some mixed results, the submodels (global commitment model, top management commitment model, supervisor commitment model, coworker commitment model, and citizens/customers commitment model) of this study made in order to investigate the commitment scales in a nomological network were generally supported.

Therefore, the immediate rejection of the multi-base and multi-focus approaches is not needed; rather, we need conceptual and methodological refinement of the approaches. For example, this study strongly suggests that CC is not an appropriate

base for commitments to supervisor, coworker, and citizens/customers. In addition, the distinction between AC and NC should be refined more. The difficulty in distinguishing between AC and NC may come not only from their conceptual overlaps, but also from inadequate measurements, or from undistinguished but different archetypes of organizations.

One caution for further development of the multi-base and multi-focus approaches is appropriate here, though. The multi-base and multi-focus approaches have some problems with regard to the parsimony, a virtue in the social sciences. In addition, as Morrow, Eastman, and McElory (1991) argue, a more precise and specific approach may have such problems as "false precision", which occurs mainly when the subject cannot discriminate between ostensibly more precise measures and their concepts. For example, Morrow et al. (1991) report that naïve raters had more difficulty in distinguishing between five work commitment measures (protestant work ethic, career salience, job involvement, work as a central life interest, and organizational commitment) than raters familiar with those concepts and measures. Perhaps researchers should not be "so ambitious in their propagation of additional concepts and measures that the incremental benefits they have achieved are only perceptible to other researchers (Morrow et al., 1991, p.230)".

Finally, this study found that both the PSM and the individualism-collectivism dimension had considerable effects on commitment of Korean public employees. Compared to private sector employees, Korean public employees showed higher levels of PSM, which was significantly associated with their commitments to each focus, in particular, commitment to citizens/customers. This result suggests that PSM is one of the

important sources from which Korean public employees' commitment comes. In addition, the individualism–collectivism dimension had stronger association with AC and NC to organization, to coworkers, and to citizens/customers among public employees, while it has stronger associations with CC to organization and to top management among private sector employees.

### Recommendations for Further Study

The call for the refinement and development of the multi-base and multi-focus approach directly reflects one critical limitation of this study. In addition, this study has other limitations. They come from the use of self-reports (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Crampton & Wagner III, 1994). This research may have a common methods bias — the magnitude of the discrepancies between the observed and the true relationships between constructs that results from common methods variance (Doty & Glick, 1998; Williams & Brown, 1994).<sup>8</sup> This is a well-known problem in organizational research. This bias occurs when measures of two or more variables are collected from the same respondents and the attempt is made to interpret any correlations among them. For example, method variance can have extreme effects on the probability of finding significant results, even when there is no true relationship among constructs.

Another concern is the social desirability problem, which occurs because questionnaire items may prompt responses that will present the person in a favorable light. Social desirability response means presenting oneself favorably regarding current social norms and standards. It may lead to bias in responses to the questionnaire.

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<sup>8</sup> Doty and Glick (1998) distinguish common methods bias from common methods variance, saying "Although common methods bias cannot occur without common methods variance, the presence of common methods variance is not sufficient to conclude that common methods bias exists."(376)

Several methods have been used to resolve the problems in the use of self-reports — e.g. Harman's one-factor test, statistical control through partial correlation, and using measures of social desirability (Zerba & Paulhaus, 1987; Arnold & Feldman, 1981). However, these methods present some problems, in turn. For example, in Harman's one-factor test, there is the chance of throwing out functional interrelationships along with the common method variance. As long as we know little about how much of variance is due to common methods variance, almost all methods have some problems in their use. On the other hand, some argue that the effect of common methods bias may not be as great as feared. Thus, common methods bias may not pose a serious threat to the interpretation of most research results although it does affect (inflate or deflate) the estimates of correlations among substantive constructs.

To assess a possible social desirability effect in responding to the questionnaire, several methods have been suggested. For example, one method is to include the Crowne and Marlowe social desirability index in the questionnaire. However, several researchers reported inconsequential effects of social desirability in organizational behavior research. Schuman and Pressor (1996) argues that social desirability seems a less serious hazard than we had initially assumed because it is not a problem at least in the interpretation of correlations to the extent that this problem causes only upward or downward shifts in the distribution of responses. Thus, the current study did not include the Crowne and Marlowe (1964) index.

On the other hand, this study was basically cross-sectional in design, which precludes proving causality. Thus, the model presented in the previous chapter is not intended to be causal in any sense. Mowday et al. (1982) reasoned that the OC was

perhaps a process that may begin before an employee enters the organization and unfold over time. Most OC studies have been cross-sectional in design and thus have had sharp limitation on causal inference for the results. Some longitudinal studies have been confined to the initial socialization period. Obviously, there is a need for longitudinal studies, which makes possible a strong inference of causal links. A longitudinal study designed carefully is essential for a better understanding of employee commitment as a process. In particular, the extension of this study into a longitudinal one will be able to shed light on the change of the composition of the bases and foci commitments and in turn help to isolate factors which influence the transition of the commitment (e.g., conflicts among multiple commitments).

This study surveyed public and private employees from a diversity of organizations in order to investigate the sectoral differences in commitments to five foci. However, further quantitative and qualitative studies focused on an individual organization are needed in order to investigate the mechanism instigating commitments among employees in detail. One critical limitation of this study was the lack of pretests and wide interviews that asked about commitment foci and possible conflicts among commitments before the main survey. For this purpose, the introduction of qualitative research methods should be considered at the stage of planning the research.

Because the multi-base and multi-focus approach of commitment is at its nascent stage, the model-specification for commitments to each focus — in particular, top management commitment, supervisor commitment, coworker commitment, and citizens/customers commitment — was admittedly crude. Efforts for the refinement of the model specification deserve attention.

So far, this dissertation has focused on the positive sides of OC for both individuals and organizations. However, the potential negative consequences of OC also deserve further study (Randall, 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Romzek, 1990). Roughly, the negative consequences of OC result from two main sources: over-commitment and conflicts between commitments. Randall (1987) illustrates the potential negative consequences of over-commitment both for the employees and for the organization; examples of such consequences are a lack of creativity, resistance to change, excessive stress, overzealous conformity, ineffectiveness of human resources and even a willingness to engage in corporate crimes for the benefit of the firm. She argues that the relationship between commitment and desirable outcomes may be shaped like an inverted U-curve.

Mowday et al. (1982) also reason that high commitment might lead to great stress, career stagnation, and family strains for individuals. In a similar vein, Romzek (1990) presents a continuum of commitment ranging from high to low (the zealots, the highly committed, the moderately committed, the marginally committed, and the alienated). She also articulates that the zealots might be detrimental to the operation of the organization (recall Marine Lt. Colonel Oliver North in the Iran-Contra case). However, overall, the potential negative effects of OC represent one area of inquiry that has been largely underinvestigated (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Finally, there is an emerging consensus that the dimension of public versus private is a continuum rather than dichotomy (Bozeman, 1984, 1987; Bozeman & Bretschneider, 1994). The sectoral inter-penetration (e.g., co-production, contracting-out) makes the traditional dichotomous distinction more unacceptable. This study focused

only on core public and private agencies. Future research based on the continuous concept of publicness is needed.

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## APPENDICES

### A. ITEMS FOR MEASURES

Variable	Measure
Affective commitment (AC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- I really feel as if this organization (top management, supervisor, coworker, citizen/customer)'s problems are my own.</li> <li>- I do not feel 'emotionally attached" to this organization (top management, supervisor, coworker, citizen/customer). (r)</li> <li>- I feel like "part of the family" at this organization (top management, supervisor, coworker, citizen/customer).</li> <li>- When someone criticizes this organization, it feels like a personal insult.</li> </ul>
Normative commitment (NC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- If the values and goals of this organization (top management, supervisor, coworker, citizen/customer) were different, I would not be as attached to this organization.</li> <li>- My attachment to this organization (top management, supervisor, coworker, citizen/customer) is primarily based on the similarity of my values and those represented by this organization.</li> <li>- What this organization (top management, supervisor, coworker, citizen/customer) stands for is important to me.</li> <li>- I feel a sense of pride in working for this organization (top management, supervisor, coworker, citizen/customer).</li> </ul>
Continuance commitment (CC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Right now, staying with my organization (top management, supervisor, coworker, citizen/customer) is a matter of necessity as much as desire.</li> <li>- If I had not already put too much myself into this organization (top management, supervisor, coworker, citizen/customer), I might consider working elsewhere.</li> <li>- My private views about this organization (top management, supervisor, coworker, citizen/customer) are different than those I express publicly.</li> <li>- Unless this organization (top management, supervisor, coworker,</li> </ul>

	citizen/customer) rewards me for it in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort on behalf of this organization.
Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)	<p>1. I am willing to put in a greater deal of effort beyond that expected in order to help this organization to be successful.</p> <p>2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.</p> <p>3. I find my values and the organization's values are very similar.</p> <p>4. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.</p> <p>5. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.</p> <p>6. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.</p> <p>7. I really care about the fate of this organization.</p> <p>8. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.</p> <p>9. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.</p>
Perceived organizational support (OS)	<p>1. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice (r)</p> <p>2. The organization shows very little concern for me. (r)</p> <p>3. Help is available from the organization when I have a problem</p>
Perceived organizational constraints (POC)	<p>The rules and regulations in my organization;</p> <p>1. often prevent my being granted a pay raise or bonus.</p> <p>2. allow us a lot of freedom in dismissing employees. (r)</p> <p>3. have a lot of influence over my daily work routine</p> <p>4. largely determine how the organization's money is spent</p> <p>5. cause few problems for my promotion. (r)</p> <p>6. make it difficult us to hire whom we would like.</p>
Perceived job security (JS)	<p>1. I am secure in my job.</p> <p>2. I will be able to work in this organization as long as I wish.</p>
Pay satisfaction (PS)	<p>1. I am generally satisfied with the amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.</p> <p>2. I am paid fairly for what I contribute to this organization.</p> <p>3. I am paid less than others who are doing similar work. (r)</p>
Perceived job	1. It is very likely that I can find a job with another employer with about the

alternatives (JA)	<p>same or better pay and benefits that I have.</p> <p>2. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.</p>
Perceived social supportiveness (SS)	<p>1. My current job is perceived as a best one to have.</p> <p>2. I feel that my organization gets the good respect from the society as a whole.</p> <p>3. Being in present job is perceived as a prestigious one in my neighborhood.</p>
Withdrawal intention from organization (WIO)	<p>1. I would like to leave this organization</p> <p>2. I plan to leave this organization as soon as possible</p> <p>3. Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave this organization. (r)</p>
Search behavior (SB)	<p>1. I rarely seek out information about job opportunities in other organizations. (r)</p> <p>2. There are few chances that I will search for a job in other organization. (r)</p> <p>3. Within the next year, I intend to search for a job in other organizations.</p>
Extra-role behavior for organization (ERO)	<p>1. I volunteer for tasks that are not required for the organization.</p> <p>2. I make suggestions to improve organization.</p> <p>3. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help organization be successful.</p>
External Whistle- blowing intention (EWB)	<p>1. I am willing to report a wrongdoing in my organization to the public, other external institutions that might be able to remedy.</p> <p>2. In principle, the organizational interest is more important to me than the general public. (r)</p> <p>3. If my organization asks me to do against the interest of the general public, it is not easy to refuse organizational request. (r)</p>
Perceived top management support (PMS)	<p>1. Even if I did the best job possible, top management would fail to notice. (r)</p> <p>2. Top management shows very little concern for me. (r)</p> <p>3. Help is available from top management when I have a problem.</p>
Participation in decision- making (PDM)	<p>1. The management of this organization usually seeks my input decisions that directly affect my work.</p> <p>2. The management of this organization usually makes decisions without consulting knowledgeable employees. (r)</p>

Political penetration in practices (PPM)	<p>1. Internal management practices (e.g. hiring, promotion) in this organization are often politically motivated or influenced.</p> <p>2. This organization often treats citizens or clients differently depending on their political connections.</p>
Leadership turnover (LT), supervisor turnover (ST), and coworker turnover (CT)	<p>1. How often the highest official (e.g. president, vice president) turn over, or change in your organization?</p> <p>2. How often high officials influencing key policy making (e.g. general directors and above level officials, board of directors) turnover, or change in your organization?</p> <p>3. How often your direct supervisor turnover, or change in your organization?</p> <p>4. How often your immediate coworkers turnover, or change in your organization?</p>
Extra-role behavior for top management (ERT)	<p>1. I volunteer for tasks that are not required for top management.</p> <p>2. I make suggestions for top management.</p> <p>3. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help top management be successful.</p>
Perceived supervisor support (PSS)	<p>1. Even if I did the best job possible, my supervisor would fail to notice. (r)</p> <p>2. My supervisor shows very little concern for me. (r)</p> <p>3. Help is available from my supervisor when I have a problem.</p>
Extra-role behavior for supervisor (ERS)	<p>1. I volunteer for tasks that are not required for my supervisor.</p> <p>2. I make suggestions for my supervisor.</p> <p>3. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help my supervisor be successful.</p>
Withdrawal intention from supervisor (WIS)	<p>1. I would like to leave my supervisor.</p> <p>2. I plan to leave my supervisor soon as possible.</p> <p>3. Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave my supervisor.(r)</p>
Perceived coworker support (PCS)	<p>1. Even if I did the best job possible, my coworkers would fail to notice. (r)</p> <p>2. My coworkers show very little concern for me. (r)</p> <p>3. Help is available from my coworkers when I have a problem.</p>

Extra-role behavior for coworkers (ERC)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I volunteer for tasks that are not required for coworkers.</li> <li>2. I make suggestions for coworkers.</li> <li>3. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help coworkers be successful.</li> </ol>
Withdrawal intention from coworkers (WIC)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I would like to leave my immediate coworkers (or work group).</li> <li>2. I plan to leave my immediate coworkers (or work group) as soon as possible.</li> <li>3. Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave my immediate coworkers (or work group). (r)</li> </ol>
Direct service to the public (DSP)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. In my work, I often have the opportunity to provide an important service to the public.</li> <li>2. In my job, I often have the opportunity to help citizens or clients solve difficult or important problems.</li> </ol>
Extra-role for citizens/customers (ERCC)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I volunteer for tasks that are not required for citizens or customers.</li> <li>2. I make suggestions for citizens or customers.</li> <li>3. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help citizens or customers.</li> </ol>
Service orientation (SO)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To me, doing work that is helpful to other people is very important.</li> <li>2. To me, engaging in meaningful public service is an important value to pursue.</li> </ol>
Interaction with each focus (IT, IS, IC, ICC)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. My job requires me to interact with top management (IT).</li> <li>2. My job requires me to interact with my supervisor (IS).</li> <li>3. My job requires me to interact with my coworkers (IC).</li> <li>4. My job requires me to interact with customers (or the Public) (ICC).</li> </ol>
Public service motivation (PSM)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Politics is a dirty word. (r)</li> <li>2. The give and take of public policy making does not appeal to me. (r)</li> <li>3. I don't care much for politicians. (r)</li> <li>4. I unselfishly contribute to my community.</li> <li>5. I consider public service my civic duty.</li> <li>6. Meaningful public service is very important to me.</li> <li>7. I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged. (r)</li> <li>8. To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others.</li> <li>9. I have little compassion for people in need who are unwillingly to take the</li> </ol>

	<p>first step to help themselves. (r)</p> <p>10. I seldom think about the welfare of people I don't know personally. (r)</p> <p>11. Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself.</p> <p>12. Making a difference in society means me more to me than personal achievements.</p> <p>13. I think people should give back to society more than they get from it.</p> <p>14. I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society.</p>
Individualism-collectivism dimension (ICD)	<p>1. I would help as much as I could if a relative told me that s/he was having financial difficulties.</p> <p>2. It does not matter to me how my country is viewed in the eyes of other nations. (r)</p> <p>3. One of the pleasures of life is to be interdependent with others.</p> <p>4. What I look for in a job is a friendly group of coworkers.</p> <p>5. I would rather struggle though a personal problem by myself than discuss it with my friends. (r)</p> <p>6. Aging parents should live at home with their children.</p> <p>7. The most important thing in my life is to make myself happy. (r)</p> <p>8. One of the pleasures of life is to feel being part of a large group of people.</p>
Demographics	<p>1. What is your age? (Years)</p> <p>2. What is your gender? (Male, Female)</p> <p>3. What is your present marital status? (Single, Married, Separated, Divorced, Widowed)</p> <p>4. What is the highest level of education you have completed? (Less than high school, High school, Junior College, College graduate, Master degree, Doctoral degree)</p> <p>5. What is your present position?</p> <p>6. What is your annual income in your present position?</p> <p>7. How long have you been employed in your current organization? (Years and months)</p> <p>8. How long have you been working with current top management? (Years and months)</p> <p>9. How long have you been working with current supervisor? (Years and months)</p>

	10. How long have you been working with current coworkers? (Years and months)
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Note: "r" indicates a reverse-coded item (scoring is reversed).

## B. ASSENT FORM AND QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH)

### **Assent Form**

University of Georgia, Athens, GA

**Title of Study:** A Comparative Study of Organizational Commitment in Korean Public and Business Sector Employees.

**Investigator:** Jong-In Yoon, DPA candidate, Department of Political Science, University of Georgia (Address: 290-3 Yangjae-Dong, Seocho-Gu, Seoul, Phone: 02-579-2507, E-mail: y1101n@hotmail.com)

**Advisor:** Dr. Robert T. Golembiewski, Research Professor of Political Science and Management, Department of Political Science, University of Georgia (Address: 104 Baldwin Hall, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia 30602, U.S.A., Tel: 01-1-796-542-2057).

**Purpose:** The reason for this research is to examine organizational commitment among Korean public and private employees from a comparative perspective.

**Benefits:** Organizational commitment is one of the linkages that bind employees with their organizations. This survey will contribute not only to the development of the scientific understanding on organizational commitment among Korean employees, but also to the improvement of working conditions in contemporary organizations. In addition, upon request, the researcher are pleased to provide the complete research results for you

**Procedure:** If you agree to be a part of this study, you will be asked to fill out questionnaire that deals with your feelings or attitudes toward your organization, top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers. It will be taken about 30 minutes to fill it out.

**Risks:** This study imposes minimal risks for you. You probably will not experience any psychological adverse effect by participating in this research. Should that happen you will be offered counseling session with the researcher to help you deal with those feelings at no expense to you.

**Confidentiality:** Based on the employee or trainee lists provided by your organizations or training institutes, you are randomly selected as participants in this research to represent public and private sector. Your organizations have no way of knowing which employees are participating. All information concerning you will be kept entirely confidential and private, and also kept in a database with no chances of associating you

with specific responses. If the information about you is published, it will be written in a way that you cannot be recognized. No individual information will be shared with your organizations or others without your permission. However, research records may be obtained by court order or by law.

**Right to Refuse or Withdraw:** You have the right to not participate or withdraw from participation at anytime without prejudice, penalty or loss of benefits to which otherwise entitled.

**Further Questions:** If you have any questions or are interested in the research results, please feel free to call the researcher at 02-579-2507.

**I understand the procedures described above. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I agree to participate in this study. I have been given copy of this form.**

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of participant, Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of researcher, Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Printed name of participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Printed name of researcher

The Institutional Review Board oversees research at the University of Georgia that involves human subjects. For questions or problems about your rights please call or write: Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D., Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-6514; E-mail Address: IRB @uga.edu.

## Survey on Organizational Commitment

Department of Political Science

University of Georgia

### ◆General Instructions ◆

- 
1. Please answer questions in order. **Please do not skip around.**
  2. Most questions can be answered by simply **placing a check-mark (✓)** on the line just below the response you choose.
  3. There can be no "right" or "wrong" answers to any of the questions. **You should be as candid as possible.**
  4. If you do not find the exact response that fits your situation, check **the response that comes closest to it.**
  5. Feel free to write any explanations or comments you may have in the margins.
  6. We would like to emphasize again that your responses would be kept **strictly confidential.**
  7. After completing the questionnaire, please mail it **directly** to the researcher.  
(Jongin Yoon, 290-3 Yangjae-Dong, Seocho-Gu, Seoul, Tel: 02-579-2507)
- 

**Thank you again for your cooperation.**

1. Listed below are a series of statement concerning possible feelings about your organization. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

- |   |                   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                |
|---|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| 1. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 2. If the values and goals of this organization were different, I would <b>not</b> be as attached to this organization.                         | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 3. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 4. If I had <b>not</b> already put too much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.                               | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 5. I feel a sense of pride in working for this organization.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 6. I do <b>not</b> feel 'emotionally attached" to this organization.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 7. I feel like "part of the family" at this organization.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 8. When someone criticizes this organization, it feels like personal insult.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 9. <b>Unless</b> this organization rewards me for it in some way, I see <b>no</b> reason to expend extra effort on behalf of this organization. | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 10. My attachment to this organization is primarily based on the similarity of my goals and values and those represented by this organization.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 11. What this organization stands for is important to me.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 12. My private views about this organization are <b>different</b> than those I express publicly.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |

2. Listed below are a series of statement concerning possible feelings about your top management (presidents, vice presidents, general directors, etc). Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

- |  |                   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                |
|--|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| 1. I really feel as if top management's problems are my own.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 2. If the values and goals of top management were different, I would <b>not</b> be as attached to top management.                                | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 3. Right now, staying with top management is a matter of necessity as much as desire.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 4. If I had <b>not</b> already put too much of myself into top management, I might consider working elsewhere.                                   | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 5. I feel a sense of pride in working for top management.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 6. I do <b>not</b> feel 'emotionally attached" to top management.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 7. I feel like "part of the family" at top management.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 8. When someone criticizes top management, it feels like personal insult.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 9. <b>Unless</b> top management rewards me for it in some way, I see <b>no</b> reason to expend extra effort on behalf of top management.        | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 10. My attachment to this organization is primarily based on the similarity of my goals and values and those represented by this top management. | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 11. What top management stands for is important to me.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 12. My private views about top management are <b>different</b> than those I express publicly.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |

3. Listed below are a series of statement concerning possible feelings about your supervisor (the immediate boss). Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

- |  |                   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                |
|--|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| 1. I really feel as if my supervisor's problems are my own.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 2. If the values and goals of my supervisor were different, I would <b>not</b> be as attached to supervisor.                           | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 3. Right now, staying with my supervisor is a matter of necessity as much as desire.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 4. If I had not already put too much of myself into my supervisor, I might consider working elsewhere.                                 | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 5. I feel a sense of pride in working for my supervisor.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached" to my supervisor.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 7. I feel like "part of the family" at my supervisor.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 8. When someone criticizes my supervisor, it feels like personal insult.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 9. Unless my supervisor rewards me for it in some way, I see <b>no</b> reason to expend extra effort on behalf of my supervisor.       | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 10. My attachment to my supervisor is primarily based on the similarity of my goals and values and those represented by my supervisor. | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 11. What my supervisor stands for is important to me.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 12. My private views about my supervisor are <b>different</b> than those I express publicly.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |

4. Listed below are a series of statement concerning possible feelings about your coworkers. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

- |  |                   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                |
|--|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| 1. I really feel as if my coworkers' problems are my own.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 2. If the values and goals of my coworkers were different, I would <b>not</b> be as attached to coworkers.                           | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 3. Right now, staying with my coworkers is a matter of necessity as much as desire.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 4. If I had <b>not</b> already put too much of myself into my coworkers, I might consider working elsewhere.                         | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 5. I feel a sense of pride in working for my coworkers.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 6. I do <b>not</b> feel 'emotionally attached" to my coworkers.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 7. I feel like "part of the family" at my coworkers.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 8. When someone criticizes my coworkers, it feels like personal insult.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 9. Unless my coworkers reward me for it in some way, I see <b>no</b> reason to expend extra effort on behalf of coworkers.           | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 10. My attachment to my coworkers is primarily based on the similarity of my goals and values and those represented by my coworkers. | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 11. What my coworkers stand for is important to me.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 12. My private views about my coworkers are <b>different</b> than those I express publicly.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Strongly Agree |

5. Listed below are a series of statement concerning possible feelings about your citizens or customers. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

1. I really feel as if citizens/customers' problems are my own.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
2. If the values and goals of citizens/customers were different, I would <b>not</b> be as attached to citizen/customers.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
3. Right now, staying with citizens/customers is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
4. If I had <b>not</b> already put too much of myself into citizens/customers, I might consider working elsewhere.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
5. I feel a sense of pride in working for citizens/customers.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
6. I do <b>not</b> feel 'emotionally attached" to citizens/customers.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
7. I feel like "part of the family" at citizens/customers.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
8. When someone criticizes citizens/customers, it feels like personal insult.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
9. Unless citizens/customers reward me for it in some way, I see <b>no</b> reason to expend extra effort on behalf of citizens/customers.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
10. My attachment to citizens/customers is primarily based on the similarity of my goals and values and those represented by citizens/customers.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
11. What citizen/customers stand for is important to me.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
12. My private views about citizens/customers are <b>different</b> than those I express publicly.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

6. Listed below are a series of statement concerning support for your work. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

**Support from my organization**

- |   |                   |               |                |
|---|-------------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would <b>fail to</b> notice. | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 2. The organization shows very <b>little</b> concern for me.                          | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 3. Help is available from the organization when I have a problem                      | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |

**Support from top management**

- |  |                   |               |                |
|--|-------------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1. Even if I did the best job possible, top management would <b>fail to</b> notice | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 2. Top management shows very <b>little</b> concern for me.                         | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 3. Help is available from top management when I have a problem                     | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |

**Support from my supervisor**

- |  |                   |               |                |
|--|-------------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1. Even if I did the best job possible, my supervisor would <b>fail to</b> notice. | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 2. My supervisor shows very <b>little</b> concern for me.                          | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 3. Help is available from my supervisor when I have a problem.                     | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |

**Support from my coworkers**

- |  |                   |               |                |
|--|-------------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1. Even if I did the best job possible, my coworkers would <b>fail to</b> notice | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 2. My coworkers show very <b>little</b> concern for me.                          | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 3. Help is available from my coworkers when I have a problem                     | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |

**Support from the society**

- |   |                   |               |                |
|---|-------------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1. My current job is perceived as a best one to have.                             | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 2. I feel that my organization gets the good respect from the society as a whole. | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 3. Being in present job is perceived as a prestigious one in my neighborhood.     | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |

7. Listed below are a series of statement concerning your feelings about your current job and organization. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

- |   |                   |               |                |
|---|-------------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1. I am willing to put in a greater deal of effort beyond that expected in order to help this organization to be successful.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 3. I find my values and the organization's values are very similar.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 4. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 5. This organization rally inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 6. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.         | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 7. I really care about the fate of this organization.   | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 8. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 9. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.                           | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 10. I am secure in my job.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 11. I will be able to work in this organization as long as I wish.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 12. I am generally satisfied with the amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 13. I am paid fairly for what I contribute to this organization.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 14. I am paid less than others who are doing similar work.  | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 15. It is very likely that I can find a job with another employer with about the same or better pay and benefits that I have. | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |
| 16. I am <b>not</b> afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.                         | Strongly Disagree | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Strongly Agree |

17. I am willing to put in a greater deal of effort beyond that expected in order to help this organization to be successful.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
18. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
19. I find my values and the organization's values are very similar.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
20. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
21. This organization rally inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
22. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
23. I really care about the fate of this organization.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
24. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
25. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
26. I am secure in my job.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
27. I will be able to work in this organization as long as I wish.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
28. I am generally satisfied with the amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
29. I am paid fairly for what I contribute to this organization.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
30. I am paid less than others who are doing similar work.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
31. It is very likely that I can find a job with another employer with about the same or better pay and benefits that I have.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
32. I am <b>not</b> afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree

33. The management of this organization usually seeks my input into decisions that directly affect my work.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
34. The management of this organization usually makes decisions <b>without</b> consulting knowledgeable employees.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
35. Internal management practices (e.g. hiring, promotion) in this organization are often politically motivated or influenced.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
36. This organization often treats citizens or clients <b>differently</b> depending on their political connections.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
37. In my work, I often have the opportunity to provide an important service to the public.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
38. In my job, I often have the opportunity to help citizens or clients solve difficult or important problems.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
39. To me, doing work that is helpful to other people is very important.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
40. To me, engaging in meaningful public service is an important value to pursue.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
41. My job requires me to interact with top management.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
42. My job requires me to interact with my supervisor.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
43. My job requires me to interact with my coworkers.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
44. My job requires me to interact with citizens or customers.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
45. How often the highest official (e.g. president, vice president) turns over, or change in your organization?	Very Infrequently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Frequently
46. How often high officials influencing key policy making (e.g. general directors and above level officials, board of directors) turnover, or change in your organization?	Very Infrequently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Frequently
47. How often your direct supervisor turnover, or change in your organization?	Very Infrequently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Frequently
48. How often your immediate coworkers turnover, or change in your organization?	Very Infrequently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Frequently

**The rules and regulations in my organization;**

49. often prevent my being granted a pay raise or bonus.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
50. allow us a lot of freedom in dismissing employees.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
51. have a lot of influence over my daily work routine.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
52. largely determine how the organization's money is spent.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
53. cause <b>few</b> problems for my promotion.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
54. make it difficult us to hire whom we would like.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree

8. Listed below are a series of statement concerning personal attitudes about various issues around you. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

1. I would help as much as I could if a relative told me that s/he was having financial difficulties.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
2. It does <b>not</b> matter to me how my country is viewed in the eyes of other nations.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
3. One of the pleasures of life is to be interdependent with others.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
4. What I look for in a job is a friendly group of coworkers.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
5. I would rather struggle though a personal problem by myself than discuss it with my friends.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
6. Aging parents should live at home with their children.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree

7. The most important thing in my life is to make myself happy.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
8. One of the pleasures of life is to feel being part of a large group of people.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
9. I am willing to report a wrongdoing in my organization to the public, other external institutions that might be able to remedy.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
10. In principle, the organizational interest is more important to me than the general public interest.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
11. If my organization asks me to do against the interest of the general public, it is not easy to refuse organizational request.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
12. Politics is a dirty word.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
13. The give and take of public policy making does <b>not</b> appeal to me.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
14. I <b>don't</b> care much for politicians.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
15. I unselfishly contribute to my community.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
16. I consider public service my civic duty.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
17. Meaningful public service is very important to me.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
18. I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
19. To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
20. I have little compassion for people in need who are unwillingly to take the first step to help themselves.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
21. I <b>seldom</b> think about the welfare of people I don't know personally.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
22. Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

23. Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
24. I think people should give back to society more than they get from it.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
25. I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

9. Listed below are a series of statement concerning job search and withdrawal intentions from your organization, supervisor, and coworkers. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

1. I would like to leave this organization.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
2. I plan to leave this organization as soon as possible.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
3. I would like to leave my immediate coworkers.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
4. There are <b>few</b> chances that I will search for a job in other organization.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
5. I plan to leave my supervisor soon as possible.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
6. Under <b>no</b> circumstances will I voluntarily leave this organization.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
7. I would like to leave my supervisor.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
8. I plan to leave my immediate coworkers as soon as possible.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
9. Under <b>no</b> circumstances will I voluntarily leave my supervisor..	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
10. I rarely seek out information about job opportunities in other organizations.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
11. Within the next year, I intend to search for a job in other organizations.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
12. Under <b>no</b> circumstances will I voluntarily leave my immediate coworkers.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

10. Listed below are a series of statement concerning your intention for extra-role behaviors for your organization, top management, supervisor, coworkers, and customers/citizens. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

1. I volunteer for tasks that are <b>not</b> required for the organization.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
2. I make suggestions to improve organization.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
3. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help organization be successful.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
4. I volunteer for tasks that are <b>not</b> required for top management.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
5. I make suggestions for top management.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
6. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help top management be successful.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
7. I volunteer for tasks that are <b>not</b> required for my supervisor.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
8. I make suggestions for my supervisor.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
9. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help my supervisor be successful.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
10. I volunteer for tasks that are <b>not</b> required for coworkers.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
11. I make suggestions for coworkers.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
12. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help coworkers be successful.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
13. I volunteer for tasks that are <b>not</b> required for citizens or customers.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
14. I make suggestions for citizens or customers.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree
15. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help citizens or customers.	Strongly Disagree	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Strongly Agree

11. The following questions are about your self. Please answer each of the following questions.

1. How old are you? ( \_\_\_\_years)
2. What is your gender? (1) Male (2) Female
3. What is your present marital status?  
(1) Single (2) Married (3) Separated (4) Divorced (5) Widowed
4. What is the highest level of education you have completed?  
(1) Less than high school, (2) High school, (3) Junior College, (4) College graduate,  
(5) Master degree, (6) Doctoral degree
5. What is your present level of position? ( \_\_grade of \_\_)
6. What is your monthly income in your present position? (Won)  
(1) Below 800,000 (2) 800,000-1,190,000 (3) 1,200,000-1,590,000  
(4) 1,600,000-2,190,000 (5) 2,200,000-2,790,000 (6) 2,800,000-3,490,000  
(7) 3,500,000-4,290,000 (8) 4,300,000 or more
7. How long have you been employed in your current organization? ( \_Years \_months)
- 8 How long have you been working with current top management? ( \_Years \_months)
9. How long have you been working with current supervisor? ( \_Years \_months)
10. How long have you been working with current coworkers? ( \_Years \_months)
11. Although this questionnaire was carefully prepared, it might have failed to include some important factors influencing you to commit yourself to your organization, top management, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens/customers. If this is the case for you, please feel free to describe them in the space provided below.

**Thanks a lot for your cooperation.**

**Please put the questionnaire into the paid envelop  
and mail it directly to the researcher.**

## C. ASSENT FORM AND QUESTIONNAIRE (KOREAN)

### 동의서

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**연구제목: 한국 정부조직과 민간기업 직장인의 조직몰입도 (Organizational Commitment) 비교연구**

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**설문절차:** 응답자께서는 응답자의 조직, 최고관리층, 직근상사, 직장동료, 및 시민/고객에 관한 감정과 태도를 묻는 설문지를 작성하시게 됩니다.

**예상되는 위험:** 이 연구는 미미한 수준의 부담만을 부과하고 있습니다. 아마도 응답자께서는 이 연구에 참가함으로써 어떠한 심리적인 역효과도 느끼시지 않으실 것입니다. 만일 그런 일이 발생할 경우, 비용부담없이 조사자와 상담할 수 있도록 조치됩니다.

**개인정보 보호:** 응답자께서는 정부조직 및 민간기업 직장인을 대표할 수 있도록 응답자의 조직(또는 연수기관)에서 제공한 직장인명부 (또는 연수생 명부)로부터 통계적 무작위 추출방법에 의해 선발되었습니다. 응답자의 소속 조직은 누가 이

연구에 참여하는 지 알 수 없습니다. 응답자와 관련한 모든 정보는 전적으로 비밀이 보장되며, 아울러 특정한 응답과 응답자를 연계할 수 없도록 데이터베이스에 보관될 것입니다. 또한, 응답자와 관련한 정보가 공표될 경우에도 응답자를 식별할 수 없는 방법으로 기술됩니다. 어떠한 개인적인 정보도 응답자의 동의없이 귀하의 조직 또는 제 3자와 공유되지 않습니다. 그러나 연구자료가 법 또는 법원결정에 의해 쓰일 수는 있습니다.

**거부 및 철회권리:** 응답자에게는 어떠한 편견이나 제재 또는 이익손실없이 이 연구에 참여하지 않으시거나, 참여중 언제라도 철회하실 권리가 있습니다.

**추가 질문:** 설문에 의문이 있거나 연구결과에 관심이 있으신 응답자께서는 다음의 연락처 (02-579-2507, 019-276-2507)로 조사자에게 연락주시요.

나는 위에 기술된 절차를 이해하였습니다. 나의 질문은 만족할 만하게 답변되었고, 이 연구에 참여하기를 동의합니다. 나에게 이 동의서의 사본이 제공되었습니다.

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응답자 서명 및 날짜

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조사자 서명 및 날짜

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응답자 성명

\_\_\_\_\_  
조사자 성명

조지아대학교가 주관하는, 사람을 대상으로 하는 연구는 IRB (Institutional Review Board)에 감독권한이 있습니다. 응답자의 권리와 관련된 질문이나 문제가 있을 경우, 다음의 주소로 연락주시기 바랍니다:

Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D., Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-6514; E-mail Address: IRB @uga.edu.

## 동의서 (응답자 보관용)

### ◀한국 정부조직과 민간기업 직장인 조직몰입도(Organizational Commitment) 비교연구▶

**연구자:** 윤 종인, 미국 조지아대 공공및국제관계대학원 행정학 박사과정 (주소: 서울특별시 서초구 양재동 290-3, 전화: 02-579-2507, 019-276-2507, 이-메일: y1101n@hotmail.com)

**지도교수:** Robert T. Golembiewski, Distinguished Research Professor (address: School of Public and International Affairs, 104 Baldwin Hall, University of Georgia, Athens, GA 30602, U.S.A., 전화: 01-1-706-542-2057)

**연구목적:** 이 연구는 비교론적 시각에서 우리나라의 정부조직과 민간기업 직장인의 조직 몰입도의 차이와 그 원인을 탐구하려는 것입니다.

**긍정적 효과:** 조직몰입 (또는 애착) 은 직장인과 조직을 연결하는 중요한 연계장치의 하나입니다. 이 조사는 직장인의 조직애착에 대한 과학적 이해뿐만 아니라 직장근무조건 개선에 기여할 것입니다. 아울러, 요청하실 경우, 연구결과를 응답자 개인에게도 제공합니다.

**설문절차:** 응답자께서 이 연구에 참여하실 경우, 응답자의 조직, 최고관리층, 직근상사, 동료, 및 시민/고객에 관한 감정과 태도를 묻는 설문지를 작성하시게 됩니다.

**예상되는 위험:** 이 연구는 미미한 수준의 위험만을 부과하고 있습니다. 아마도 응답자께서는 이 연구에 참가함으로써 어떠한 심리적인 역효과도 느끼시지 않으실 것입니다. 만일 그런 일이 발생할 경우, 이러한 감정적 문제를 해결하기 위해 비용부담없이 조사자와 상담할 수 있도록 배려됩니다.

**개인정보 보호:** 응답자는 정부조직 및 민간기업 직장인을 대표할 수 있도록 응답자의 조직(또는 연수기관)에서 제공한 직장인명부 (또는 연수생 명부)로부터 통계적 무작위 추출방법에 의해 선발되었습니다. 응답자의 소속조직은 누가 이 연구에 참여하는 지 알 수 없습니다. 응답자와 관련한 모든 정보는 전적으로 비밀이 보장되며, 아울러 특정한 응답과 응답자를 연계할 수 없도록 데이터베이스에 보관될 것입니다. 또한, 응답자와 관련한 정보가 공표될 경우에도 응답자를 식별할 수 없는 방법으로 기술됩니다. 어떠한 개인적인 정보도 응답자의 동의없이 응답자의 조직 또는 제 3 자와 공유되지 않습니다. 그러나 연구자료가 법원결정 또는 법에 의해 쓰일 수는 있습니다.

**거부 및 철회권리:** 응답자에게는 어떠한 편견이나 제재 또는 이익손실없이 이 연구에 참여하지 않으시거나, 참여 도중 언제라도 철회하실 권리가 있습니다.

**추가 질문:** 설문에 의문이 있거나 연구결과에 관심이 있으신 분은 다음 연락처 (02-579-2507, 019-276-2507)로 조사자에게 연락주십시오.

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조사자 서명 및 날짜

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조사자 성명

조지아대학이 주관하는, 사람을 대상으로 하는 연구는 IRB (Institutional Review Board)에 감독권한이 있습니다. 귀하의 권리와 관련된 질문이나 문제가 있을 경우, 다음 주소로 연락하십시오: Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D., Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-6514; E-mail Address: IRB @uga.edu.

## 조직몰입도 설문조사

### 미국 조지아대학 공공및국제관계 대학원 (행정학 박사과정)

#### ◀ 응답요령 ▶

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1. 질문의 순서대로 각각의 문항에 빠짐없이 응답하여 주십시오.
  2. 각 문항에 대한 응답은 해당번호에 체크표시(√)를 하시면 됩니다.
  3. 어떤 문항에도 옳거나 그른 답이 있는 것은 아닙니다. 평소에 응답자께서 느끼시는 대로 솔직하게 응답하여 주십시오.
  4. 설문이 주의 깊게 작성은 되었습디만, 응답자의 상황에 꼭 맞는 응답지가 없는 경우에도 가깝다고 생각되는 응답지에 답하여 주십시오.
  5. 응답자께서 별도로 하시고 싶은 말씀이 계시면 언제라도 각면의 여백에 자유롭게 적어 주시기 바랍니다.
  6. 응답자께서 응답하신 내용에 대해서는 비밀이 절대적으로 보장된다는 점을 다시 한번 강조드립니다.
  7. 설문지 작성을 마치신 후, 동의서와 설문지를 동봉된 반송용 봉투에 넣어 조사자에게 직접 보내주십시오 (주소: 윤 종인, 서울시 서초구 양재동 290-3, 전화: 02-579-2507, 019-276-2507 이메일: y1101n@hotmail.com)
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\* 본 설문은 11 개 섹션으로 구분되어 있으며, 문항수가 다소 많아 보이지만 실제로 응답에 소요되는 시간은 30 분 내외입니다.

\* 본 설문은 조직, 최고관리층(자), 상사, 동료, 그리고 고객 및 시민을 직장인의 조직몰입의 대상으로 구분하고 있습니다.

- 최고관리층은 기관의 최고의사결정자로서 장차관, (부)회장, (부)사장이 해당합니다
- 상사는 직근 상사를 말하며, 조직편제에 따라 평직원의 경우 계장(대리), 계장(대리)의 경우 과장을 말합니다.

\* 본 설문의 연구결과에 관심이 있으신 분은 이곳( )에 체크표시를 해 주십시오.

1. 이 섹션에서는 응답자께서 몸담고 계신 **조직 (회사)**에 대한 느낌과 관련된 진술들을 다루고 있습니다. 각 문항의 설명에 대한 동의하시는 정도를 표시하여 주십시오.

	나의 의견과 전혀 다르다	그저 그렇다	나의 의견과 지극히 같다
1. 나는 정말로 조직의 문제를 나의 문제로 느낀다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
2. 이 조직이 지향하는 가치와 목표가 다르다면, 나는 이처럼 이 조직에 애착을 갖지 <b>않을</b> 것이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
3. 지금 내가 이 조직에 몸담고 있는 것은 내가 있기를 원하는 만큼이나 <b>불가피</b> 하기 때문이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
4. 만일 내가 이 조직에게 많은 노력을 기울여오지 <b>않았다면</b> 나는 아마 <b>다른</b> 데서 일하는 것을 고려할 것이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
5. 나는 이 조직을 위해 일하는 것이 자랑스럽다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
6. 나는 이 조직에 감정적으로 애착을 느끼지 <b>못하고</b> 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
7. 나는 이 조직에서 가족의 일원처럼 느낀다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
8. 누군가 이 조직을 비난할 때, 나는 개인적인 모욕을 당하는 것 같다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
9. 이 조직이 어떤 식으로든지 보상하지 않을 경우, 이 조직을 위해 업무 외 추가노력을 기울일 필요는 <b>없다고</b> 본다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
10. 내가 이 조직에 애착을 느끼는 것은 내가 지향하는 가치와 목표가 조직의 것과 유사하기 때문이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
11. 이 조직이 대표하는 것은 나에게 중요한 의미가 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
12. 이 조직에 대한 나의 사적인 견해는 내가 공개적으로 말하는 것과 <b>다르다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		

2. 다음은 응답자가 몸담고 계신 조직(회사)의 **최고관리층(자)**에 대한 느낌과 관련된 진술들입니다. 각각의 설명에 대한 동의하시는 정도를 표시하여 주십시오.

	나의 의견과 전혀 다르다	그저 그렇다	나의 의견과 지극히 같다
1. 나는 정말로 최고관리자의 문제를 나의 문제로 느낀다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
2. 최고관리층이 지향하는 가치와 목표가 다르다면, 나는 최고관리자에게 이처럼 애착을 갖지 <b>않을</b> 것이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
3. 지금 내가 최고관리자와 함께 하는 것은 내가 원하는 만큼이나 <b>불가피</b> 하기 때문이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
4. 만일 내가 최고관리자를 위해 많은 노력을 기울여오지 <b>않았다면</b> 나는 아마 <b>다른</b> 데서 일하는 것을 고려할 것이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
5. 나는 최고관리자를 위해 일하는 것이 자랑스럽다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
6. 나는 최고관리자에게 감정적으로 애착을 느끼지 <b>못하고</b> 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
7. 나는 최고관리자에게 가족의 일원처럼 느낀다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
8. 누군가 최고관리층을 비난할 때, 나는 개인적인 모욕을 당하는 것 같다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
9. 최고관리자가 어떤 식으로든지 보상하지 않을 경우, 최고관리층을 위해 업무 외 추가노력을 기울일 필요가 <b>없다고</b> 본다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
10. 내가 최고관리자에게 애착을 느끼는 것은 내가 지향하는 가치와 목표가 최고관리자의 것과 유사하기 때문이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
11. 최고관리자가 대표하는 것은 나에게 중요한 의미가 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
12. 최고관리자에 대한 나의 사적인 견해는 내가 공개적으로 말하는 것과 <b>다르다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		

3. 다음은 응답자의 직근상사에 대한 느낌과 관련된 진술들입니다. 각각의 설명에 대한 동의하시는 정도를 표시하여 주십시오.

	나의 의견과 전혀 다르다	그저 그렇다	나의 의견과 지극히 같다
1. 나는 정말로 나의 상사의 문제를 나의 문제로 느낀다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
2. 나의 상사가 지향하는 가치와 목표가 다르다면, 나는 상사에게 이처럼 애착을 갖지 <b>않을</b> 것이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
3. 지금 내가 상사와 함께 하는 것은 내가 원하는 만큼이나 <b>불가피</b> 하기 때문이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
4. 만일 내가 상사에게 많은 노력을 기울여오지 <b>않았다면</b> 나는 아마 <b>다른</b> 데서 일하는 것을 고려할 것이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
5. 나는 나의 상사를 위해 일하는 것이 자랑스럽다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
6. 나는 나의 상사에게 감정적으로 애착을 느끼지 <b>못하고</b> 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
7. 나는 나의 상사에서 가족의 일원처럼 느낀다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
8. 누군가 나의 상사를 비난할 때, 나는 개인적인 모욕을 당하는 것 같다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
9. 나의 상사가 어떤 식으로든지 보상하지 않을 경우, 상사를 위해 업무 외 추가노력을 기울일 필요가 <b>없다</b> 고 본다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
10. 내가 나의 상사에 애착을 느끼는 것은 내가 지향하는 가치와 목표가 상사의 것과 유사하기 때문이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
11. 나의 상사가 대표하는 것은 나에게 중요한 의미가 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
12. 나의 상사에 대한 나의 사적인 견해는 내가 공개적으로 말하는 것과 <b>다르다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		

4. 다음은 응답자의 직장 동료에 대한 느낌과 관련된 진술들입니다. 각각의 설명에 대한 동의하시는 정도를 표시하여 주십시오.

	나의 의견과 전혀 다르다	그저 그렇다	나의 의견과 지극히 같다
1. 나는 정말로 나의 동료의 문제를 나의 문제로 느낀다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
2. 나의 동료가 지향하는 가치와 목표가 다르다면, 나는 동료에게 이처럼 애착을 갖지 <b>않을</b> 것이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
3. 지금 내가 나의 동료와 함께 하는 것은 내가 원하는 만큼 <b>불가피</b> 하기 때문이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
4. 만일 내가 나의 동료에게 많은 노력을 기울여오지 <b>않았다면</b> 나는 아마 <b>다른</b> 데서 일하는 것을 고려할 것이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
5. 나는 나의 동료를 위해 일하는 것이 자랑스럽다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
6. 나는 나의 동료에게 감정적으로 애착을 느끼지 <b>못하고</b> 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
7. 나는 나의 동료에서 가족의 일원처럼 느낀다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
8. 누군가 나의 동료를 비난할 때, 나는 개인적인 모욕을 당하는 것 같다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
9. 나의 동료가 어떤 식으로든지 보상하지 않을 경우, 동료를 위해 업무 외 추가노력을 기울일 필요가 <b>없다고</b> 본다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
10. 내가 나의 동료에 애착을 느끼는 것은 내가 지향하는 가치와 목표가 나의 동료의 것과 유사하기 때문이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
11. 나의 동료가 대표하는 것은 나에게 중요한 의미가 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
12. 나의 동료에 대한 나의 사적인 견해는 내가 공개적으로 말하는 것과 <b>다르다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		

5. 다음은 응답자께서 몸담고 계신 조직(회사)의 **고객(공공조직의 경우, 시민)**에 대한 느낌과 관련된 진술들입니다. 각각의 설명에 대한 동의하시는 정도를 표시하여 주십시오.

	나의 의견과 전혀 다르다	그저 그렇다	나의 의견과 지극히 같다
1. 나는 정말로 시민/고객의 문제를 나의 문제로 느낀다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
2. 시민/고객이 지향하는 가치와 목표가 다르다면, 나는 시민/고객에게 이처럼 애착을 갖지 <b>않을</b> 것이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
3. 지금 내가 시민/고객과 함께 하는 것은 내가 원하는 만큼 <b>불가피</b> 하기 때문이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
4. 만일 내가 시민/고객을 위해 많은 노력을 기울여오지 <b>않았다면</b> 나는 아마 <b>다른</b> 데서 일하는 것을 고려할 것이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
5. 나는 시민/고객을 위해 일하는 것이 자랑스럽다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
6. 나는 시민/고객에게 감정적으로 애착을 느끼지 <b>못하고</b> 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
7. 나는 시민/고객에서 가족의 일원처럼 느낀다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
8. 누군가 시민/고객을 비난할 때, 나는 개인적인 모욕을 당하는 것 같다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
9. 시민/고객이 어떤 식으로든지 보상하지 <b>않을</b> 경우, 시민/고객을 위해 업무 외 추가노력을 기울일 필요가 <b>없다</b> 고 본다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
10. 내가 시민/고객에 애착을 느끼는 것은 내가 지향하는 가치와 목표가 시민/고객의 것과 유사하기 때문이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
11. 시민/고객이 대표하는 것은 나에게 중요한 의미가 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
12. 시민/고객에 대한 나의 사적인 견해는 내가 공개적으로 말하는 것과 <b>다르다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		

6. 다음은 응답자님의 **업무수행을 위한 지원**과 관련된 진술들입니다. 각각의 설명에 대한 동의하시는 정도를 표시하여 주십시오.

	나의 의견과 전혀 다르다	그저 그렇다	나의 의견과 지극히 같다
<b>조직(회사)의 지원</b>			
1. 내가 가능한 최상의 업무를 달성해도 이 조직은 이를 알아주지 <b>못한다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
2. 이 조직은 나에게 대해 그다지 관심을 보이지 <b>않는다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
3. 내가 어려운 일이 생기면 조직으로부터 도움을 받을 수 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
<b>최고관리층의 지원</b>			
4. 내가 가능한 최상의 업무를 달성해도 최고관리층은 이를 알아주지 <b>못한다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
5. 최고관리층은 나에게 대해 그다지 관심을 보이지 <b>않는다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
6. 내가 어려운 일이 생기면 최고관리층으로부터 도움을 받을 수 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
<b>상사의 지원</b>			
7. 내가 가능한 최상의 업무를 달성해도 나의 상사는 이를 알아주지 <b>못한다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
8. 나의 상사는 나에게 대해 그다지 관심을 보이지 <b>않는다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
9. 내가 어려운 일이 생기면 나의 상사로부터 도움을 받을 수 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
<b>동료의 지원</b>			
10. 내가 가능한 최상의 업무를 달성해도 동료들은 이를 알아주지 <b>못한다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
11. 동료들은 나에게 대해 그다지 관심을 보이지 <b>않는다</b> .	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
12. 내가 어려운 일이 생기면 동료들로부터 도움을 받을 수 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
<b>사회의 지원</b>			
13. 나의 현재 일(직업)은 사회에서 최고의 것으로 인식되고 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
14. 나는 나의 조직(회사)이 전반적으로 사회로부터 존경을 받고 있다고 느낀다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
15. 나의 현재 일(직업)은 나의 이웃들에게 명성있는 것으로 인식된다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		

7. 다음은 귀하의 현재 직무와 조직에 대한 일반적인 진술들입니다. 각각의 설명에 대한 동의하시는 정도를 표시하여 주십시오.

	나의 의견과 전혀 다르다	그저 그렇다	나의 의견과 지극히 같다
1. 나는 조직이 성공할 수 있도록 기대이상의 노력을 기울일 의향이 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
2. 나는 친구들에게 나의 조직을 일할만한 훌륭한 조직이라고 이야기한다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
3. 나의 가치와 조직의 가치가 매우 비슷하다고 본다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
4. 나는 이 조직의 일원임을 다른 사람들에게 자랑스럽게 이야기한다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
5. 나의 조직은 내가 업무성취에 최선을 다하도록 고취한다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
6. 이 조직에 몸담을 당시에 다른 조직보다 이 조직을 선택한 것은 매우 잘한 일이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
7. 나는 조직의 운명을 진심으로 걱정한다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
8. 나에게 이 조직은 내가 일할 수 있는 조직중 가장 좋은 조직이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
9. 이 조직에서 계속 일하기 위해서 나는 어떤 업무부과라도 받아들일 것이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
10. 내 직업은 안정적이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
11. 내가 원하는 한 이 조직에서 계속 일할 수 있을 것이다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
12. 내가 받고 있는 보수와 기타급여에 일반적으로 만족하고 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
13. 내가 조직에 공헌하는 것에 비해 나는 공정하게 보수를 받는다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
14. 유사직종의 다른 사람에 비해 나는 적은 보수를 받고 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
15. 나는 현재수준 또는 그 이상의 보수 및 혜택을 주는 다른 고용주를 쉽게 찾을 수 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
16. 나는 다른 직업이 구해지지 않은 상태에서 이 직업을 그만두더라도 발생할 일을 두려워하지 않는다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
17. 이 조직의 관리자는 나의 일에 영향을 주는 중요한 결정에 나의 의견을 구한다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		

18. 이 조직의 관리자는 대개 실무자와  
상의없이 의사결정을 한다.

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

19. 조직의 내부관리행태(예: 고용, 승진)가  
종종 정치적으로 동기부여되거나 영향을  
받는다.

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

20. 이 조직은 시민/고객을 그들의 정치적  
연줄에 따라 종종 다르게 취급한다.

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

21. 일하는 과정에서 종종 나는 자주 국민에게  
중요한 서비스를 제공할 기회를 갖는다.

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

22. 일하는 과정에서 종종 나는 시민/고객의  
중요하거나 어려운 문제를 해결해줄 기회를  
갖는다.

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

23. 다른 사람에게 도움이 되는 일을 하는 것은  
나에게 중요하다.

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

24. 의미있는 공공서비스에 관여하는 것은  
나에게 추구할 만한 중요한 가치이다.

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

25. 내 업무는 나를 최고관리자와 상호작용케  
한다.

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

26. 내 업무는 나를 상사와 상호작용케 한다.

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

27. 내 업무는 나를 동료와 상호작용케 한다.

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

28. 내 업무는 나를 시민/고객과 상호작용케  
한다.

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

나의 조직의 각종 규정과 규칙들은;

29. 종종 나의 봉급 및 상여금 인상 **방해**가  
된다.

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

30. 근로자를 해고하는 것에 많은 자유를  
허용한다.

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

31. 나의 일상업무에 많은 영향을 미친다.

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

32. 조직의 자금이 어떻게 쓰여지는 지를  
대부분 결정한다.

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

33. 나의 승진에 거의 문제를 야기하지 **않는다**.

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

34. 우리 마음에 드는 사람을 채용하는 것을  
**어렵게** 한다.

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

아주            그저            아주  
드물게        그렇다        자주

35. 귀하의 조직에선 최고관리층이 얼마나 자주  
바뀌는지요?

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

- |   |                                       |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 36. 귀하의 조직에선 중요정책에 영향을 주는<br>고위관리자(예: 이사, 국장 또는 부장이상)가<br>얼마나 자주 바뀌는지요? | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |
| 37. 귀하의 조직에선 직근상사가 얼마나 자주<br>바뀌는지요?                                     | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |
| 38. 귀하의 조직에선 동료들이 얼마나 자주<br>바뀌는지요?                                      | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |

8. 다음은 응답자를 둘러싼 **다양한 쟁점**에 대한 태도를 기술한 것입니다. 각각의 설명에  
대한 동의하시는 정도를 표시하여 주십시오.

- |   | 나의 의견과<br>전혀 다르다                      | 그저<br>그렇다 | 나의 의견과<br>지극히 같다 |
|---|---------------------------------------|-----------|------------------|
| 1. 친척중 누군가가 재정적인 곤란을 겪고<br>있다면 힘이 닿는 데까지 돕겠다.                     | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 2. 우리나라가 국제적으로 어떻게 보이는 지는<br>내게 중요하지 않다.                          | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 3. 인생의 즐거움중의 하나는 다른 사람들과<br>서로 의존하며 사는 것이다.                       | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 4. 직장생활에서 내게 중요한 것은 다정한<br>동료들이다.                                 | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 5. 개인적인 문제는 내 친구들과 의논하기<br>보다는 나 혼자서 애써 해결하겠다.                    | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 6. 노부모는 자녀와 한 가정에서 살아야겠다.   | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 7. 내 인생에서 가장 중요한 일은 내 자신이<br>행복해지는 것이다.                           | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 8. 인생의 기쁨중 하나는 자신이 큰 집단의 한<br>부분임을 느끼는 것이다.                       | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 9. 나는 조직의 잘못된 행위를 일반국민 또는<br>이를 수정할 수 있는 외부기관에 알릴 의향이<br>있다.      | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 10. 원칙적으로 조직의 이해가 일반공익보다<br>나에게 더 중요하다.                           | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 11. 만일 나의 조직이 나에게 공익에 반하는<br>행위를 요구할 경우, 조직의 요구를 거절<br>하기가 쉽지 않다. | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 12. 정치란 더러운 단어이다.   | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 13. 공공정책결정과정의 타협은 나의 마음에<br>들지 않는다.                               | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |

14. 나는 그다지 정치인을 좋아하지 않는다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
15. 나는 이타적으로 나의 공동체에 기여한다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
16. 나는 공공봉사를 나의 시민된 의무로 여긴다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
17. 의미있는 공공봉사는 나에게 매우 중요하다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
18. 나는 사회경제적 약자의 곤경에 거의 동요되지 않는다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
19. 나에게 애국이란 다른 사람의 복지를 돌보는 것을 포함한다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
20. 스스로를 도우려는 의사가 없는 불우한 사람들에게 대해서는 거의 공감하지 않는다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
21. 나는 내가 개인적으로 알지 못하는 사람들의 복지를 거의 생각하지 않는다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
22. 내가 하는 일의 상당부분은 나 자신보다는 큰 대의를 위한 것이다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
23. 사회에 좋은 영향을 미치는 것은 나에게 개인적인 성취보다 더 큰 의미가 있다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
24. 나는 사람들이 사회로부터 받는 것보다 더 많이 사회에 돌려주어야 한다고 생각한다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
25. 사회이익을 위해서라면 큰 희생을 치를 준비가 되어있다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

9. 다음은 응답자의 **구직활동과 이직의사**와 관련된 진술들입니다. 각각의 설명에 대한 동의하시는 정도를 표시하여 주십시오.

- |   | 나의 의견과<br>전혀 다르다                      | 그저<br>그렇다 | 나의 의견과<br>지극히 같다 |
|---|---------------------------------------|-----------|------------------|
| 1. 나는 현재의 직장을 떠나고 싶다.                     | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 2. 나는 가능한한 빨리 현재의 직장을 떠날<br>계획이다.         | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 3. 나는 나의 동료들로부터 떠나고 싶다.                   | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 4. 내가 다른 회사의 일자리를 알아볼 가능성은<br>거의 없다.      | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 5. 나는 가능한 한 빨리 나의 상사로부터 떠날<br>계획이다        | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 6. 어떤 경우에도 나는 자발적으로 현재의<br>직장을 떠나지 않을 것이다 | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |

직장을 떠나지 **않을** 것이다.

- |  |                                       |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| 7. 나는 현재의 나의 상사로부터 떠나고 싶다.                           | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |
| 8. 나는 가능한한 빨리 나의 동료들로부터 떠날 계획이다.                     | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |
| 9. 어떤 경우에도 내가 자발적으로 나의 상사로부터 떠나는 일은 <b>없을</b> 것이다.   | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |
| 10. 나는 다른 조직(회사)로의 취업기회에 관한 정보를 거의 알아보지 <b>않는다</b> . | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |
| 11. 내년안으로 나는 다른 회사의 일자리를 알아보려고 작정하고 있다.              | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |
| 12. 어떤 경우에도 나는 자발적으로 나의 동료들 떠나지 <b>않을</b> 것이다.       | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |

10. 다음은 응답자께서 몸담고 계신 조직, 최고관리층, 상사, 동료, 및 고객/시민을 위해 **업무의 추가 활동**을 하실 의향과 관련된 진술들입니다. 각각의 설명에 대한 동의하시는 정도를 표시하여 주십시오.

- |   | 나의 의견과<br>전혀 다르다                      | 그저<br>그렇다 | 나의 의견과<br>지극히 같다 |
|---|---------------------------------------|-----------|------------------|
| 1. 나는 조직을 위해서 요구되지 않는 과업을 자원한다.                   | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 2. 나는 조직을 개선하기 위해 제안을 한다.                         | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 3. 나는 조직의 성공을 돕기 위해 보통 기대되는 수준이상의 노력을 기울일 의향이 있다. | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 4. 나는 최고관리자를 위해서 요구되지 않는 과업을 자원한다.                | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 5. 나는 최고관리자를 위해 제안을 한다.                           | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 6. 나는 최고관리자의 성공을 위해 보통 기대되는 수준이상의 노력을 기울일 의향이 있다. | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 7. 나는 상사를 위해서 요구되지 않는 과업을 자원한다.                   | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 8. 나는 상사를 위해 제안을 한다.                              | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 9. 나는 상사의 성공을 돕기 위해 보통 기대되는 수준이상의 노력을 기울일 의향이 있다. | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 10. 나는 동료들을 위해서 요구되지 않는 과업을 자원한다.                 | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |
| 11. 나는 동료들을 위해 제안을 한다.                            | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 |           |                  |

12. 나는 동료의 성공을 돕기 위해 보통 기대되는 수준이상의 노력을 기울일 의향이 있다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
13. 나는 고객/시민을 위해서 요구되지 않는 과업을 자원한다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
14. 나는 고객/시민을 위해 제안을 한다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
15. 나는 고객/시민의 성공을 위해 보통 기대되는 수준이상의 노력을 기울일 의향이 있다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

11. 마지막으로 결과해석에 도움을 얻고자 응답자님에 대해 몇 가지 더 여쭙겠습니다. 응답자신상에 대한 비밀은 절대적으로 보장되오니 빠짐없이 응답해 주시면 감사하겠습니다.

1. 귀하의 연세는? 만 \_\_\_\_\_ 세
2. 귀하의 성별은? \_\_\_\_\_ 1) 남자 \_\_\_\_\_ 2) 여자
3. 귀하의 현재 혼인상태는 어떻게 되십니까?  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1) 미혼 \_\_\_\_\_ 2) 기혼 \_\_\_\_\_ 3) 별거 \_\_\_\_\_ 4) 이혼 \_\_\_\_\_ 5) 사별
4. 귀하께서 다니신 최종학교는?  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1) 중학교 \_\_\_\_\_ 2) 고등학교 \_\_\_\_\_ 3) 2년제대학  
\_\_\_\_\_ 4) 4년제대학 \_\_\_\_\_ 5) 석사학위 취득 \_\_\_\_\_ 6) 박사학위 취득
5. 귀하의 현재 직위는 어떻게 되시는지요?  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1) 일반직원 \_\_\_\_\_ 2) 계장 또는 대리 \_\_\_\_\_ 3) 과장  
\_\_\_\_\_ 4) 차장 \_\_\_\_\_ 5) 국장 또는 부장 \_\_\_\_\_ 6) 기타(구체적으로)
6. 세금공제전 귀하의 월평균 소득(수당, 상여금 포함) 은?  
\_\_\_\_\_ 1) 80 만원 미만 \_\_\_\_\_ 2) 80 - 119 만원 \_\_\_\_\_ 3) 120 - 159 만원 \_\_\_\_\_ 4) 160 - 219 만원  
\_\_\_\_\_ 5) 220 - 279 만원 \_\_\_\_\_ 6) 280 - 349 만원 \_\_\_\_\_ 7) 350 - 429 만원 \_\_\_\_\_ 8) 430 만원 이상
7. 귀하께서는 현 직장에서 얼마동안 근무하셨습니다? \_\_\_\_\_ 년 \_\_\_\_\_ 개월
8. 귀하께서는 현 최고관리자와 얼마동안 함께 근무하셨습니다? \_\_\_\_\_ 년 \_\_\_\_\_ 개월

9. 귀하께서는 현 직근상사와 얼마동안 함께 근무하셨습니다? \_\_\_\_년 \_\_\_\_개월

10. 귀하께서는 현 동료들과 얼마동안 함께 근무하셨습니다? \_\_\_\_년 \_\_\_\_개월

11. 이 설문지는 주의깊게 작성하였습시다만 귀하께서 조직, 최고관리자, 상사, 동료, 및 고객/시민에 애착을 느끼게 하는 중요한 내용이 빠졌을 지 모릅니다. 그러한 내용이 있으면 아래의 여백에 자유롭게 말씀하여 주십시오..

**다시 한번 선생님의 협조에 감사드립니다.**  
**작성된 설문지와 동의서를 반송용 봉투에 넣어 조사자에게 직접**  
**보내주시면 감사하겠습니다.**  
**(주소: 윤 종인, 서울시 서초구 양재동 290-3, 우편번호: 137-130, 전화:**  
**02-579-2507, 019-276-2507)**