

The Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Employees' Commitment in
the Banking Sector in Kingston, Jamaica

By
Lorna Palmer

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
H. Wayne Huizenga School of Business and Entrepreneurship
Nova Southeastern University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

2006

UMI Number: 3240859

Copyright 2007 by
Palmer, Lorna

All rights reserved.

INFORMATION TO USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleed-through, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

UMI[®]

UMI Microform 3240859

Copyright 2007 by ProQuest Information and Learning Company.

All rights reserved. This microform edition is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.

ProQuest Information and Learning Company
300 North Zeeb Road
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

A Dissertation

Entitled

The Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Employee Commitment in the
Banking Sector in Kingston, Jamaica

By

Lorna Palmer

We hereby certify that this Dissertation submitted by Lorna Palmer conforms to acceptable standards, and as such is fully adequate in scope and quality. It is therefore approved as the fulfillment of the Dissertation requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Business Administration.

Approved:

Dr. Timothy McCartney, Ph.D.
Chairperson

October 17th 2008

Date

Barbara R. Dastoor, Ph.D.
Committee Member

OCT 17, 2008

Date

Linsey C. Willis, D.P.A.
Committee Member

October 24, 2008

Date

Russell Abratt, Ph.D.
Associate Dean of Internal Affairs

Oct. 24, 2006

Date

J. Preston Jones, D.B.A.
Executive Associate Dean, H. Wayne Huizenga School of
Business and Entrepreneurship

25 Oct 2006

Date

Nova Southeastern University
2006

CERTIFICATION STATEMENT

I hereby certify that this paper constitutes my own product, that where the language of others is set forth, quotation marks so indicate, and appropriate credit is given where I have used the language, ideas, expressions or writings of another.

Signed Lorna Palmer

ABSTRACT

The Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Employees' Commitment in the Banking Sector in Kingston, Jamaica

By Lorna Palmer

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of human resource management (HRM) practices on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kingston, Jamaica. In this context the three high involvement work practices being investigated are: (1) orientation of recruits (socialization); (2) career planning and development and (3) the use of formal operating guidelines. The three HRM practices are strong predictors of organizational commitment for the following groups of employees – line managers, core service personnel and specialist staff.

Organizational commitment is a three dimensional construct characterizing an employee's relationship with an organization. The three dimensions by Meyer and Allen (1991) are: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment were used in the study. HRM practices and organizational commitment were measured with various scales developed and validated by Meyer and Allen (1991) Kramer (1994), Kouzes and Posner (1997) and Sturges, et al. (2002).

The respondents for this study were banking sector employees from the three major banks in Kingston, Jamaica: Bank of Nova Scotia, Royal Bank of Trinidad and Tobago and National Commercial Bank. Five hundred questionnaires were sent to these employees, with a response rate of 53%.

The significance of the study is to provide evidence to support the relationship (strategic fit) between HRM practices and employee commitment. The study also seeks to gain descriptive information on HRM policy and practices in the banking sector, together with an assessment of the organizational and environmental factors that drive HRM strategy and policy. The results will lend support for the design of high involvement work practices to foster organizational commitment and to improve long term organizational performance in developing economies. The findings will also contribute to an organization's ability to understand the different components of commitment in order to experience overall efficiency and effectiveness from employees. Ultimately, scientists and managers will foster long-term affective, continuance, and normative commitment in employees.

Finally the study will contribute to the growing body of literature on HRM practices and employee commitment. It will strengthen the existing knowledge that HRM practices are to be content specific, rather than universalistic, in order to better address the unique circumstances of the Jamaican banking sector.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation would not have been possible without the assistance of many individuals. I would like to begin by thanking Dr. Timothy McCartney for serving as the Chairperson of my dissertation committee. I had a difficult time locating a chairperson but when I approached Dr. McCartney he was very receptive although he already had a busy schedule. I really do appreciate his interest in the study, thorough guidance and continued support.

I would like to recognize and extend heartfelt thanks to Dr. Barbara Dastoor and Dr. Linsey Willis. Dr. Dastoor gave tremendous assistance as she made herself available for consultation and always gave encouragement even when experiencing severe work pressure. Special thanks to Dr. Linsey Willis for being responsive and giving valuable feedback.

I would like to thank all the individuals who encouraged me along the way, especially Dr. Erica McNeil and Dr. Claudette Williams/Myers. Finally, and most importantly my family, my husband, Alva Palmer who was particularly a tower of strength as his support was unwavering during challenging times. It would not have been possible to complete this dissertation without his steadfast interest and encouragement and also over extending himself to ensure that I got the time to complete assignments.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	ix
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background to the Problem	5
Significance of the Study.....	8
Research Hypotheses	10
Scope and Limitation of the Study.....	10
Definition of Critical Terms.....	11
Research Methodology	12
Summary	12
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	13
Introduction.....	13
Organizational Commitment – Definition and Measurement.....	15
Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Commitment.....	17
Consequences of Organizational Commitment	19
Organizational Commitment and Work Stressor Stress Relations	21
HRM Practices and Organizational Commitment	22
Psychological Contracts, HRM Practices and Organizational Commitment.....	28
Organizational Supportiveness and Organizational Commitment.....	30
Orientation, Socialization and Organizational Commitment.....	32
Organizational Culture and Socialization	36
Career Development and Organizational Commitment.....	39
Formalized Departmental Operating Guidelines	44
Summary	47
III. METHODOLOGY	49
Research Question and Research Model.....	49
Design of the Study.....	52
Population and Sample	52
Constructs and Measures	52
Survey and Scales	53
Research Questions and Hypotheses	55
Orientation/Socialization of New Recruits	56
Departmental Guidelines.	57
Career Development	58
Psychometric Properties of the Scales	60
Data Collection	60
Data Analysis and Statistical Procedure	61
Limitations	62
Summary.....	62

IV. PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS.....	63
The Survey.....	63
Results of Demographic Statistics.....	64
Factor Analysis of the HRM and Commitment Scales.....	67
<i>HRM Practices</i>	67
Commitment Scales.....	73
Pearson correlation for hypothesis testing.....	76
Research Hypotheses.....	76
Summary.....	78
V. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS.....	79
Summary and Implications of the Research Findings.....	80
Implications.....	87
Contributions and Limitations of the Study.....	88
Conclusion and Recommendations.....	88
Recommendations for Future Research.....	89
APPENDIX A.....	90
SCALE ITEMS IN SURVEY.....	90
APPENDIX B.....	95
COVER LETTER TO EMPLOYEES AND SURVEY INSTRUMENTS.....	95
APPENDIX C.....	103
SCALED ITEMS AFTER FACTOR ANALYSIS WAS DONE.....	103
REFERENCES CITED.....	107

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1	Variables and Measures 53
Table 2	Gender of Respondents 64
Table 3	Respondents' Age Distribution..... 65
Table 4	Respondents' Years of Service with the Company..... 65
Table 5	Respondents' Length of Time in Current Position with the Company..... 66
Table 6	Employment Status 66
Table 7	Positions within Company 67
Table 8	Rotated Component Matrix (a) 68
Table 9	Correlation Matrix 69
Table 10	Summary Statistics for the loaded HRM Items 71
Table 11	Summary Statistics of the Human Resources Management Scales 72
Table 12	Rotated Component Matrix (a) 73
Table 13	Commitment Variable Average 74
Table 14	Correlation Matrix 75
Table 15	Correlations..... 76

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	Socialization.....	36
Figure 2	HRM practices and employee commitment.....	50

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study is to investigate the impact of Human Resource Management (HRM) practices on the level of commitment displayed by the employees of the banking sector in Kingston, Jamaica. The crisis within the financial sector in the 1990's resulted in the demise of a number of financial institutions. It is surmised that the financial sector got into difficulty as a result of bad management practices, loose controls and the pursuits of business ventures outside of banking as major factors which created an adverse perception in the minds of its internal and external customers.

Research findings of Ogilvie (1986) and Gaertner and Nollen (1989) are used as a basis for the theoretical framework. An issue is whether or not organizations can do anything during the recruitment and selection process that will influence or set the stage for subsequent commitment. The researchers Ogilvie (1986) and Gaertner and Nollen (1989) found that perceptions of the organization's adherence to career oriented employment practices including internal promotion, training and development, and employment security are related to commitment among employees.

Work is a complex phenomenon and no clear definition can be easily given. Dessler (1997) stated that changes in the environment of Human Resource Management requires Human Resource (HR) to play a significant role in work related issues in organizations. These trends include growing workforce diversity, rapid technological change, globalization, and changes in the nature of work such as the movement toward a service society and a growing emphasis on education and human capital.

Some writers also challenge whether the language of loyalty and commitment is appropriate for the reality of organizational purpose today (McKendall & Margulis, 1995). In uncertain employment situations, a decline in organizational commitment can be a realistic outcome. This encourages employees to build self reliance and pursue their self interest and at the same time enables organizations to focus on achieving high performance without creating unrealistic expectations among employees (Hartmann & Bambacas, 2000).

Trends like globalization and technological innovations are changing the way firms are managed. The traditional pyramid shaped organization is giving way to new organizational structures. Employees are being empowered to make more decisions, and therefore, flatter structures with fewer layers of management in organizations appear to be the norm.

In recent years, researchers have focused on how a firm's employees can collectively be a unique source of competitive advantage that cannot be imitated by competitors (Barney, 1991). Bailey (1993) has observed that human resource management practices could enhance the return from employees' efforts, which could lead to gains that are significantly greater than the costs created by this process.

Dessler (1997) further explained that managers today must build commitment. These changes mean that organizations must depend more on self-disciplined and highly committed employees. Organizational commitment has been widely defined as identification and involvement with the organization; firstly believing in the organization's values and goals; secondly, exerting effort on behalf of the organization; and thirdly, a desire to remain with the organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1979).

Meyer and Allen (1991) noted that common to the various definitions of organizational commitment, it is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for their decisions to continue membership with the organization. Regardless of the definition, committed employees are more likely to remain with the organization than are uncommitted employees.

According to Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) although the three components of organizational commitment reduce the likelihood that employees will leave the organization, one reason for distinguishing among them is that they can have quite different implications for on the job behavior. Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that employees who want to remain (affective commitment) are likely to attend work regularly, perform assigned tasks to the best of their ability, and do little extras to help out. Those who remain out of a sense of obligation (normative commitment) may do likewise only if they see it as a part of their duty or as a means of reciprocation for benefits received. On the other hand, employees who remain primarily to avoid the costs of leaving (continuance commitment) may do little more than is required to maintain employment. Empirical research provides support for the three-component model, including predictions about differential behavioral outcomes.

For example, Wright, Smart and McMahan (1995) found that organizations exhibited higher performance when they recruited and acquired employees possessing competencies consistent with the organization's current strategies.

Line and staff cooperation in recruitment is essential. It is not just recruitment but effective recruiting that is important.

The results of a recent study by Rynes and Breta (1991) of college recruiter effectiveness stated that the quality of a firm's recruiting process had a big impact on what candidates thought of the firm. Therefore, personnel planning and recruiting methods directly affect employee commitment because commitment depends on hiring employees who have the potential to develop. Huselid (1995) found that investment in this HRM activity resulted in lower turnover, greater productivity, and increased organizational performance. In the work world, the trend is moving into relationships with employees that will foster harmony in the workplace. This provides the flexibility that is required to address the differing needs of each person, and this is the most effective way to attract and retain valued talent. Today, in some organizations there are concerns about the level of security and commitment which can be expected of employees when the incentive of security is no longer available.

Organizational commitment is still regarded as important because of its effect on employee identification with the organization, the level of effort, and turnover (Stroh & Reilly 1996). The consequences to an organization of employees with low commitment can be costly and, therefore, deserves the attention of management. Money is not the prime motivator for employee commitment but the type of working environment is. This concept is also endorsed by psychologist Frederick Herzberg who argued that the best way to motivate workers is to build opportunities for challenge and achievement into their jobs via job enrichment.

Firms may respond strategically to adverse economic conditions and the risk of corporate failure, and within this context, reorganize their human resources to achieve incremental changes or a complete strategic transformation of organizational performance. Such changes may involve the use of a set of HRM practices denoted as high involvement work practices or systems designed to improve organizational performance by addressing organizational systems that have become bureaucratic; over-manned, over-managed, inflexible and unresponsive to customers and to change.

Background to the Problem

These organizational challenges might have been easily attributed to the Jamaican banking sector prior to its recent financial crisis and reorganization during the late 1990's. The Jamaican public's confidence in the nation's banking system was shattered in 1996 due to unhealthy practices. In 1995 banking institutions started folding due to several factors, namely: absence of compliance with the proper internal control procedures, poor risk management and inadequate portfolio diversification, high and increasing levels of non-performing assets, high operating costs, poor quality of management and strategic planning, failure to exercise due diligence and care, an unusually high appetite for risk, high incidence of connected party lending, and breach of fiduciary duty and fraud. ([www. Finsac.com](http://www.Finsac.com)).

According to the (FINSAC) website, it was because of the failure of Century National Bank in 1996 that the government took the decision in March 1997 to create a company to deal with the problems of the sector which was called the Financial Sector Adjustment Company (finsac.com).

The debacle of the financial institutions, particularly in the banking industry, impacted greatly on internal and external customers' confidence and perception. According to the Daily Observer (1998) the Finance Minister, Dr. Omar Davis, laid the blame for the problems that the indigenous banks have faced over the years squarely on their management and therefore instituted the Financial Sector Adjustment Company (FINSAC) to take control by acquiring non-performing loans and injected equity by way of preference shares in the ailing banking sector. Addressing the problems was important because confidence is a decisive factor in the success of business.

Hartog and Verberg (2004) have noted that several studies support the existence of "high involvement work practices" and "high involvement work systems" (e.g. Delaney and Huselid, 1996) as important to organizational performance. These HRM systems might, therefore, be critical to the recovery and survival of the Jamaican banking sector. Special emphasis is given to assessing the extent of strategic fit between HRM practices and organizational commitment.

In particular, the banks' corporate strategies are classified as falling within one or more of three strategic orientations: the low cost; quality and innovation strategies. Delery and Doty (1996), in a survey of 216 banks, showed that innovation strategy correlated positively with job-descriptions, career opportunities and training and negatively with job security. Youndt et al. (1996) have noted that organizations adopting the low cost strategy would not justify the added cost of elaborate HRM systems.

Organizational culture is examined along four dimensions: support, innovative; rules and goal orientations (Van Muijen & Koopman, 1999).

Laschinger et al. (2001) have noted that an organizational culture that fosters staff empowerment and trust in management has been linked to higher levels of organizational commitment.

The investigation into the relations between HRM practices and organizational commitment in the banking sector is set within the conceptual framework of a psychological contract. Sparrow (1996) argued that psychological contracts underpin the work relationship and provide a basis for exploring and capturing complex organizational phenomena. Organizational change occasioned by the recent crisis and restructuring of the Jamaican banking sector, may have altered the terms of the psychological contract and the nature of the employees' commitment to the organization. Social information processing theory states that employees are likely to alter their perception of their obligations and expectations under the relational terms of these contracts (Robinson et al. 1994). According to Robbins (2003) the significance of perception cannot be underestimated as it forms the "backbone" of judgment and decision-making which is decisive in the success of business because this can affect employee commitment.

As a firm's human resources management practices respond to changes in environmental conditions, employees will re-appraise their existing psychological contracts in order to re-evaluate and re-negotiate their own and their employer's obligations (Rousseau & Parks-McClean, 1993).

In this context, the three high involvement work practices, (1) orientation and socialization; (2) career planning and development and (3) the use of formal operating guidelines, are examined as relevant to the re-appraisal of the psychological contracts governing employee work relations, expectations and organizational commitment.

Three additional variables are further examined as critical to the use of these three high involvement work practices:

- a) HRM traditions and past practices. Maguire (2002) noted that where there has been a history of stable and paternalistic human resources management practices, organizational restructuring is likely to decrease affective commitment, while continuance commitment, influenced by a lack of alternatives to the employees' current jobs, may be maintained;
- b) Employee perceptions of organizational supportiveness. Several studies (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Hcohwater et al. 1998; Siu & Cooper, 1998) have suggested that affectively committed individuals are better able to cope with organizational change than uncommitted employees.
- c) Organizational culture. Cross-cultural differences between orientation and socialization exist in the United States and other countries.

Significance of the Study

This research seeks to determine the impact of HRM practices on the level of employee commitment in the banking sector in light of the nature and relevance of it.

This study's objectives include investigating the relationships between organizational commitment and three specific HRM practices, typically associated with high involvement work systems, namely: (1) orientation and socialization; (2) career planning and development; and (3) the use of formal operating guidelines. The three HRM practices are potentially strong predictors of organizational commitment for three groups of employees – line managers, core service personnel and specialist staff.

The first objective seeks to gain preliminary, descriptive information on HRM policy and practices in the banking sector, together with an assessment of the organizational and environment factors that drive HRM strategy and policy. Special emphasis is given to assessing the extent of strategic fit between HRM practices and organizational commitment. The results will lend support for the design of high involvement work practices to foster organizational commitment and to improve long-term organizational performance in developing economies. The results will also be beneficial to behavioral scientists and management practitioners (Mowday et al., 1982). The findings should contribute to an organization's ability to determine the different components of commitment that need improvement in order to experience overall efficiency and effectiveness. Ultimately, scientists and managers will foster long-term affective, continuance, and normative commitment in employees.

The results of the study will provide support for the need for HRM practices to be context specific, rather than universalistic, in order to better address the unique circumstances of the Jamaican banking sector.

Research Hypotheses

This study examines the following hypotheses regarding the relations between the three high involvement HRM practices and organizational commitment:

H₁₀: There is a negative or no relationship between Human Resource Management orientation of recruits and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

H_{1a}: There is a positive relationship between Human Resource Management orientation of recruits and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

H₁₀: There is a negative or no relationship between Human Resource Management departmental guidelines and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

H_{1a}: There is a positive relationship between Human Resource Management departmental guidelines and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

H₁₀: There is a negative or no relationship between Human Resource Management department's use of career development of recruits and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

H_{1a}: There is a positive relationship between Human Resource Management department's use of career development of recruits and employees' level of commitment at the workplace

Scope and Limitation of the Study

This study takes place in Kingston, Jamaica focusing on the banking sector, namely Bank of Nova Scotia, National Commercial Bank and Royal Bank of Trinidad and Tobago.

The data sources concerning these banks during the financial crises of 1995 did not adequately represent the true impact on customers' confidence since time has diluted the intensity of effects and after effects of those events.

Definition of Critical Terms

In this study, the following terms were used according to the following definitions:

1. Human Resource Management Practices influence employee skills through the acquisition and development of a firm's human capital.

Recruiting procedures that provide a large pool of qualified applicants, paired with a reliable and valid selection regimen, will have a substantial influence over the quality and type of skills new employees possess.

Providing orientation, departmental guidelines and formal and informal training experiences, such as basic skills training, on the job experience, coaching, mentoring, and management development, can further influence employees' development.

2. Organizational Commitment is a three – dimensional construct characterizing an employee's relationship with an organization. The three dimensions, as defined by Meyer and Allen (1991), are as follows:

a. Affective Commitment: Affective Commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with an organization because they want to do so.

b. Continuance Commitment: Continuance Commitment refers to commitment based on costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization.

c. Normative Commitment: Reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organization.

Research Methodology

Given the absence of prior research on HRM policies and practices in the Jamaican banking sector, the use of multiple research methods is combined with primary research methods to collect data from the bank employees.

Summary

The introduction started with the purpose which is to investigate the impact of Human Resource Management practices on the levels of commitment displayed by employees of the banking sector in Kingston, Jamaica. The theoretical framework based on research findings of Ogilvie (1986) and Gaertner and Nollen (1989) was stated.

A brief description of what transpired in the banking sector in Kingston, Jamaica was given and then the factors which contribute to employee commitment at the workplace were stated. Researchers find that perceptions of an organization's adherence to career oriented employment practices, including internal promotion, training and development and employment security were related to commitment among employees. Chapter 1 further discussed the background of the problem and identified the research question and hypotheses and research methodology. Chapter 2 focuses on the literature related to worker commitment and the HRM practices: orientation /socialization of new recruits, departmental guidelines and career planning and development.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of the study is to investigate the impact of Human Resource Management (HRM) practices on the level of commitment displayed by the employees of the banking sector in Kingston, Jamaica. Organizational commitment refers to the extent to which an employee identifies with an organization and is committed to its goals. It is a multifaceted construct that has been associated with many organizational and behavioral antecedents and outcomes. Organizational commitment is related to such important work-related constructs as absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction, job involvement and leader-subordinate relations (Farrell & Stamm, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Organizational commitment is central to strategic human resources management (HRM) and organizational effectiveness (Bratton & Gold, 1999; Guest 1995 and Guest 1998).

In this context many variables have been linked to organizational commitment, including job satisfaction, work environment characteristics and employee characteristics (Lok & Crawford, 2001; Mowday, et al., 1982). However, the relationship between specific HRM practices and organizational commitment in the context of organizational change has not been fully explored.

This chapter explores the literature on the relationships between three specific areas of HRM policy and practice and organizational commitment.

The HRM practices are: (1) orientation and socialization during and after the recruitment period for both newcomers and insiders; (2) career planning and development and (3) formalized departmental operating guidelines.

The chapter is divided into two main sections. The first focuses on organizational commitment. The several definitions and measurements of organizational commitment are explored, together with a brief examination of the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment. This establishes its conceptual and practical significance. Next the review assesses current research on how organizational and work stress can impact on employee commitment. Organizational and work stressors may be important antecedents of different components of organizational commitment, particularly in the context of organizational change.

The second section focuses on the relationships between HRM strategy, policy and practice and organizational commitment. In the study HRM practices are the independent variables and organizational commitment is the dependent variable. Next, the concept of psychological contracts and its relationship to HRM practices and organizational commitment is explored. Psychological contracts are used as one of the underlying conceptual models of employee-organizational relations in the banking sector; and HRM practices may be viewed as critical to the relational terms of such contracts. Organizational support as a mediator of the relations between HRM practices and employee commitment is further examined.

This section is completed by reviewing the extant research on orientation and socialization; organizational culture and socialization; career planning and development and formalized operating guidelines and their impact on organizational commitment.

Organizational Commitment – Definition and Measurement

Organizational commitment is a complex phenomenon (Angle & Perry, 1981; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mottaz, 1988; O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981; Steers, 1997).

Organizational commitment can be understood as a pattern of behaviors; a set of behavioral intentions, a motivating force, or an attitude. The attitudinal approach is the most widely used (Goulet & Frank, 2002). Foote (2005) stated that commitment in organizations has long been conceptualized as acceptance of organizational goals and dedicated effort on behalf of the organization itself. He further explained that attitudes and role clarity positively influence conscientiousness and civic virtues.

There are two dominant positions on the concept and measurement of organizational commitment. The Mowday, Porter and Steers model (Mowday et al., 1979, 1982; Porter et al., 1974) defines organizational commitment as comprising three components: a strong belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values (identification); a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (involvement) and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (loyalty). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) define commitment as a force (mind set) that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets, which can take different forms: desire (affective commitment), perceived cost (continuance commitment), or obligation (normative commitment).

The Allen and Meyer (1990) model defined organizational commitment as the feeling of obligation to stay with the organization: feelings resulting from the internalization of normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to entry or following entry.

Meyer and Allen (1991) have noted that there are three components of organizational commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment refers to the employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to the need to continue working for the organization based on an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. This has been further sub-divided into personal sacrifice associated with leaving or limited opportunities for other employment. Finally, normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment with an organization based on society's norms about the extent to which one ought to be committed to the organization.

Meyer and Allen suggested that an employee's relationship with an organization could be better understood by analyzing all three components simultaneously. They believed that the conceptual distinctions between affective, normative, and continuance commitment, point to different causes as well as different attitudinal and behavioral consequences of the three components of commitment.

Studies of practitioners have provided a more demonstrative perspective on organizational commitment. Shepherd and Mathews (2000) investigated employers' perception and measurement of organizational commitment. They noted that employers distinguished committed employees from non-committed employees by their attitude, general behavior, demonstration of job satisfaction and attendance. A high emphasis was placed on communication between employers and employees in eliciting and measuring commitment levels.

This is consistent with the Mowday et al., model. Thus, these types of activities enhance: regular group meetings with management and staff; appraisals; management by walking around; meetings with individual employees and examining absentee levels.

Singh and Vinnicombe (2000) examined the common meanings attributed to organizational commitment by a group of British and Swedish managers in the aerospace engineering industry. The terms most often cited were: putting yourself out; involvement; quality and hours put in. Top managers compared with middle and junior managers expressed the need for “active, involved commitment to the organization and their personal career, through being pro-active, taking initiative, seeking and taking on challenges, being creative and innovative and adding value to the organization and to self” (Singh & Vinnicombe, 2000). Andolsek and Stebe (2004) defined commitment as an employee’s orientation towards an organization, which influences his or her involvement in its current and future operations. The orientation toward the organization can be multidimensional. This orientation can be directed toward top management, working unit, work team or to the organization as a whole.

Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Antecedents of organizational commitment

Dunham, Grube and Castenada (1994), Hackett, Bycio and Hausdorf (1994), Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993), Randall, Fedor and Longnecker (1990) and Allen and Meyer (1990) all confirmed that there are differences in the antecedents and outcomes of the component constructs of organizational commitment.

These differences are important not just because of their effect on employee identification with the organization, but also because of its implications for the level of employee effort and employee turnover (Stroh & Reilly, 1996).

Various personal characteristics have been noted as antecedents of organizational commitment. These characteristics include gender, age, education, marital status, religion and organizational tenure. An earlier study by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported that women were more committed than men. However, later studies (Kacmar et al; 1999, Van der Velde, Bossink & Jenson, 2003) found no relationship between gender and organizational commitment. Kidron (1978) found that the protestant work ethic of strong hard work as its core value was strongly positively correlated with organizational commitment.

Kacmar et al. (1999) and Mathieu and Zajac (1990) report higher levels of organizational commitment among married workers than unmarried workers because they have greater financial burdens and family responsibilities. Similarly, more educated employees showed lower levels of organizational commitment, because they had the flexibility to exploit alternative job opportunities or because they had higher expectations (Grau, et al., 1991; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Gbadamosi (1995a) investigated the relationship between organizational involvement and some personal correlates (family involvement, morale, career and non-work satisfaction, turnover intention and anxiety) among 110 Nigerian managers. Organizational involvement was measured using the Romzek (1989) scale. The scale assessed positive psychological attachment emphasizing identification and loyalty towards the work organization.

The scale also included items reflecting organizational norms for commitment. The study found that organizational involvement was significantly related to all of the variables except family involvement and anxiety.

Steers (1977) noted that among the situational variables that do have a bearing on organizational commitment are organizational atmosphere; culture and environment; all were assessed as predictors of organizational commitment. Hartog and Verberg (2004) explained that the context in which organizations operate may limit or hinder the usefulness, decisiveness and success of high performance work practices or systems. Creating a strong organizational culture is a powerful tool to influence employee behavior and improve performance. Burton and Lauridsen (2004) in their research on organizational climate and strategic fit, pointed out that a firm's organizational climate is its degree of trust, morale, conflict, rewards equity, leader credibility, resistance to change and all help to determine success.

Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Empirical research provides support for the three-component model, including predictions about differential behavioral implications. According to Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) although the three components of organizational commitment reduce the likelihood that employees will leave the organization, one reason for distinguishing among them is that they can have quite different implications for on-the-job behavior. Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that employees who want to remain (affective commitment) are likely to attend work regularly, perform assigned tasks to the best of their ability, and do little extras to help out.

Those who remain out of a sense of obligation (normative commitment) may do likewise only if they see it as a part of their duty, or as a means of reciprocating benefits received. On the other hand, employees who remain primarily to avoid costs (continuance commitment) may do little more than is required to maintain employment. Several studies have noted that a lack of organizational commitment is a strong predictor of turnover, (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981). Similarly, studies have shown that organizational commitment is a better predictor of actual turnover than job satisfaction (Price & Meuller, 1981; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Goulet and Frank (2002) explained that some of the most important behaviors associated with high levels of organizational commitment include those behaviors associated with or demonstrating the willingness of the individual to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization. This willingness may be manifested in such commitment behaviors as working more hours than the organization formally requires or at times not typically associated with the job in question (Mowday & Steers 1982). Goulet and Frank noted that several measures have been employed such as extra hours worked, in order to understand employees' commitment attitudes. Kanter (1977) described total commitment in terms of "more than nine to five."

Gbadamosi (1995b) also examined the relationships between organizational commitment, communication and some behavioral measures of effectiveness (morale, career, and non-work satisfaction, turnover intention and anxiety) and a four item alternative measure of effectiveness.

The results showed that organizational commitment as measured by the OCQ was strongly related to the behavioral measures of effectiveness.

Greater levels of organizational commitment have been linked to lower rates of absenteeism and better job performance (McNeese-Smith, 1995; Somers, 1995). Continuance and affective commitment also have differential effects on outcome behaviors such as citizenship behavior (Organ & Ryan, 1995) and absenteeism (Gellatly, 1995; Hackett, Bycio & Housdorf, 1994). According to Hartog and Verberg (2004) the ultimate aim of having committed employees is to enhance organization performance and to create a sustained competitive advantage in the marketplace.

Organizational Commitment and Work Stressor Stress Relations

Irving and Coleman (2003) have noted that there are research results on the role of organizational commitment in moderating work stressor-stress relations. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggested that individuals with stronger commitment may be more motivated to take action to reduce the threats and to engage in coping efforts to deal with the stressor.

Hochwarter et al. (1999) noted that high levels of organizational commitment were associated with a higher degree of perceived control and understanding of the work environment and reduced the impact of organizational politics (an organizational stressor) on job tension.

Alternatively Mathieu and Zajac (1990) suggested that high levels of organizational commitment exacerbate stressor-strain relations and that committed individuals might be more vulnerable to the effects of work-related stressors because of their investment in and identification with the organization.

Similarly, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) noted that the greater the strength of a commitment, the more vulnerable the person is to psychological stress in the area of that commitment.

Several researchers (Jamal, 1990; Reilly & Orsack, 1991) found that affective commitment is negatively correlated with self-reported measures of psychological, physiological and work-related stress. There was no significant correlation between these measures and continuance commitment. Several studies (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Hcohwater et al 1998; Siu & Cooper, 1998) found that organizational commitment provided a buffering effect against several organizational stressors. This suggests that affectively committed individuals are better able to cope with organizational change than uncommitted employees. This also has implications for the nature of the changes to the terms of psychological contracts between the organization and the employee in the context of the stressors-stress relations that may be associated with organizational change.

HRM Practices and Organizational Commitment

Storey (1995) defines HRM as a distinctive approach to employment management which seeks to achieve competitive advantage through the strategic deployment of a highly committed and capable workforce, using an integrated array of cultural, structural and personnel techniques. Tsui and Milkovich (1987) have contrasted three theoretical perspectives used to explain the determinants of HRM policy and practice. Structural functionalism argues that HRM practices result from organizational growth and/or the need to perform activities that require specialists in the various areas of the HR department.

The strategic contingency model argues that HRM practices are a reaction to critical external pressures such as legal requirements or union activity.

The strategic HRM model argues that HRM practices are designed to support the attainment of organizational objectives. There is also the multiple constituency approach to HRM policy that accommodates the requirements of multiple stakeholders within and without the firm (Tsui & Milkovich, 1987). This latter approach allows for an assessment of the impact on HRM policy of several external variables including international and national economic changes; technological changes; national culture and traditions; actions of competitors and unions; legislative and regulatory changes.

Potential internal factors that determine HRM policy include organizational structure and size, organizational history, traditions and past practices; top management, line management and organizational power and politics (Kane & Palmer, 1995).

Researchers have noted that there are two approaches that have been dominant in explaining the relationship between HRM practices and organizational performance – the universalistic and contextual approaches (Mak & Akhtar, 2003). The universalistic approach assumes that there are HRM practices that have a strong positive impact on organizational performance, across different organizational and environmental situations (Delaney 1997; Huselid 1995).

The contextual approach is based on the assumption that organizations adopting a particular strategy require HRM practices that are different from competing organizations using alternative strategies (Jackson & Schuler, 1995).

Several studies have noted that a firm's strategic orientation increases or reduces the impact of HRM practices on organizational performance (Youndt, Snell, Dean & Lepak 1996). Burton, Lauridsen, and Obel (2002) argued that strategic misalignment or misfit affects the firm's return on assets (ROA) for the worse. Takeuchi, Wakabayashi and Chen (2003) explained that HRM is one of the strategically relevant resources which may enable a firm to outperform other firms. Another theoretical explanation that can be used to state the effect of HRM practices on employee performance is the resource-based view theory of the firm, in which the locus of competitiveness is placed on a firm's internal "strengths" or "weaknesses" rather than on external opportunities or "threats" (Barney, 1991; Grant, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1987).

Three strategies and their implications for HRM practices are briefly explored – the low cost; quality and innovation strategies. The low cost strategy requires the transformation of input resources into quality outputs at the lowest possible cost. Organizations adopting the low cost strategy would not justify the added cost of elaborate HRM systems (Youndt et al., 1996). The quality and innovation strategy seeks to improve the input-output transformation process in order to improve product/service reliability and customer service. In this context, where the firm's competitiveness is based on its intellectual capital, HRM practices emphasize extensive training and development as well as performance appraisals. In the innovation strategy, the Miles and Snow (1978) strategy classification is used to identify highly, moderately and rarely innovative firms, labeled prospectors; analyzers and defenders respectively.

Delery and Doty (1996) in a survey of 216 banks, showed that innovation strategy correlated positively with job-description, career opportunities and training and negatively with job security. Hartog and Verberg (2004) noted that several studies support the existence of “high involvement work practices” and “high involvement work systems” (e.g. Delaney & Huselid, 1996) as important to organizational performance.

Purcell (1999) and Guest (2001) have noted that there is no consensus on the specific HRM practices that might constitute “high involvement work practices and systems.” Several studies focus on separate practices and their effects (Dyer & Reeves, 1995; Guest, 1997; Osterman, 1994). Other studies support the use of a combination of HRM practices because of their positive synergistic effects (Arthur, 1994; Bae & Lawler, 2000; Ichniowski et al, 1997; Koch & McGrath, 1996).

In a review of published studies on high involvement systems, Boselie and Dietz (2003) noted that the most often cited practices were those that pertained to employee development and training; participation and empowerment; information sharing and compensation systems. Batt (2002) argued that high involvement work systems generally include: high skills requirements work designed so that employees have discretion and opportunity to use the skills in collaboration with other workers and an incentive system that enhances motivation and commitment.

This was also supported by Delaney and Huselid (1996) who noted the importance of employee participation and empowerment, job redesign including team-based systems; extensive employee training and performance-contingent incentive compensation and improved organizational performance.

Gbadamosi (2003) in a study of the Nigerian banking sector argued that commitment is voluntary, dynamic and should be reciprocated with specific HRM practices designed to achieve certain outcomes. Accordingly, he recommends “a total employee package to induce commitment in practical terms” (p.5). Such an integrated package would involve specific HRM practices designed to address the following:

- a) The general satisfaction derived or derivable from the job itself as well as the job environment. While organizational commitment and job satisfaction are conceptually distinct constructs (Knoop, 1995; Lance, 1991; Mowday et al., 1979), a strong positive relationship has been reported between job satisfaction and organizational commitment in several studies, (Lok & Crawford, 2001; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; McNeese-Smith, 2001; Price & Mueller, 1981; Williams & Hazer, 1986)
- b) Career progress or job advancement (Singh & Vinnicombe, 2000);
- c) Communication, managers should communicate clearly, visibly and always (Gbadamosi, 2003). This would give constant information about the actual work progress vis-à-vis targets (Decotiis & Summers, 1987).
- d) Organizational culture. Sisson (1990) and Guest (1995) have argued that organizational culture must be managed to achieve employee commitment.
- e) Recent studies (Hatton et al, 1999; Laschinger, Shamian, & Thomson, 2001; Lok & Crawford, 2001), point to the importance of organizational culture as a predictor of organizational commitment.

- f) Organizational change. Iverson (1996) and Yousef (2002) also argued that the level of organizational commitment might affect support for positive organizational change.

However, as Hartog and Verberg (2004) have noted, the organizational context in which these HRM practices are used may limit or enhance the distinctiveness and success of high-involvement work practices or systems, for example collective bargaining agreements, trade unions, labor laws and other regulations that constrain or prescribe work practices found in a high involvement work system. Of special significance is the contribution of specific HRM practices to organizational culture and its attendant effect on organizational commitment. Guest (1994) argued that selection, orientation/socialization and training procedures may contribute to both the emergence and maintenance of shared patterns of norms, values and informal rules within organizations. Alternatively, the dominant culture may determine the specific HRM practices adopted (Hartog & Verberg, 2004).

In addition, organizations may use different practices for different groups of personnel. For example, HRM practices may be applied differently or similarly for line managers, specialist staff and core production or service employees (Lepak & Snell, 2002).

Thite (2004) stated that different practices for different groups will succeed only if the parties involved treat each other fairly. HR strategy cannot succeed unless organizations have an overarching HR philosophy that assures its employees that they are working for a caring, nurturing and trustworthy organization.

Psychological Contracts, HRM Practices and Organizational Commitment

Sparrow (1996) argued that psychological contracts underpin the work relationship and provide a basis for exploring and capturing complex organizational phenomena. The employment relationship may be regarded as an exchange relationship (Mowday et al., 1982), which runs the entire contract spectrum from strictly legal to purely psychological. The psychological contract is the hidden aspect of the employment exchange (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Greenburg, 1990). Maguire (2002) noted that there were changes in the nature of the exchange relationship and thereby, in the terms of the psychological contract between the organization and the employee.

Psychological contracts contain transactional and relational elements (MacNeil, 1985). Transactional components reflect the reciprocating process of exchanging reasonable effort for extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (Marks et al., 1996). The relevant contractual terms have monetary value, are specific and are of a limited duration. Relational components refer to factors such as the provision of commitment, company loyalty and trust in management in return for competent management, opportunity for input and a sense of belonging. However, these components may not be easily valued.

Transactional and relational elements of the psychological contract interact (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994). Changes in the transactional terms can influence the kinds of relational rewards expected or obligations perceived.

An increase in work obligations and related work stress, without a concomitant will increase in either transactional or relational elements of the contract, for example, additional compensation or prospects for promotions may create an imbalance that can eventually lead to reduced commitment.

Maguire (2002) noted that in the Australian banking industry, employees have been able to predict that remaining with an organization (continuance commitment) would be rewarded with promotional opportunities and increased income. Organizational change can alter the terms of the psychological contract and the nature of the employees' commitment to the organization. Social information processing theory suggests that employees are likely to alter their perception of what they owe the employer and what they are owed in return (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Robinson et al., 1994).

As a firm's HRM practices respond to changes in environmental conditions and as employees gain experience, they will re-appraise their existing psychological contracts in order to re-evaluate and re-negotiate their own and their employer's obligations (Rousseau & McClean Parks, 1993).

Maguire (2002) noted that the finance sector is characterized by a history of stable and paternalistic human resources management practices and organizational restructuring and they are likely to decrease affective commitment, while continuance commitment is influenced by a lack of alternatives to the employees' current jobs and may be maintained (Newell & Dopson, 1996).

Decades of paternalistic HRM practices in the banking sector may have resulted in the development of an “implied contract” of reasonable effort, loyalty and commitment on the part of employees in exchange for a clearly identifiable career path and job security on the part of the bank. Organizational changes may reduce the opportunity for organizations to continue to offer extrinsic rewards such as long-term career paths and job security.

Navran (1994) argued that in this context, banks may alter the relational terms of psychological contracts when employees perceive that no job is safe from downsizing, reengineering, flattening or elimination. Following such organizational changes, HRM strategies must now address the new expectations of a more sophisticated and self-aware work force (Bayliss, 1998).

Intrinsic rewards such as recognition, a sense of achievement and collegial relationships are likely to become even more attractive to employees as highly sought-after work rewards. These intrinsic rewards may increasingly be both promised to employees at the recruitment stage and at later stages of their employment (Maguire, 2002).

Organizational Supportiveness and Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Smith (2000) stated that evidence supports the fact that organizational supportiveness might play an integral role in the development of affective commitment and this comes from several sources. Employee perceptions of support, for example, have been measured directly in several studies using the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986).

The results suggested strong links between such perceptions and affective commitment to the organization (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Faced with uncertainty about how to perform a new role, unfamiliar colleagues, and new practices, employees need to obtain information that will enable effective role performance and adjustment to organizational norms (Jablin, 2001).

Research on organizational newcomers reported similar findings. New employees who thought the organization treated them in a supportive manner during the first few months of employment expressed particularly strong affective commitment to the organization (Hart and Miller, 2003).

In general affective commitment to the organization is stronger among employees whose leaders allow them to participate in decision-making. Morales (1998) stated that the development or revision of a policy of trust and confidentiality with the input of company employees, have been known to yield positive results.

This type of involvement provides the opportunity to engage the ideas and talents of employees, and to foster confidence and commitment through effective communication and mutual respect. The fostering of this kind of environment contributes to the organization's profile as a company that cares.

Meyer and Smith (2002) argued that the relations between HRM practices and employee commitment are in part mediated by employees' perception of procedural justice and organizational support, that is, the relations are not necessarily direct or unconditional.

Koys (1988, 1991) found that employees' commitment to their organization was related to their belief that the organization's HRM practices were motivated by a desire to attract and retain good employees and to be fair in their treatment of employees. In contrast, commitment was unrelated to perceptions that HRM practices were motivated by a desire to increase productivity and to comply with employment laws.

Orientation, Socialization and Organizational Commitment

Van Maanen (1978) described organizational socialization as the experiences of people learning the ropes of a new organizational position, status, or role structured for them by others within the organization. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) have noted that organizations socialize newcomers so that they will conform to prescribed norms and values, and exhibit commitment to the organization. Socialization is a part of all work role transitions both into and within organizations and firms expend significant resources in training programs that seek to re-socialize their current employees (Feldman, 1989). Socialization is an ongoing process of instilling in all employees the prevailing attitudes, standards, values, and patterns of behavior that are expected by the organization (Dessler, 1997).

Socialization may be studied from both the employers' and employees' perspectives, but is now typically studied from the employees' perspective (Miller & Jablin, 1991; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992).

Campion and Mitchell (1983), Louis (1980) and Vandenberg & Scarpello (1990) noted that unsuccessful socialization can be tremendously costly to an organization, leading ultimately to employee turnover.

Fisher (1986) noted that it has a powerful and potentially lasting effect on the behaviors and attitudes of employees who remain in the organization. According to Ferris, Russ and Fandt (1989) and Pfeffer (1992) organizational socialization is also a mechanism by which newly entering employees learn about organizational politics and power dynamics. Chao et al. (1994) indicated that organizational socialization is concerned with the learning content and process by which an individual adjusts to a specific role in an organization.

Formal change programs comprising explicit and implicit learning mechanisms (Chao, 1997) are used to accompany mergers and reorganizations. However, as Taomina (2000) noted in his cross-cultural study of the socialization of United States and Hong Kong employees, national and organizational cultures are important to understanding the relationship between socialization and employee commitment. Bauer, Morrison and Callister (1998) have argued that differences associated with national cultures may create cross-cultural variances in the socialization process. National cultures may determine the specific socialization tactics used; the specific roles of newcomers and insiders in the socialization process and the measurement of successful socialization.

The initial point of contact with the potential employee during the recruitment and selection process may be critical to the development of long-term organizational commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1997) when companies provide accurate information during the recruitment and selection process - the initial socialization period, applicants are better able to determine whether the job will meet their specific needs.

Wanous (1980, 1992) contrasted two approaches to recruitment: the traditional “hard sell” approach and one in which organizations provide realistic job previews (RJPs) that describe both positive and negative aspects of jobs. He argued that, by using RJPs, organizations can increase the job satisfaction and the (affective) organizational commitment of new employees. Thus, RJPs function as part of the (pre) socialization process.

Applicants who continue in the selection process and accept job offers should be more likely to find the jobs satisfying. Further, those who are informed about the less desirable aspects of their future jobs would have the opportunity to prepare themselves and find ways to cope with problems if they encounter them. Individuals who freely choose a course of action are likely to be more committed to it (Kiesler, 1971; Salancik, 1977a).

Organizations that are willing to be honest with applicants, even at the risk of losing potential valuable employees, might be perceived as more trustworthy and supportive than those that use a hard-sell approach. Supervisors play an important role in the orientation process, serving as both an information source and a guide for the new employee. The supervisor can help newcomers overcome feelings of anxiety by providing factual information, clear and realistic performance expectations and by emphasizing the employee’s likelihood of succeeding in the organization. Major et al. (1995) reported that doing so reduces the negative effects of unmet expectations.

Fisher (1986) and Taormina (1997) have suggested four relevant socialization-related measures among others, that can be used to assess socialization: (1) training received from their companies; (2) understanding of their jobs and how the company works; (3) coworker support, i.e., moral support received from their colleagues and (4) future prospects, i.e., the employee's expectations regarding a rewarding career within the employing organization. Taormina's cross-cultural socialization study utilized the organizational socialization inventory (OSI) (Taormina, 1994) to assess these four domains of the socialization construct, as predictors of organizational commitment (affective, normative and continuance).

A study by Holton and Russell (1997) utilized several socialization process measures grouped to assess the newcomers' perspective of their job, the employer and the organizational entry process. Sixteen items were developed to assess perception of organizational entry experiences, including the firm's receptivity to new employees and difficulties in adapting to new jobs. Nineteen items measured job characteristic constructs (Mabey, 1986; Ashford & Cummings, 1985) such as job challenge, feedback and clarity of job competency requirements. Thirteen measures were used to assess how all newcomers understood the firm.

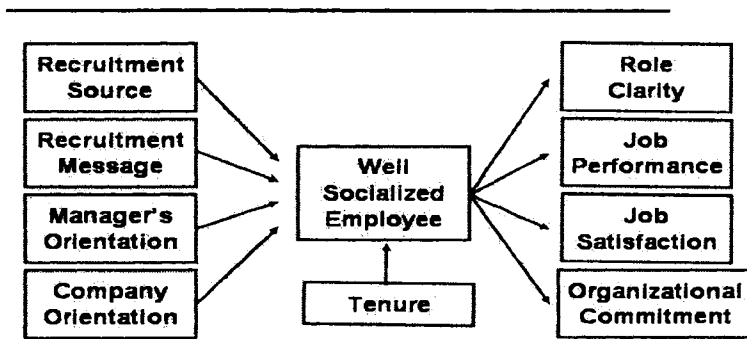


Figure 1 Socialization

Organizational Culture and Socialization

Figure 1 (www.cob.ohiostate.edu/klein) explicitly displays the variables which contribute to a well socialized employee who will evidently experience tenure at an institution. It begins with the recruitment of new employees who should be thoroughly oriented by the leader/supervisor of the department the employee is assigned, and then he/she should proceed with orientation about the company itself to ensure comprehensive knowledge of the organization. If this is successfully done it will impact positively on role clarity, job performance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the employee. Hsiung and Hsieh (2003) stated that organizational socialization is the process by which employees learn the values, norms and required behaviors which permit them to practice as members of an organization. Employees entering new jobs and organizations normally experience some degree of uncertainty as they face unfamiliar environments. This uncertainty can lead to anxiety and stress.

According to Hsiung and Hsieh, (2003) several studies have demonstrated the importance of newcomer socialization programs, which will contribute to better adjustment, higher job performance, and lower turnover intentions and stress.

Within the context of organizational socialization, it is important to note the role of organizational culture in organizational commitment. Organizational culture refers to the complex pattern of assumptions, beliefs and values that guide the behavior of organizational members. Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian and Casier (2000) and Laschinger et al. (2001) have noted that an organizational culture that fosters staff empowerment and trust in management has been linked to higher levels of job satisfaction and greater organizational commitment.

Hartog and Verberg (2004) employed the FOCUS measures of organizational culture in a study of HRM practices and organizational culture. Van Muijen et al. (1999) stated that FOCUS is an international group of researchers who developed a questionnaire to measure organizational culture. The questionnaire is based on the competing values model (Quinn, 1988). This model consists of two dimensions, each with contrasting poles.

The first dimension refers to the organization's focus. The organization is either focused internally, in which case the organization itself, its processes or its people, are central. The firm could also be focused externally, in which case the relationship between the firm and its environment is emphasized. The second dimension reflects the emphasis on either flexibility or control. The model therefore yields a combination of four culture orientations.

An organization can score high or low on any combination of these dimensions. The four orientations are classified as the support, the innovative; the rules and the goal orientations (Van Muijen & Koopman, 1996; Van Muijen et al., 1999)

The support orientation embodies such concepts as co-operation; social and mutual trust; group cohesion and individual growth. Along this quadrant, the commitment of the individual is emphasized. High involvement work systems aimed at employee development are emphasized.

The innovative orientation emphasizes such concepts as searching for new information in the environment, creativity, openness to change; competition; anticipation and experimentation. Strict management control is neither possible nor desired and management expects employee flexibility and involvement. In this quadrant, high involvement work practices that emphasize flexibility, empowerment, and openness are appropriate (Hartog & Verberg, 2004).

The rules that orientation highlights are: respect for authority, rationality of procedures, compliance and division of work. HRM practices that emphasize control and adherence to procedures are dominant. However, they are not typical of high involvement work systems. The goal orientation emphasizes rationality, functionality, objectives and productivity. Employee efficiency and accomplishment are central.

High involvement work systems that highlight progress towards performance targets such as performance measurement and performance-related pay seem appropriate (Hartog & Verberg, 2004). Lok and Crawford (2001) concluded that innovative organizational culture, characterized by a willingness to experiment and innovate, was a strong predictor of organizational commitment among hospital nurses.

Thus, organizational socialization introduces employees to the culture and processes of the organization and reduces stress and uncertainty. Therefore, it is linked to organizational commitment.

Career Development and Organizational Commitment

An organization's career development programs may help guarantee that all employees have the opportunity to formulate realistic assessments of their career abilities, interests, and occupational opportunities. Santos and Stewart (2003) stated in their research on perceptions of training that conventional wisdom suggests that investment in career training and development are associated with a range of individual and organizational benefits. They posit in the literature that training is the vital component in organizational processes of cultural change and an important behavioral device in terms of securing workplace commitment and in realizing the latent potential of employees.

Career development programs make it easier for employees to choose and make vertical and lateral moves that would let them broaden and challenge themselves, and if needed, compete for jobs at other firms. These programs also provide organizational support that may be critical to the development of organizational commitment.

Dressler (1997) explained that training employees to expand their skills and solve problems at work; enriching their jobs; empowering them to plan and inspect their own work; and helping them continue their education and growth, are other ways to achieve career development and self-actualization.

Self-actualization may be further strengthened by work conditions characterized by employees participating in important work-related decisions, supervisory feedback and support, and rewards that are perceived as fair and equitable (Bandura, 1986; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Greenberg, 1990).

Involvement in work-related decisions, and the provision of support as one attempts to accomplish work-related goals, are expected to bolster individuals' attraction to both their job and the organization (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Thomaas & Velthouse, 1990).

This type of work environment provides individuals with the opportunity to make a difference on the job, try out new skills, exercise discretion, receive feedback on their performance and work in an environment characterized by support, participation and fair treatment. Ultimately these work conditions will increase employees' intrinsic motivation by providing affirmation that their efforts are worthwhile and valued (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1976; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Career motivation affects how people choose their careers, how they view their careers, how hard they work in them and how long they stay in them. London (1985) sees career motivation as a set of characteristics grouped into three facets: career resilience, career insight and career identity.

Ironically, many companies may actively thwart the process of growth and self-actualization. Argyris (1964) noted that the typical company with its short-cycle jobs, and relative dearth of growth opportunities, thwarts normal maturation changes by forcing employees into dependent, passive and subordinate job roles, with an adverse impact on organizational commitment.

Their career planning and development programs do not provide jobs with motivating potential, high skill variety, task significance, task identity, autonomy and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1976).

Although commitment might not be the intended objective, training can nevertheless be an influence in the process of inducing greater levels of commitment. This was demonstrated in a study conducted by Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, and Cannon-Bowers (1991). They assessed the commitment of recruits immediately on arrival at a U.S. Naval Training Command for an 8-week socialization type training process and again following training. Post training organizational commitment was positively associated with perceptions of training fulfillment (the extent to which the training fulfilled trainees' expectations and desires), satisfaction with the training experience, and training performance. Saks (1995) obtained similar results in a study conducted with a sample of newly hired entry-level accountants. He found that the effects of training on commitment were attributable, in part, to its effects on newcomers' feelings of self-efficacy (perceptions of their ability to perform the required task).

Tannenbaum et al (1991) found some evidence that organizational commitment may have reciprocal effects on career development. They found a strong positive correlation between commitment and employees' motivation for training, a variable that was found to be an important predictor of training satisfaction and performance. However, Hartman & Bambacas (2000) noted that even when employees were happy, some of them would continually think about leaving an organization and promoting their careers.

At the individual level, Keep (1989) argued that training investment constitutes a powerful signaling device to reassure employees that they are valued by their employers, which in turn enhances employee motivation and commitment to the organization. It has been proven that such propositions received support from the Employment in Britain Survey which, drawing from dataset of 3,855 employed individuals, found that 94 percent of the respondents felt that training received had been beneficial (Gallie & White, 1993).

In this regard, evidence suggests training is more likely to have a positive effect on employee attitudes (eg. motivation and job satisfaction) where employers develop formal, structured approaches to training which link skill formation to job tenure, career progression, recognition and reward (Heyes & Stuart, 1996).

However, ethnographic investigations revealed that the impact of training provision on performance outcomes is dependent on how and in whose interest skills are deployed at the workplace (Heyes, 1998). He explained that social and political processes at the level of the workplace shape the distinction between skill acquisition and skill deployment.

It is known that learning and the transfer of learning to the workplace will only occur when trainees have both the ability and motivation to acquire and apply new skills (Wexley & Lathan, 1991; Noe 1986). It is claimed that a wide variety of trainee characteristics are likely to affect the transfer of training. Noe (1986) identified personality and motivational factors and developed an expectancy model that hypothesizes the process by which trainees' attitudes concerning their jobs and careers and their perception of the work environment influence training outcomes.

Testing the model, Noe and Schmit (1986) found that trainees with high job involvement were more motivated to learn and transfer skills to the work setting.

It is also said that the effectiveness of a training program can also be influenced by events prior to training (Baldwin & Magjuka, 1991) as well as by post-training programs (Baldwin & Ford, 1988).

Supervisors and peer support, goal setting, feedback mechanisms, the opportunity to use new skills and the availability of resources are considered to influence the process of transfer (Noe, 1986). Also economic studies see training and development investments as key determinants of organizational performance and economic growth (Mason et al., 1996; Prais, 1995; Romer, 1993). Santos and Stuart (2003) in their study on career training revealed in their findings that trainees benefited from training through improved knowledge and skills and also through improved confidence, self-efficacy, less need for supervision and general enjoyment. Managers stressed the relationship between individual advantage and organization gain, they explained that if people feel they have been invested in, automatically their trust in organization increases and that has an indirect benefit for their work and ultimately for performance-related issues. However, enrolling employees to attend programs in a non-supportive working environment may waste training funds.

Santos and Stuart (2003) further expounded that training provisions will be more effective if attention is given to ensuring that the work climate and management practices encourage personal development, since behavioral change is seen as more likely to take place where management encourages and rewards trainees for using skills.

Formalized Departmental Operating Guidelines

Resource-based theorists (Barney, 1991; Prahalad & Hamel, 1990) have noted that resources that are rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable, provide sources of sustainable competitive advantage for an organization. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) as well as Wright and McMahan (1992) argued that, if strategically managed, a firm's human resource deployments have the potential to meet these conditions and thus provide the firm with an advantage in terms of its human, social, and intellectual capital. The Human capital theory by (Becker, 1964) states that because the knowledge, skills, and abilities that people bring to organizations have economic value employees need to be managed in the same strategic manner that other economic assets are managed. Formalized operating guidelines may be part of a structured approach to the management and deployment of human resources in this context.

A thorough knowledge of the job, understanding the requirements of the workplace, and a code of conduct provide an environment in which work may be performed effectively. Clear policies will minimize stress in the organization as individuals will have no difficulty in interpreting what is required to facilitate harmonious relationships.

The manner in which an organizational policy is communicated has been linked to affective commitment. For example, Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) reported higher affective commitment among employees who believed that the organization provided them with an adequate explanation for new policies.

Evidence that organizational supportiveness might play a role in the development of affective commitment comes from several sources.

Employee perceptions of support, for example, have been measured directly in several studies using the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support developed by Eisenberger and his colleagues (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Results of these studies suggested strong links between such perceptions and affective commitment to the organization (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Research on organizational newcomers reported similar findings.

According to Morales (1998) executives set guiding principles to achieve the goals of the organizations and if these goals are unclear or contradictory, the company may lose credibility. It is important that organizations have written policies defining the relationships between and among their employees. Clear policies lay the foundation for a sound mission and objectives. This engenders confidence and encourages employees including executive personnel to be committed to the mission of the organization. Morales further explained that when systems are in place for the development and use of guidelines and procedures, access to resources is made easier. This facilitates efficient performance, which can lead to greater productivity.

Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) found that new employees who sought information from supervisors reported higher levels of satisfaction, commitment, and intentions to remain. Other studies reported similar findings in that new employees who sought information from peers had higher satisfaction and commitment as well as lower stress and fewer turnover intentions.

Kramer (1994) explained that uncertainty reduction theory suggests that employees request more information during job transitions, and that increased levels of communication leads to positive adjustment through reduced stress and role ambiguity, and more task knowledge. Communication enables organizational members to make sense of their changing environment during significant organizational transitions, such as acquisitions and relocations in which they are faced with high levels of uncertainty, (Isabella, 1990).

Uncertainty has also been suggested as a barrier of effective organizational participation. Employees must be knowledgeable about ways to control the communication environment, solve interpersonal or relational problems, and achieve goals in order to be perceived as competent communicators (Anderson, 1988).

Only when employees have experienced reduced uncertainty by developing cognitions or schemas for routine activities are they able to move from one level to another (Jablin 1987). This will enable them to be perceived as competent in their jobs.

Organizations may need to develop programs which emphasize that both peers, and particularly supervisors, of new and transferred employees play an important role in providing feedback and information needed to reduce uncertainty in new positions.

It may be that peers and supervisors surmise that it is the other's responsibility to socialize new employees and as a result, it is possible that neither provides the necessary information (Kramer 1994).

Kontoghiorghes and Bryant (2004) conducted research exploring employee commitment and stated that special attention should be paid to the fact that company satisfaction was found to be the strongest predictor of employee commitment.

This finding in essence demonstrates how important it is for organizations to put people first when employee commitment and loyalty are desired. This finding empirically validates a fundamental assumption that creating a humane, win-win driven organizational culture within which employee satisfaction regarding guidance and support are considered to be the key contributors to organizational success and survival. Thus, clear communication of formal operating procedures is related to enhanced organizational commitment.

Summary

The review of literature examined organizational commitment; and its several sub-components and constructs. Two contending views on the nature and measurement of organizational commitment were presented: the Mowday et al. model as well as the Allen and Meyer model. In addition, studies of practitioners provided additional information on the measures used to determine and communicate the level of employee commitment. Studies evaluating the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment suggest that organizational commitment is a multi-dimensional construct which has implications for three core areas of strategic HRM. These are: orientation and socialization during and after the recruitment and selection process; career planning and development; and the use of formal operating guidelines to set organizational standards and to increase productivity.

High involvement work systems are also examined as important to organizational improvement and organizational commitment.

Socialization was defined as an on-going process in which the organization structures the experiences of employees in new organizational positions or roles.

Socialization can produce employees who adopt the values and norms that are critical to the organization.

Organizational culture is uniquely related to the socialization programs designed for newcomers and employees. Career planning and development affects how employees choose and view their careers, as well as how long and hard they work in them.

A study conducted by Hartog and Verberg (2004) shows that both socialization and career planning and development are interwoven with organizational commitment, so they are critical to organizational supportiveness which is a strongly perceived requirement for organizational commitment. Formal operating guidelines are important for establishing norms, values and standards regarding quality and performance. Understanding job and work requirements reduces stress and increases productivity. This may be critical for employers in negotiating promotions, raises, and career development programs.

In summary, this chapter has linked organizational commitment to the critical HRM practices: Orientation of Recruits, Departmental Guidelines and Career Development as the research model developed for this study. The model and associated hypotheses are presented in chapter III. They test the positive relationships between the three HRM practices and commitment to the organization in the banking industry in Kingston, Jamaica.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this research is to establish whether there are positive relationships between human resource management practices and employee organizational commitment. Chapter three discusses the method in this order: the research question and the model, the research design, and population; the constructs, variables and their measures, including the reliability, validity and scoring instructions; statistical hypotheses, data collection and analysis procedures.

Research Question and Research Model

The study addresses the impact of Human Resource Management (HRM) practices on the level of commitment displayed by employees of the banking sector in Kingston, Jamaica. The search for the answer to this question focuses on management's orientation of new employees, departmental guidelines and career development practices and their relationship to the level of commitment displayed by employees. Obtaining the answers to the research question is important for developing a strategy for increased commitment in order to achieve maximum productivity at the workplace.

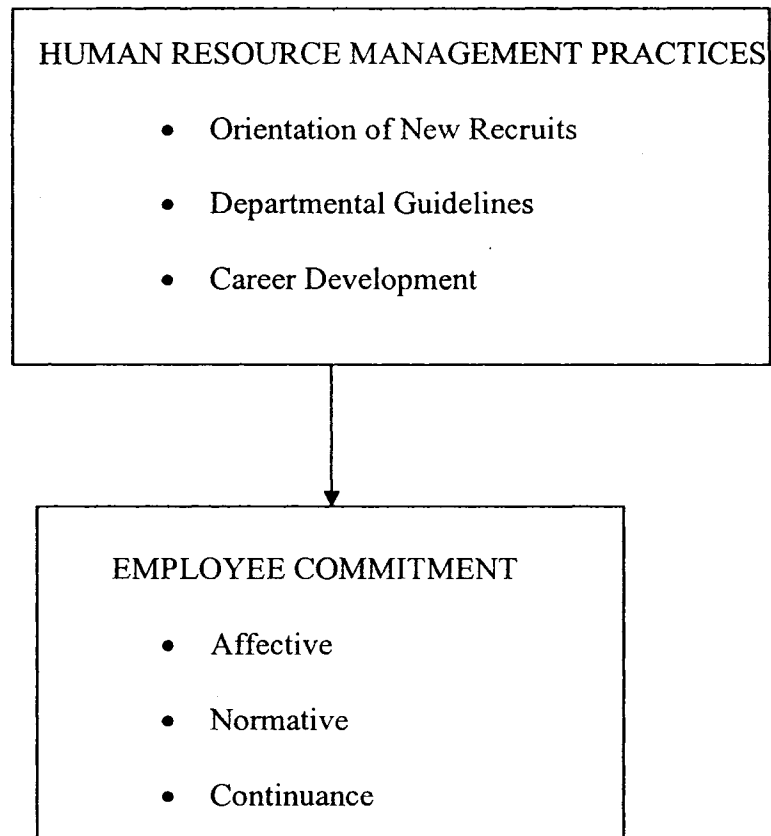


Figure 2 HRM Practices and Employee Commitment

Figure 2 illustrates how specific HRM practices (orientation/socialization of new employees, departmental guidelines and career planning and development) can lead to higher levels of employee commitment. According to Chang and Chen (2002) HRM practices are essentially the levers by which a pool of human capital can be developed. Regarding the orientation of new recruits, Wanous (1980, 1992) argued that, by using realistic job previews (RJPs) organizations can increase job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job survival of new hires without negative impact on productivity.

In relation to departmental guidelines, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) have shown that affective commitment is likely to be low among employees who are unsure about what is expected of them (role ambiguity) or who are expected to behave in ways that seem incompatible (role conflict) due to unclear departmental guidelines. Therefore, departmental guidelines refer to manager's direction for and feedback on the work performed.

Employees who receive training, particularly training intended to provide them with the opportunity for career advancement, perceive that the organization values them as individuals (which bolsters their sense of worth) and this fosters stronger continuance commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) also added that if training is perceived as providing organization-specific skills that contribute to status or economic advantage within a company, this will evidently lead to commitment. Gaertner and Nollen (1997) found that perceptions of the organization's adherence to career-oriented employment practices, including internal promotion, training and development, and employment security were related to commitment among employees in a Fortune 100 manufacturing firm. Previous research demonstrates that an organization's management practices can influence employees' affective (perceived attachment), continuance (perceived cost of leaving) and normative commitment (perceived need to reciprocate).

On the basis of the previous and current research Gaertner and Nollen (1989) concluded that psychological commitment is higher among employees who believe they are being treated as resources to be developed rather than commodities to buy and sell.

Design of the Study

This research constitutes an empirical study, utilizing surveys to assess the constructs in the research model. The population is identified in the following section. The constructs and their measures in the questionnaire are then described and finally, the hypothesis and statistical analyses methods (e. g. correlation and regression) are presented.

Population and Sample

The population for this study consists of 500 employees (management, supervisors, administrators and clerks) from the banking sector in Kingston, Jamaica. The banking sector comprises the following: Bank of Nova Scotia, National Commercial Bank, and Royal Bank of Trinidad and Tobago. Participation in the survey will be completely on a voluntary basis, and all respondents will be given the research instrument on the basis that anonymity will be assured and observed.

Constructs and Measures

This section on constructs and measures first introduces the independent and dependent variables. The subsections detail the survey scales and psychometric properties of the scales based on previous research. The dependent variable in the study is organizational commitment and regarding management practices, the independent variables are: employee orientation, departmental guidelines and career development. The various scales developed and validated by Meyer, et al. (1993), Kramer (1994), Kouzes and Posner (1997) and Sturges et al. (2002) are described below.

Survey and Scales

Items for HRM practices are adapted from scales used and developed by Kramer (1994), Kouzes and Posner (1997) and Sturges et al. (2002). Organizational commitment is measured with Meyer and Allen's (1993) scales. Table 1 lists the constructs (independent and dependent variables) and their operationalizations. The items in the scales appear in Appendix A with the constructs they measure.

Table 1 Variables and Measures

Variables/Constructs	Operationalization (Measures)
Independent Variables - HRM practices: Orientation of recruits Departmental guidelines Career development	Items from Kouzes and Posner (1998) and Kramer (1994) Kramer (1994); items from Kouzes and Posner (1998), Sturges, Guest, Conway and Davey (2002), selected items from Kouzes and Posner (1998).
Dependent Variables - (Organizational Commitment) Affective Continuance Normative	Three dimensional scale (Allen & Meyer, 1996) as revised by Allen, Meyer and Smith (1993).

The survey for this study consists of three sections:

1. Demographic items.
2. The three-dimensional Organizational Commitment scale, developed and initially validated by Allen and Meyer (1990) and revised by Allen, Meyer, and Smith (1993).

3. HRM practices are measured with items derived from several scales: The Leadership Practices Inventory: Observer (LPIO) by Kouzes and Posner (1988, 1997) and items from Kramer (1994) and Sturges et al. (2002). Appendix B lists the questionnaire with the scale items presented in two parts, the HRM practices and organizational commitment.

The personal characteristics questionnaire is utilized in order to summarize the aggregate characteristics of the respondents. This information is required for making statistical comparisons regarding organizational commitment levels and the personal characteristics of age, education, gender, rank, and years of service. The literature review stated that demographic characteristics have some degree of relationship with organizational commitment.

The second section of the survey assesses HRM practices (employees' perception of orientation, departmental guidelines and career development) from scales developed by Kramer (1994), Kouzes and Posner (1997) and Sturges et al. (2002). The three measures appear in the first section of Appendix A listed as HRM Practice Scales. The third section of the survey consists of the 18-item Organizational Commitment scale (Meyer, et al., 1993). The response format for the scale is a 7 point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Eighteen items measure the three components of commitment (affective, continuance, and normative). The six items for each component will be summed and divided by six to arrive at a mean for each commitment component for use in statistical analysis. The items appear in Appendix A, the second section.

On an empirical basis, the three dimensional view of commitment has obtained consistent support in recent years (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Dunham et al., 1994; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Meyer, et al., 1993; Randall, Fedor & Longenecker, 1990). Permission in writing will be sought to use the Organizational Commitment instrument from John P. Meyer of the University of Western Ontario. He has consistently given permission for research purposes.

The response format utilized a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), and is used for all items in this questionnaire. Some items to assess HRM practices come from Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) which has adequate reliability levels and sufficient evidence of validity in terms of measuring transformational leadership practices. The reliability and validity of the LPI instrument involved 2,876 managers and their subordinates. Written permission to use the instrument will be obtained from Dr. Barry Posner. Items measuring HRM practices are also adapted from questionnaires used by Kramer (1994) and Sturges et al. (2002). These items are identified in Appendix A alongside the items within the scales. Permission will also be sought to use these questionnaires.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The study addresses the following overarching research question: Is there a relationship between the Human Resource Management Practices and the levels of commitment displayed by the employees of the Banking Sector in Kingston, Jamaica?

The management practices examined in this research are: orientation of employees, departmental guidelines and career development in the banking sector and their relationships to the level of commitment reported by employees.

The results can be critical for developing strategies for increasing commitment and thereby achieving optimal productivity at the workplace. Management orientation of recruits is about how well new employees are assisted in getting to know their jobs by way of norms and culture of the organization so they will perform satisfactorily.

In relation to departmental guidelines, the availability of clear policies and expected behaviors, as well as career development deal with the extent to which employees are trained effectively in order to accomplish the goals of the organization and are provided opportunities to advance within the firm and contribute to its overall objectives and success.

Orientation/Socialization of New Recruits

Selected items from Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practice Inventory assess the orientation of new employees (7, 9, 19, 3, 12, 17, and 27), "Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like". "Spends time and energy making certain that the people he or she works with adhere to the principles and standards that have been agreed on". "Are clear about his or her philosophy of leadership." "Develop cooperative relationships among the people they work with". "Appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future". "Show others how their long term interests can be realized by enlisting a common vision". "Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work". Four items from Kramer (1994) also comprise this measure: "I have been taught things I need to know to get on in the organization". "My supervisor provides resources or assistance I need to complete my job". "My supervisor provides information useful in completing my job". "My supervisor shares feeling and reactions to work events with me".

The following null and alternative hypotheses explore this aspect of the research question.

H₁₀: There is negative relationship or no relationship between Human Resource Management orientation/socialization of employees and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

H_{1a}: There is a positive relationship between the orientation of new employees and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

Departmental Guidelines.

Items developed by Kouzes and Posner come from their LPI (2, 4, 23, 24 and 21): "Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done". "Sets a personal example of what he or she expects from others". "Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work". "Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on". "Experiments and take risks even when there is a chance of failure". Three other items also comprise this scale from Kramer (1994): "Without my asking, my supervisor tells me how well I am performing my job". "My supervisor gives me feedback on how well we are working together without me having to ask". "My supervisor lets me know if I am working up to his/her expectations".

The following null and alternative hypotheses explore the relationship between clear departmental guidelines and organizational commitment.

H₁₀: There is a negative relationship or no relationship between Human Resource Management departmental guidelines and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

H_{1a}: There is a positive relationship between the Human Resource Management practice of providing clear departmental guidelines and employees' level of commitment at the workplace

Career Development

Items come from Sturges et al. (2002) which measure career management. The four items are "Company training gives me a thorough knowledge of my job skills". "I have been given a personal development plan". "I have been introduced to people who might help with my career development in this company". "I have been given impartial career advice". Items taken from Kouzes and Posner's LPI (6, 11, 28, 29, 22, 30, 18) are "Praises people for a job well done". "Challenge people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work". "Search outside the formal boundaries of his or her organization for innovative ways to improve what we do". "Ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves". "Encourage employees to progress towards goals one step at a time". "Behaves enthusiastic and positive about future possibilities". "Give members of team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions". "Support the decisions that people make on their own". The corresponding hypotheses:

H₁₀: There is a negative relationship or no relationship between the Human Resource Management practice of career development of employees and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

H_{1a}: There is a positive relationship between the Human Resource Management practice of career development of employees and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

Dunn (2000) in a study titled: *The Impact of Leadership on Employees' Commitment to the Organization, an International Perspective*, reported consistently positive relationships (at the .01 level) between all five leadership practices (LPI) and both affective and normative commitment in the United States of America and Israel. The significance of this study is seen in three ways: The first section supported the relationship between leader behavior and employees' commitment to the organization. Secondly, it linked Meyer and Allen's three component scales of Organizational Commitment to Kouzes and Posner's LPI for the first time. Thirdly, it contributed to the growing body of literature on leadership practices and organizational commitment outside of the United States of America. Foosiri's (2000) empirical study of Organizational Commitment and its antecedents among Thai employees within members of the American Chamber of Commerce in Thailand supported Meyer and Allen's (1984) argument that employees with less education are likely to have fewer job alternatives, and therefore, are more likely to be committed.

Chang and Chen (2002) comprehensively evaluated the links between human resource management (HRM) practices and firm performance among Taiwan's high tech firms. They found that HRM practices such as training and development, teamwork, benefits, human resource planning and performance appraisal have significant effects on employee productivity. Regarding organizational-related demographic characteristics, employees with higher salaries were more committed than employees with lower salaries. Similarly, the larger the organization, the more committed the employee was to the organization.

Psychometric Properties of the Scales

Hackett, et al. (1994) examined the construct validity of Meyer and Allen's (1990) organizational commitment scale. They reported a fairly stable underlying structure to the scale. The preponderance of evidence supports the three component model of commitment. Vandenberghe (1996) also reviewed the psychometric properties of Allen and Meyer's three dimensional conceptualization of organizational commitment in Belgium. Factor analysis of data from a sample of 277 nurses and nursing aides supported the three dimension factorial structure of the scales. Thus, Meyer and Allen's commitment scales were validated in Europe. The studies above support the reliability and construct validity of Meyer and Allen's (1990) scales. They initially reported reliabilities for the Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scales of: .85, .79, and .73, respectively, thus exceeding an acceptable standard for scale reliability. Concerning validity, the 24 items comprising the scales were subjected to a factor analysis (principal factor method). Three factors, accounting for 58.8, 25.8, and 15.4 percent of the total variance, respectively, were extracted and rotated to a varimax criterion. In all cases the items loaded highest on the factor representing the appropriate construct.

Data Collection

This study assesses the impact of orientation of employees, departmental guidelines and career guidelines on the level of commitment displayed by employees of the Banking Sector in Kingston, Jamaica.

The complete questionnaire, with the three parts described above, appears in Appendix B. The data collection for this study will involve employees from the banking sector in the Kingston area. The researcher will collect data utilizing the research instrument described earlier, and administered in face to face meetings and mailed questionnaires.

Data Analysis and Statistical Procedure

First, factor analysis will assess the construct validity of the scales measuring HR practices. Items will be dropped from the scales if they do not measure the underlying dimensions of the scales (orientation, departmental guidelines and career development).

The reliability of the instrument will be estimated with Cronbach's alpha. Normality tests will be utilized where it is necessary. Descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) will be presented for all study variables. Correlation analysis will be utilized to assess the strength and magnitude of relationships that exist between demographic factors and all study variables. Three multiple regression analyses will estimate the magnitude and direction of relationships of HRM practices as independent variables and the three aspects of organizational commitment as the dependent variables. The demographic variables will be entered at the first step in order to hold constant any variation due to their effects. The results will be used to test the hypotheses. Microsoft Excel and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) will be used as the spreadsheet software to aid in analysis and data presentation.

Limitations

The Banking sector in Kingston, Jamaica is very careful regarding free access to personal and employee information so there may be some lack of cooperation in the administration of the survey instruments. Another obstacle that may occur is the timeframe for the return of the instruments.

Summary

Chapter III described the design and methodology of the study. The first section began by describing the constructs and measures, research questions and hypotheses. A conceptual model displayed, proposed relationships among the variables been studied. The second section described the variables, their measurement, data collection and analysis procedures. Chapter IV presents the results, data analysis, and applies results to tested hypotheses.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

This study seeks to establish whether there are positive relationships between a number of human resource management practices and employee organizational commitment. Data were collected from three banking institutions in Kingston, Jamaica. This chapter presents the demographic data of the respondents and then data analysis results are presented in this order: descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations), reliability estimates, and correlations. The results of the analyses are then applied to the hypotheses.

There are two major analyses; the first analysis examined the construct validity and the reliability of the items measuring human resource management practice factors: (orientation of recruits, departmental guidelines and career development) as stated in the literature (Kouzes & Posner 1994, Kramer 1994) and commitment scales: affective, continuance and normative (Allen, Meyer & Smith 1993). The second analysis involves summary statistics for the Commitment and Human Resources Management practices and Pearson Product Moment correlation to determine the level of association between the variables. Statistical analysis of the data collected was performed by using the statistical software package SPSS (version 11.0) for windows.

The Survey

The survey instruments were distributed to employees of the three major banks in Kingston, Jamaica. A total of 500 questionnaires were given to employees of the Bank of Nova Scotia (BNS), Royal Bank of Trinidad and Tobago (RBTT) and the National Commercial Bank (NCB).

A total of 265 (53%) questionnaires were returned. A review of the returned questionnaires indicated that five (1.9%) questionnaires were not usable because of incomplete responses. A total of 260 completed questionnaires were returned resulting in a usable response rate of 52%.

Results of Demographic Statistics

The demographic section of the survey asked respondents to provide their length of service with the company, academic qualifications, age, gender employment status and job function. Table 2 provides the gender statistics in the sample. There are more females 172 (66.2%) than males 88 (33.8%) in the study.

Table 2 Gender of Respondents

<u>Respondents' Gender</u>		
	N	%
Female	172	66.2
Male	88	33.8
Total	260	100

Table 3 shows the age distribution of the respondents. The age category revealed that there are 120 (46.3%) respondents in the 18-30 year age group. This also applies to 31 – 40 years compared to 15 (5.8%) respondents in the 41- 50 year age group and 4 (1.5%) respondents for the 51 – 59 years age group. One respondent did not state age. Ninety two percent (92.7%) of the respondents are under 40 years of age.

Table 3 Respondents' Age Distribution

	N	%
18 – 30	120	46.3
31 - 40	120	46.3
41 - 50	15	5.8
51 – 59	4	1.5
Total	259	100

Table 4 shows that more than half of the sample 158 (61%) has served within 1-5 years. Others range from 6-10 years 46 (17.8%), under 1 year 35 (13.5%) and over 10 years 20 (7.7%).

Table 4 Respondents' Years of Service with the Company

	N	%
Less than 1 year	35	13.5
1 - 5 years	158	61.0
6 – 10 years	46	17.8
Over 10 years	20	7.7
Total	259	100

Table 5 indicates that there were similar responses relating to the length of time in current position of the respondents: under 1 year 64 (25.1%), 1-5 years 161 (63.1%), 6-10 years 26 (10.2%), and over 10 years 4 (1.6%) respectively.

Table 5 Respondents' Length of Time in Current Position with the Company

	N	%
Less than 1 year	64	25.1
1 - 5 years	161	63.1
6 - 10 years	26	10.2
<u>Over 10 years</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1.6</u>
Total	255	100

Table 6 reveals that the employment status of the majority of the respondents was full-time staff 212 (81%), part-time 41 (16%), and other 7 (3%).

Table 6 Employment Status

	N	%
Full-time	212	81
Part-time	41	16
<u>Other</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	260	100

Table 7 reveals that there are more clerks 163 (63%) in the sample than any other job title. The number of supervisors account for 67 (26%); managers account for 27 (10%), and other account for 3 (1%).

Table 7 Positions within Company

	N	%
Managers	27	10
Supervisors	67	26
Clerks	163	63
Other	3	1
Total	260	100

Factor Analysis of the HRM and Commitment Scales

HRM Practices

The HRM practices items were examined for construct validity using SPSS and the principal component method. Table 8 shows the final items with high factor loadings after those items with lower loading factor were deleted. The rotated component matrix resulted in three components. Component 1 (Career Development) Q30 (.628), Q32 (.637), Q33 (.654), Q34 (.736), Q35 (.700), Q36 (.735), Q37 (.819) and Q38 (.806), Component 2: (Orientation of new Recruits) Q17 (.693), Q18 (.794), Q19 (.746) and Q20 (.823), and Component 3: (Departmental Guidelines) Q25 (.702), Q26 (.657), Q27 (.732), Q28 (.546) and Q29 (.760).

Table 8 Rotated Component Matrix (a)

Statements	Component		
	1	2	3
Q17:Spends time and energy on making certain that the people he or she works with adhere to the principles and standards that have been agreed on	.345	.693	.041
Q18:I have been taught things I need to know to get on in the organization	.161	.794	.094
Q19: My supervisors provide resources or assistance I need to complete my job	.139	.746	.305
Q20: My supervisor provides information useful in completing my job	.181	.823	.194
Q25: Support the decisions that people make on their own	.351	.268	.702
Q26: Is clear about his or her philosophy of leadership	.190	.377	.657
Q27: Experiment and take risks even when there is a clear chance of failure	.302	.060	.732
Q28: Behave enthusiastically and positively about future possibilities	.506	.217	.546
Q29: Give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding on how to do their work	.198	.073	.760
Q30: Have provided training to develop my career	.628	.307	.283
Q32: Provided training to give me a thorough knowledge of my job skills	.637	.380	.278
Q33: Review a personal development plan with me	.654	.296	.170
Q34: Introduced me to people who might help with my career development in this company	.736	.081	.304
Q35: Give impartial career advice	.700	.158	.249
Q36: Speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work	.735	.286	.209
Q37: Ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves	.819	.141	.169
Q38: Encourage me to progress towards goals one step at a time	.806	.082	.239

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 9 shows the levels of association among the HRM variables loaded for factor analysis. Items with moderate to high correlation were given priority in the factor analysis loading.

Table 9 Correlation Matrix

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

CORRELATION MATRIX									
	Q17	Q18	Q19	Q20	Q25	Q26	Q27	Q28	Q29
Q17	1	0.492	0.505	0.531	0.304	0.379	0.232	0.366	0.189
Q18	0.492	1	0.530	0.606	0.347	0.370	0.215	0.267	0.184
Q19	0.505	0.530	1	0.650	0.447	0.414	0.266	0.413	0.337
Q20	0.531	0.606	0.650	1	0.427	0.427	0.245	0.377	0.251
Q25	0.304	0.347	0.447	0.427	1	0.565	0.504	0.572	0.566
Q26	0.379	0.370	0.414	0.427	0.565	1	0.497	0.480	0.413
Q27	0.232	0.215	0.266	0.245	0.504	0.497	1	0.547	0.478
Q28	0.366	0.267	0.413	0.377	0.572	0.480	0.547	1	0.423
Q29	0.189	0.184	0.337	0.251	0.566	0.413	0.478	0.423	1
Q30	0.407	0.339	0.376	0.391	0.466	0.397	0.423	0.527	0.352
Q32	0.456	0.403	0.380	0.484	0.487	0.412	0.451	0.549	0.368
Q33	0.351	0.368	0.320	0.412	0.431	0.351	0.409	0.437	0.247
Q34	0.344	0.218	0.282	0.268	0.517	0.403	0.430	0.485	0.353
Q35	0.334	0.269	0.295	0.293	0.474	0.479	0.344	0.471	0.299
Q36	0.490	0.340	0.404	0.393	0.493	0.421	0.334	0.539	0.373
Q37	0.368	0.296	0.298	0.330	0.443	0.260	0.362	0.549	0.397

	Q17	Q30	Q32	Q33	Q34	Q35	Q36	Q37	Q38
Q17		0.407	0.456	0.351	0.344	0.334	0.490	0.368	0.323
Q18		0.339	0.403	0.368	0.218	0.269	0.340	0.296	0.249
Q19		0.376	0.380	0.320	0.282	0.295	0.404	0.298	0.322
Q20		0.391	0.484	0.412	0.268	0.293	0.393	0.330	0.278
Q25		0.466	0.487	0.431	0.517	0.474	0.493	0.443	0.471
Q26		0.397	0.412	0.351	0.403	0.479	0.421	0.260	0.326
Q27		0.423	0.451	0.409	0.430	0.344	0.334	0.362	0.427
Q28		0.527	0.549	0.437	0.485	0.471	0.539	0.549	0.532
Q29		0.352	0.368	0.247	0.353	0.299	0.373	0.397	0.363
Q30		1	0.727	0.557	0.518	0.489	0.497	0.511	0.526
Q32		0.727	1	0.586	0.513	0.489	0.537	0.586	0.520
Q33		0.557	0.586	1	0.564	0.530	0.459	0.511	0.494
Q34		0.518	0.513	0.564	1	0.541	0.594	0.595	0.623
Q35		0.489	0.489	0.530	0.541	1	0.609	0.552	0.593
Q36		0.497	0.537	0.459	0.594	0.609	1	0.680	0.666
Q37		0.511	0.586	0.511	0.595	0.552	0.680	1	0.718

Table 10 shows the four items used to measure the orientation of new recruits, five departmental guidelines and eight career development components of HRM practices. The items were mixed for survey administration. Statements 17, 18, 19 and 20 describe orientation of new recruits and the mean for each are 4.90, 4.98, 4.99 and 5.07 and standard deviations are: 1.39, 1.27, 1.27 and 1.30.

Statements 25, 26, 27, 28 and 30 describe departmental guidelines and the mean for each are: 4.44, 4.55, 4.32, 4.65 and 4.70 and standard deviations are: 1.30, 1.39, 1.43, 1.40 and 2.78.

Statements 30, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, and 38 describe career development and the mean for each are: 4.76, 4.57, 4.22, 4.45, 4.45, 4.72, 4.85, 4.86 and standard deviations are: 1.36, 1.52, 1.49, 1.47, 1.47, 1.46, 1.57 and 1.39.

Table 10 Summary Statistics for the loaded HRM Items

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
New Orientation Scales			
NO1-Q17	4.99	1.39	260
NO2-Q18	4.98	1.27	260
NO3-Q19	4.99	1.27	259
NO4-Q20	5.07	1.30	258
Departmental Guidelines Scales			
DG1-Q25	4.44	1.30	259
DG5-Q26	4.55	1.39	258
DG6-Q27	4.32	1.43	259
DG7-Q28	4.65	1.40	258
DG8-Q30	4.70	2.78	258
Career Development Scale			
CD1-Q30	4.76	1.36	245
CD2-Q32	4.57	1.52	256
CD3-Q33	4.22	1.49	257
CD4-Q34	4.45	1.47	256
CD5-Q35	4.45	1.47	256
CD6-Q36	4.72	1.46	258
CD7-Q37	4.85	1.57	258
CD8-Q38	4.86	1.39	245

Table 11 displays the summary statistics of the 3 HRM practices scales. The mean, median, mode, range, variance and standard deviations are provided for informational purposes. The results of the findings show that the mean scores for Orientation of New Recruits to be 5.009 and was higher than that of Departmental Guidelines 4.489 and Career Development 4.615. Orientation of New Recruits has the lowest standard deviation (1.064) followed by Departmental Guidelines 1.07.

Table 11 Summary Statistics of the Human Resources Management Scales

		SUMMARY STATISTICS		
		ORIENTATION	DEPARTMENTAL	CAREER
N	Valid	260	259	258
	Missing	0	1	2
Mean		5.009	4.489	4.615
Std. Error of Mean		0.066	0.066	0.071
Median		5	4.6	4.75
Mode		5	4	4.625
Std. Deviation		1.064	1.070	1.147
Variance		1.131	1.145	1.316
Range		6	5.8	5.875

The normality of the scales was based on the sample size (N >250)

Commitment Scales

The three components shown in Table 12 indicated the commitment scales identified when the items were loaded in the factor box of the SPSS. The factors are: Factor 1 Q40, (.721), Q43 (.771), Q44 (.651), Q54 (.770), Q57 (.704), Q48 (.719) Q45 (.743); Factor 2 Q42, (.737), Q46 (.734), Q49 (.747), Q55 (.805) and Factor 3 Q50 (.663), and Q53 (.836). These 3 factors are classified as: affective (Factor 1); continuance (Factor 2) and normative (Factor 3).

Table 12 Rotated Component Matrix (a)

Statements	Component		
	1	2	3
Q40: I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization	.721	-.097	.054
Q42: I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer	.033	.737	.025
Q43: I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	.771	.107	-.172
Q44: Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now	.651	.104	.211
Q46: I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization	.120	.734	.148
Q49: I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization	.091	.747	.108
Q50: I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	.352	.299	.663
Q51: This organization deserves my loyalty	.666	-.098	.324
Q52: This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	.660	-.108	.373
Q53: One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	.043	.178	.836
Q54: I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	.770	.100	.147
Q55: I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization	-.050	.805	.097
Q57: I owe a great deal to my organization	.704	.006	.084
Q48: I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	.719	.279	-.016
Q45: Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right for me to leave my organization now	.743	.163	.105

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Items with high factor loading identified in Table 12 were summed and averaged to form a single commitment variable. The descriptive summary for the single commitment variable is shown in Table 13, mean 4.326 and standard deviation 0.920.

Table 13 Commitment Variable Average

Statistics		
COMMITMENT VARIABLE		
N	Valid	260
	Missing	0
Mean		4.326
Std. Error of Mean		0.057
Median		4.333
Mode		4
Std. Deviation		0.920
Variance		0.846
Range		4.667

Table 14 indicates the level of association of the commitment variables. The correlation matrix assisted with the factor analysis loading selection. Variables with moderate to high levels of association were prioritized in the factor loadings.

Table 14 Correlation Matrix

	Q40	Q42	Q43	Q44	Q46	Q49	Q50
Q40	1	0.040	0.527	0.388	0.032	0.008	0.233
Q42	0.040	1	0.085	0.067	0.473	0.423	0.213
Q43	0.527	0.085	1	0.469	0.165	0.109	0.199
Q44	0.388	0.067	0.469	1	0.195	0.168	0.431
Q46	0.032	0.473	0.165	0.195	1	0.418	0.286
Q49	-0.008	0.423	0.109	0.168	0.418	1	0.312
Q50	0.233	0.213	0.199	0.431	0.286	0.312	1
Q51	0.451	0.031	0.415	0.362	0.102	0.041	0.330
Q52	0.441	0.019	0.404	0.364	0.088	0.052	0.392
Q53	0.135	0.165	0.027	0.198	0.262	0.199	0.424
Q54	0.506	0.062	0.528	0.457	0.167	0.148	0.376
Q55	-0.089	0.461	0.018	-0.007	0.480	0.525	0.280
Q57	0.483	0.051	0.405	0.400	0.052	0.130	0.257
Q48	0.400	0.143	0.462	0.419	0.272	0.234	0.339
Q45	0.431	0.105	0.543	0.603	0.183	0.159	0.416

	Q51	Q52	Q53	Q54	Q55	Q57	Q48	Q45
Q40	0.451	0.441	0.135	0.506	-0.089	0.483	0.400	0.431
Q42	0.031	0.019	0.165	0.062	0.461	0.051	0.143	0.105
Q43	0.415	0.404	0.027	0.528	0.018	0.405	0.462	0.543
Q44	0.362	0.364	0.198	0.457	-0.007	0.400	0.419	0.603
Q46	0.102	0.088	0.262	0.167	0.480	0.052	0.272	0.183
Q49	0.041	0.052	0.199	0.148	0.525	0.130	0.234	0.159
Q50	0.330	0.392	0.424	0.376	0.280	0.257	0.339	0.416
Q51	1	0.618	0.195	0.530	-0.040	0.480	0.412	0.386
Q52	0.618	1	0.204	0.471	-0.057	0.483	0.436	0.433
Q53	0.195	0.204	1	0.196	0.202	0.110	0.098	0.171
Q54	0.530	0.471	0.196	1	0.098	0.527	0.562	0.544
Q55	0.040	0.057	0.202	0.098	1	0.032	0.178	0.082
Q57	0.480	0.483	0.110	0.527	0.032	1	0.453	0.415
Q48	0.412	0.436	0.098	0.562	0.178	0.453	1	0.573
Q45	0.386	0.433	0.171	0.544	0.082	0.415	0.573	1

Pearson correlation for hypothesis testing

Table 15 shows product moment correlation between orientation of new recruits, departmental guidelines, career development and commitment variable.

Table 15 Correlation

VARIABLES		ORIENTATION	DEPARTMENT	CAREER	COMMITMENT
ORIENTATION	Pearson Correlation	1	.505(**)	.536(**)	.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.050
	N	260	259	258	260
DEPARTMENT	Pearson Correlation	.505(**)	1	.685(**)	.277(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000
	N	259	259	258	259
CAREER	Pearson Correlation	.536(**)	.685(**)	1	.414(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	258	258	258	258
COMMITMENT	Pearson Correlation	.122	.277(**)	.414(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.050	.000	.000	.
	N	260	259	258	260

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

Research Hypotheses

This study examines the following hypotheses regarding the relations between the three high involvement HRM practices and organizational commitment:

H₁₀: Shows that there is a negative or no relationship between Human Resource Management orientation of recruits and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

H_{1a}: Shows that there is a positive relationship between Human Resource Management orientation of recruits and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

Table 15 shows that there is a positive relationship between Human Resource Management orientation of recruits and employees' level of commitment at the workplace. ($r = 0.122$, $p = 0.05$)

H_{1o}: Shows that there is a negative or no relationship between Human Resource Management departmental guidelines and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

H_{1a}: Shows that there is a positive relationship between Human Resource Management departmental guidelines and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

Table 15 shows that there is a positive relationship between Human Resource Management departmental guidelines and employees' level of commitment at the workplace ($r = 0.227$, $p = 0.00$)

H_{1o}: Shows that there is a negative or no relationship between Human Resource Management department's use of career development of recruits and employees' level of commitment at the workplace.

H_{1a}: Shows that there is a positive relationship between Human Resource Management department's use of career development of recruits and employees' level of commitment at the workplace

Table 15 shows that there is a positive relationship between Human Resource Management department's use of career development of recruits and employees' level of commitment at the workplace ($r = 0.414$, $p = 0.00$)

Summary

The research findings and data analysis presented in this section indicate that there are positive relationships between HRM practices (orientation of recruits, departmental guidelines and career development) and employee commitment (affective, normative and continuance).

The following chapter discusses the implications of the research findings in terms of new information, limitations experienced, conclusion and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section summarizes the findings and describes the implications of the research. The second section discusses the contributions and limitations of the study; and the third section provides recommendations for future research. The fourth section presents the conclusion.

The study focused on the impact of human resource management practices (orientation of recruits, career development and departmental guidelines) on employee commitment in the banking sector in Kingston, Jamaica. Organizational commitment is regarded as important because of its effect on employee identification with the organization, the level of effort, and turnover (Stroh & Reilly 1997).

Meyer and Allen (1991) noted that there are three components of organizational commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment refers to the employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to the need to continue working for the organization based on an awareness of the costs associated with leaving or limited employment opportunities.

Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue working for the organization based on society's norms about the extent to which one ought to be committed to the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that an employee's relationship with an organization could be better understood by analyzing all three components simultaneously.

They believed that the conceptual distinction between affective, normative and continuance commitment points to different causes as well as different attitudinal and behavioral consequences of the three components.

The research findings of Ogilvie (1986) and Gaertner and Nollen (1989) are used as a basis for the theoretical framework for this study. These researchers found that perceptions of the organization's adherence to career-oriented employment practices, including internal promotion, training and development and employment security are related to commitment among employees in different business sectors. This study anticipated that learning more about organizational commitment in the context of the Jamaican workplace environment would provide employers and employees with a better understanding of how to successfully operate in organizations.

Summary and Implications of the Research Findings

The results of the study showed the relationship between the HRM practices (orientation of recruits, departmental guidelines and career development) and the employee commitment components (affective, normative and continuance). The study revealed that there is a positive relationship between HRM orientation of recruits and employees' level of commitment.

Organizational socialization (orientation) is the process by which employees learn the values, norms, and required behaviors which permit them to participate as members of an organization (Van Maanen Schein, 1979). The banking sector in Kingston, Jamaica should realize that the first few months after entering an organization represent the critical period during which an employee will or will not learn how to become a high performer and will also determine how committed the employees will be.

It is important that employees are oriented effectively as this will impact on affective commitment, which relates to feelings of belonging and sense of attachment to the organization. According to Wanous (1992) turnover rates for first-year employees are quite high. Entering new jobs and organizations, new hires typically experience some degree of surprise and uncertainty as they face unfamiliar environments. Louis (1980) explained that the uncertainty that newcomers feel can lead to anxiety and stress. Several studies have also demonstrated the importance of programs which contribute to a better adjustment, higher job performance, and lower turnover intentions and stress.

It is argued that individuals whose organizational commitment is based on their investment in the organization are more vulnerable to the effects of work-related stressors than if they were not well oriented into an organization. Employees with high levels of continuance commitment perceive less control over their environment and are less likely to remove themselves from stressful work situations. They feel the need to remain despite the negative effects of the organizational stressors than do employees with low levels of continuance commitment (Coleman, Irving & Cooper, 1999). There is some evidence that continuance commitment is more likely to develop in individuals who value comfort and job security (Meyer, Irving, & Allen, 1998). Thus, we might expect stronger negative reactions from these individuals to organizational stressors, especially those stressors, such as role ambiguity, associated with a propensity to leave the organization (Rahim & Psenicka, 1998). This is due to the fact that individuals come to organizations with certain needs, desires and skills and expect to find a work environment where they can utilize their abilities and satisfy many of their basic needs. When organizations provide such an opportunity, the likelihood of increasing commitment is enhanced.

Economic circumstances are important in the understanding of why people are less committed to an organization in spite of the fact that they have fewer chances in the labor market. Meyer and Allen (1991) concluded that how commitment increases and why it should affect behavior is uncertain but that it is likely that effective commitment reflects equity and expectancy considerations in a general psychological orientation. They also stated that the development of normative commitment is theoretical rather than empirical.

Normative commitment is concerned with the obligation employees feel to remain with an organization and builds upon what Wiener (1982) described as generalized cultural expectations that an individual should not change their job too often or they may be labeled untrustworthy and erratic. The feeling of obligation to remain with an organization may result from the internalization of normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to entry into the organization (that is, familial or cultural socialization) or following entry (that is organizational orientation).

Normative commitment may also develop, however, when an organization provides the employee with rewards in advance or incurs significant costs in providing employment. Recognition of these investments on the part of the organization may create an imbalance in the employee/organization relationship and cause employees to feel an obligation to reciprocate by committing themselves to the organization until the debt has been repaid, (Scholl, 1981). The mutual obligations of employer and employee play a subtle but powerful role in employment relationships and employers in the banking and other sectors should be mindful of this.

According to Gbadamosi (2003) commitment denotes an action that is not only personal to the committed worker but is also completely voluntary and rational. Management cannot force commitment unto their employees, neither can they hire consultants to initiate it. The employee can also withdraw their commitment if it is considered as no longer serving a mutual purpose for both the employee and management.

The committed employee often expects something in return for this, therefore, employers or HRM practitioners should find tangible means of rewarding committed employees. Normative commitment may last only until the 'debt' is perceived to be paid and thus is subject to rationalization if other circumstances change (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

On entering an organization, the orientation period will impact on the employees' desire to remain. This relates to perceived costs of leaving, both financial and non-financial (Becker, 1960) and perceived lack of alternatives (Ritzer & Trice, 1969; Hrebriniak & Alutto, 1972). In the past organizations have developed arrangements such as promotion based on tenure, accrued pensions and sick leave, which penalize those who leave the organization prematurely. Perceptions of few alternatives may have a negative impact on the commitment of those who are dissatisfied with their present work situation or it may have a positive effect for those who are satisfied. Hartman & Bambacas (2000) stated that neither costs nor alternatives alone determine high or low commitment but it based on the needs of the employee.

The research findings of this study also show that there is a positive relationship between departmental guidelines and employee commitment.

Departmental guidelines are seen as minimizing mistakes, synchronizing efforts, and decreasing workers' reluctance to act on their own initiative. Research done by Andolsek and Stebe (2001) confirmed that job satisfaction and quality of work have universal impact. They are significantly and strongly connected to affective commitment in most places. Employees will be prepared to develop a feeling of attachment when expectations regarding departmental guidelines are clear. However, an individual will not become committed to an organization if it does not meet their material expectations. It has also been found that employees in the banking sector with higher job insecurity are less committed (affective commitment) and they do not appreciate their present job anymore because of the job loss threat. It must be noted that culture (collectivist or individualistic) will impact upon how people are oriented in their evaluation of quality of work and what is important for them in developing feelings of adherence to their organizational/departmental guidelines.

It was further revealed in the study that normative commitment has been found to correlate positively with related constructs such as organizational dependability and management receptiveness (Allen & Meyer, 1990b). It is possible that employees will feel a greater sense of obligation to remain if they view the organization as supportive in assisting in their development. Management should commit to actualizing and providing job challenges that will enrich and empower employees. As a result of this, normative commitment might be one manifestation of employees' response to organizations that are perceived to provide support as part of the psychological contract with employees (Rousseau, 1995).

This study along with Eisenberger, et al. (1986) and Shore & Wayne (1993) confirmed the findings that HRM practices (departmental guidelines) might serve as one means by which organizations can demonstrate their support for, or commitment to their employees and, in turn, foster a reciprocal attachment by employees.

The study also revealed that there is a positive relationship between HRM career development of recruits and employees' level of commitment at the workplace. Commitment is important to consider because it can have a direct impact on a company's profitability. That is, having a committed workforce means that workers are more likely to remain with their organization and thus become more productive over time. This is important for organizations to consider because it is very costly when companies spend a great deal of time and money training personnel who subsequently leave the organization. When organizations are not dependable, or when they fail to provide employees with challenging and meaningful tasks, commitment levels tend to diminish.

Research conducted by Meyer and Smith (2000) confirmed that career development practices were found to be the best predictors of affective and normative commitment. This is perhaps not surprising given that these practices are involved in preparing employees for a future in the organization. The present study also showed that organizations which take active roles in helping employees to prepare for advancement in the organization, and do so in a manner that creates a perception of support, might foster a stronger bond to the organization among employees than those that do not.

Gaertner and Nollen (1989) came to a similar conclusion based on their findings that perceptions of the organization's adherence to career-oriented employment practices, including internal promotion, training and development and employment security, were related to commitment among employees in a Fortune 100 manufacturing firm.

Research by Taormina and Bauer (2000) stated that employee attitudes about the training for career development they receive from their companies will impact on their commitment. Their findings also revealed that future prospects were the only predictor for normative commitment. These findings suggest that feelings of obligation to the organization are similarly determined by opportunities for advancement and a general acceptance of the corporate culture. This lends support to the idea that some type of reciprocity, that is, loyalty in exchange for reward opportunities, should exist in the banking sector and in other organizations.

There is also a positive relationship between career development and continuance commitment. In this case employees are influenced by concern over the possible loss of opportunities. In Hong Kong, for example employees value training as a resource for self-advancement, a resource that could be perceived as a loss (a cost) of leaving the organization.

Therefore, activities such as career workshops enhance employees' opportunities for promotion from within, appeal to their desire to grow and to learn, provide opportunities for lateral moves, and give them a chance to move on when this is necessary. Studies suggest that by doing this employees feel a sense of being important and respected and this will contribute to their commitment to the organization.

Implications

The findings of this study confirm the importance of departmental guidelines, orientation of recruits and career development of employees. On the matter of departmental guidelines it is imperative that employers take the time and effort to provide employees with knowledge which will help them to operate effectively within the organization. Departmental guidelines minimize mistakes, synchronize efforts, and decrease employees' reluctance to act on their own initiative.

Orientation of new recruits, on the other hand, is vital because this will impact on how well employees master their jobs, define their role, learn about their organization's culture and mission, and ultimately become socially integrated. When an individual has a clear understanding of what the organization is like, this will lead to high commitment which can be fostered by matching initial expectations and help to set the stage for higher productivity and reduced turnover. Employees entering new jobs and organizations experience some degree of surprise and uncertainty as they face unfamiliar environments. This uncertainty can lead to anxiety and stress which can be alleviated by structured orientation programs. A clear understanding of career development by employees will result in a mutually beneficial relationship between the employee and organization.

Research findings suggested that employees benefited from career development through improved knowledge, skills, ability and also through improved self-confidence, self-efficacy and less need for supervision. If employees do not receive adequate career management assistance from their employer, there is likely to be a sense of frustration and dissatisfaction.

As a result, they may have little option but to decide to take the management of their career into their own hands and aim at finding a new job in another organization.

Contributions and Limitations of the Study

The study is subjected to limitations: Questionnaires were distributed to employees of the three major banks in Kingston, Jamaica, Bank of Nova Scotia (BNS), Royal Bank of Trinidad and Tobago (RBTT) and National Commercial Bank (NCB). The sample size used was 500. The researcher would have liked to include other banks but it was not convenient to do so due to time constraints expressed by banking personnel. The Banking sector in Kingston, Jamaica is very careful regarding free access to personal and employee information therefore, a number of banks were reluctant to cooperate in the administration of the survey instrument.

Therefore this sample may not be representative of all banks in Kingston, Jamaica, or in the wider country, hence the results may have limited generalizability. Future research may benefit from examining the impact of culture on employee commitment in the financial sector in Kingston, Jamaica.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The research findings corroborate with the review of literature which confirms that there is a relationship between HRM practices and employee commitment. The results of this study should be communicated throughout to the public and private sector organizations because of its potentially significant benefit to these entities. The banking sector in Jamaica should employ HRM strategies as a medium to prevent attrition of skilled employees from institutions locally.

The migration rate of skilled labor in Jamaica is phenomenal, therefore, every effort should be made to halt further brain drain by utilizing the findings of this study.

Human resource managers could use the findings from the research to generally improve the work performance of employees and reduce turnover in their organization. A satisfied and committed workforce leads to increased productivity due to fewer disruptions. When employees are committed, this enhances more stable attitudes toward their organization, and ultimately to greater acceptance of the goals of the organization, as well as greater willingness to exert more effort on behalf of the organization.

Recommendations for Future Research

Consequent to the review of related literature, the analysis of the study and discussion, the following recommendations are being made for future research:

1. Future research may benefit from examining the impact of culture on employee commitment in the financial sector of Kingston, Jamaica.
2. A similar study on commitment should be conducted in other types of organizations to ascertain whether or not the findings will be the same.
3. A study could be pursued to determine to what extent organizations are utilizing HRM strategies to ensure employee commitment.

APPENDIX A

SCALE ITEMS IN SURVEY

HRM PRACTICE SCALES

Orientation of New Recruits

My manager, supervisor and others in the bank:

1. Describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.
2. Spend time and energy on making certain that people he or she works with adhere to the principles and standards that have been agreed on.
3. Are clear about their philosophy of leadership.
4. Taught me things I need to know to get on in the organization
5. Provide resources or assistance I need to complete my job.
6. Provide useful information in completing my job.
7. Share feeling and reactions about work events with me.
8. Develop cooperative relationships among the people they work with.
9. Appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.
10. Show others how their long –term interests can be realized by enlisting a common vision.
11. Speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.

Departmental Guidelines

1. Talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.
2. Set a personal example of what they expect from others.
3. Give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.
4. Make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.

5. Tell me how well I am performing my job.
6. Give feedback on how well we are working together without having to ask.
7. Let me know if I am working up to their expectations.
8. Experiment and take risks even when there is a chance of failure.

Career Development

1. Give me a thorough knowledge of my job skills.
2. Review a personal developmental plan with me.
3. Introduced me to people who might help with my career development in this company.
4. Give impartial career advice.
5. Praise people for a job well done.
6. Challenge people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work.
7. Search outside the formal boundaries of the organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.
8. Ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.
9. Encourage me to progress towards goals one step at a time.
10. Behave enthusiastically and positively about future possibilities.
11. Give members of teams lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.
12. Support the decisions that people make on their own.
13. Have provided training to develop my career.

Meyer et al.'s (1993) Organization Commitment Scale.

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.
2. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
3. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
4. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.
5. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
6. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
7. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
8. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
9. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.
10. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
11. This organization deserves my loyalty.
12. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
13. I owe a great deal to my organization.
14. I do not feel like "part of the family at my organization."
15. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
16. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.

17. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

18. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER TO EMPLOYEES AND SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

June 26, 2006.

Dear Sir/Madam,

The purpose of this letter is to request your cooperation in data collection for my Doctoral Research Project. I am a lecturer at the University of Technology, Jamaica and presently pursuing a Doctoral Programme in Business Administration at Nova Southeastern University, Fort Lauderdale, Florida.

My dissertation topic is: The Impact of Management Practices on the Level of Commitment displayed by Employees in the Banking Sector in Kingston, Jamaica. The concept of commitment has been identified as an important element in employee retention.

The enclosed survey is organized into three sections:

1. General Questions (Demographic Data)
2. Work Environment
3. In Regard to my Attitudes

I would appreciate that you answer the entire questionnaire as we will not be able to use incomplete surveys in the data analysis. Please respond to each question as you believe the situations exists and not as you think it should be. I am interested in the information from groups as a whole, not in the individual responses. This study will contribute to the advancement of knowledge on employee commitment.

All responses are confidential as you are not asked to write your name on the survey, or any identifying information. Participation in the survey is voluntary. If there are queries regarding this study, please contact me at 92-71680 or at 816-6565.

Thank you for participating.

Sincerely yours,

Lorna Palmer
Candidate for Doctorate in Business Administration
Nova Southeastern University

General Questions

Part I: Demographic Data

Please complete the following demographic information.

Responses to all questions on this survey are strictly confidential.

1. What is your gender? Male Female

2. What is your level of education? Lower than Bachelor Degree
 Bachelor Degree Masters Degree Doctoral Degree
 Other _____.

- What is your age?
 18-30 years 31-40 years 41-50 years 51-59 years
 60 years and over

4. Length of service with organization?
 0-1 year 1-5years 6-10 years Over 10 years

5. Length of time in current position.
 0-1 year 1-5years 6-10 years Over 10 years

6. Full-time employed Part-time employed Other _____

7. Please indicate your job title.
 Supervisor Manager Clerk
 Other _____

Part II: Work Environment

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling one of the seven alternatives beside each statement.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

My manager, supervisor and others in the bank:

8. Talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. Develop cooperative relationships among the people they work with. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. Set a personal example of what they expect from others. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. Praise people for a job well done. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. Challenge people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. Describe a compelling image of what our future could be like. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. Tell me how well I am performing my job. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. Give me feedback on how well we are
working together without having to ask. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. Let me know if I am working up to
their expectations. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. Spend time and energy on making certain that the people they
work with adhere to the principles and standards that
have been agreed on. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. Taught me things I need to know to get
on in the organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. Provide resources or assistance
I need to complete my job. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. Provides information useful
in completing my job 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21. Share feelings and reactions
about work events with me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22. Search outside the formal boundaries of the
organization for innovative ways to improve
what we do. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23. Appeal to others to share an exciting dream
of the future. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24. Show others how their long-term interests can be
realized by enlisting in a common vision. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25. Support the decisions that people make on their own. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

26. Are clear about their philosophy of leadership. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
27. Experiment and take risks even when there is a
chance of failure. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
28. Behave enthusiastically and positively about future
possibilities. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
29. Give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding
how to do their work. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
30. Have provided training to develop my career 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
31. Make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete
plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects
and programs that we work on. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
32. Provide training to give me a thorough knowledge
of my job skills. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
33. Review a personal development plan with me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
34. Introduced me to people who might help with my
career development in this company. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
35. Give impartial career advice. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
36. Speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning
and purpose of our work. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
37. Ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new
skills and developing themselves. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
38. Encourage me to progress towards goals one step at a time. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

39. Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and
support for their contributions.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Part III: In regard to my attitudes:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

40. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career

in this organization

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

41. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization

right now, even if I wanted to.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

42. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my

current employer.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

43. I really feel as if this organization's problems

are my own.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

44. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided

I wanted to leave my organization right now.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

45. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would

be right for me to leave my organization now.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

46. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

47. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter

of necessity as much as desire

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

48. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

49. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

50. I believe that I have too few options to consider
leaving this organization 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
51. This organization deserves my loyalty 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
52. This organization has a great deal of personal
meaning for me 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
53. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this
organization would be the scarcity of available
alternatives. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
54. I would not leave my organization right now because
I have a sense of obligation to the
people in it. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
55. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my
Organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
56. If I had not already put so much of myself into
this organization, I might consider working
elsewhere 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
57. I owe a great deal to my organization 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX C

SCALED ITEMS AFTER FACTOR ANALYSIS WAS DONE

HRM PRACTICE SCALES AFTER FACTOR ANALYSIS

Orientation of New Recruits

My Manager, supervisor and others in the bank:

1. Spend time and energy on making certain that people adhere to the principles and standards that have been agreed on.
2. Have taught things I need to know to get on in the organization.
3. Provide resources or assistance I need to complete my job.
4. Provide information useful in completing my job.

Departmental Guidelines

1. Support the decisions that people make on their own.
2. Is clear about the philosophy of leadership.
3. Experiments and take risks even when there is a chance of failure.
4. Give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.
5. Has provided training to develop my career.

Career Development

1. Make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.
2. Review a personal development plan with me.
3. Introduce me to people who might help with my career development in this company.
4. Give impartial career advice.
5. Speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.

6. Ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.
7. Encourage me to progress towards goals one step at a time.
8. Give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contribution.

In Regard to my Attitudes:

1. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.
4. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right for me to leave my organization now.
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
6. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
7. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
8. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
9. This organization deserves my loyalty.
10. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
11. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

12. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
13. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.
14. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
15. I owe a great deal to my organization.

REFERENCES CITED

- Adkins, C. L. (1995). Previous work experience and organizational Socialization: A longitudinal examination. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 839-862.
- Allen, N. J. & Meyer, J. P. (1990b). The measurement and antecedents of affective continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18.
- Anderson, J. (1988). Communication competency in the small group. *Small Group Communication*, 450-458.
- Andolsek, D. M., & Stebe, J. (2004). Multinational perspectives on work values and commitment. *International Journal of Cross cultural Management*, 4 (2), 181-210.
- Angle, H. L. & Perry, J. L. (1981). An empirical assessment of organizational commitment: Individual and organizational effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 26, 1-14.
- Argyris, C.P. (1964). *Understanding organizational behavior*. Belmont, CA: Dorsey.
- Arthur, J. B. (1994). Effects of human resource systems on manufacturing performance and turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37 (3), 670-687.
- Arthur, J. B. (1992). The link between business strategy and industrial relations systems in American steel minimills. *Industrial and Labour Relations Review*, 45, 488-506.
- Ashford, S. J. & Cummings, L. L. (1985). Proactive feedback seeking, the instrumental use of the information environment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 58, 67-79.
- Ashford, S. J., Lee, C., & Bobko, P. (1989). Content, causes, and consequences of job security: A theory-based measure and substantive test. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32, 803-829.
- Ashforth, B. E., & Saks, A. M. (1996). Socialization tactics: Longitudinal effects on newcomer adjustment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 149-178.
- Bae, J., & Lawler, J. J. (2000). Organizational performance and HRM in Korea: Impact on firm performance in emerging economy. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43, 502-517.

- Baldwin, T. T., & Ford J. K. (1988). Transfer of training; A review and directions for future research. *Personnel Psychology*, 41(1), 63-105.
- Baldwin, T. T., & Magjuka, R. J. (1991). Organizational training and signals of importance: Effects of pre-training perceptions on intentions to transfer. *Human Resource Development*, 21, 25-36.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A-cognitive view*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Barbalet, J.M. (1996). *Emotion, social theory, and social structure*. A macrosociological approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17, 99-120.
- Bashaw, E. R., & Grant, S. E. (1994). Exploring the distinctive nature of work commitments: Their relationships with personal characteristics, job performance, and propensity to leave. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 14, 41-56.
- Batt, R. (2002). Managing customer services; human resource practices, quit rates and sales growth. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45, 587-597.
- Bayliss, V. (1998). Psychological contracts: a working definition. *People Management*, 4 (9), 25-26.
- Becker, H. S. (1960). Notes on the concept of commitment. *American Journal of Sociology*, 66, 32-42.
- Becker, S. G. (1964). *Human capital*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Begley, T. M., & Czajka, J. M. (1993). Panel analysis of the moderating effects of commitment on job satisfaction, intent to quit, and health following organizational change. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 552-556.
- Black, J. S., Gregersen, H. B., & Mendelhall, M. E. (1992). *Global assignments*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Blau, G. (1988). An investigation of the apprenticeship organizational socialization strategy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 32, 176-195.
- Boselie, P., & Dietz, C. (2003). *Commonalities and contradictions in research on human resource management and performance*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Meetings in Seattle, August 2003.

- Bratton, J. & Gold, J. (1999). A path analysis of the model of antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment. *Human Relations*, 40(7), 445-470.
- Breaugh, J. A. (1983). Realistic job previews: A critical appraisal and future Research directions. *Academy of Management Review*, 8, 612-619.
- Buchanan, B. (1974). Building organizational commitment: The socialization of managers in work organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 19, 533-546.
- Burton, R. M., Lauridsen, J., & Obel, B. (2004). The Impact of organizational climate and strategic fit on firm performance. *Human Resource Management*, 43, 67-81.
- Caldwell, D.E., Chatman, J.A., & O'Reilly, C.A. (1990). Building organizational commitment : A multifirm study. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 245-261.
- Campion, M.A., & Mitchell, M.M. (1983). Management turnover, experiential differences between former and current managers. *Personnel Psychology*, 39, 57-69.
- Cascio, W. F. (1991). *Costing human resources: The financial impact of behavior in organizations*. (3^d ed.). Boston:PWS-Kent.
- Chang, P., & Chen, W. (2002). The Effect of human resource management practices on firm performance: Empirical evidence from high-tech firms in Taiwan. *International Journal of Management*, 19(4), 622-631.
- Chao, G.T., O'Leary-Kelly, A.M., Wolf, S., Klein, H.J., & Gardner, P. (1994). Organizational socialization: Its content and consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 730-743.
- Chatman, J.A. (1991). Matching people and organizations: Selection and socialization in public accounting firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 36, 459-484.
- Coleman, D. F., Irving, P. G., Cooper, C. L. (1999). Another look at the locus of control-commitment relationship: It depends on the form of commitment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20, 995-1001.
- Collins, James, H. *Organizational Socialization: a Review of the Literature*. Retrieved April 4, 2005.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). The empowerment process-Integrating theory and practice. *Academy of Management Review*, 13, 471-482.

- Crick, A. P. Bringing the Person back into Personalized Service: (1996).
The role of hrd practitioners. *International Journal of Human Resources, Development & Management*, 6, 12-20.
- The Daily Observer. (1998). *Finsac and public trust*.
- Decotiis, T., & Summers, T. (1987). A path analysis of a model of the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment. *Human Relations*, 40, 445-470.
- Delaney, J.T., & Huselid, M.A. (1996). The impact of human resource management on organizational performance: Progress and prospects. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 779-801.
- Dessler, G. (1997). Human resource management. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company.
- Dunham, R., Grube, J. & Castenada, M. (1994). Organizational commitment: The utility of an integrative definition. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 370-380.
- Dyer, L. & Reeves, T. (1995). Human resource strategies and firm performance: what do we know, where do we need to go? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 3(6), 656-70.
- Eby, L.T., Freeman, D.M., Rush, M.C., & Lance, C.E. (1999). *Motivational bases of affective organizational commitment model, 72: A partial test of an integrative theoretical*. Part 4, 463-484.
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchinson, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507.
- Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Davis-LaMastro, V. (1990). Perceived organizational support and employee diligence, commitment and innovation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 51-59.
- Farrell, D., & Stamm, C. L. (1988). Meta-analysis of the correlates of employee absence. *Human Relations*, 41, 211-227.
- Feldman, D.C., & Leana, C. R. (1989). Managing layoffs: Experiences at the Challenger disaster site and the Pittsburgh Steel Mills. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18, 52-54.
- Fisher, C.D. (1986). Organizational socialization: An integrative review. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 4, 101-145.

- Flamholtz, E., & Lacey, J. (1981). *Personnel management: Human capital theory and human resource accounting*. Los Angeles: University of California at Los Angeles, Institute of Industrial Relations.
- Foote, D. A., Seipel, S. J., Johnson, N. B., & Duffy, M. K. (2005). Employee commitment and organizational policies. *Management Decision*, 43(2), 203-220.
- Gbadamosi, G. (1995a). An evaluation of the relationship among communication, commitment and organizational effectiveness. *Journal of Business*, 1(1), 112-31
- Gbadamosi, G. (1995b). An assessment of some of the personal correlates of organizational involvement. *Journal of Management*, 14(1) 1-8.
- Gbadamosi, G. (2003). HRM and the commitment rhetoric: Challenges for Africa. *Management Decision*, 41, 274-281.
- Gaertner, K. N., & Nollen, S. D. (1989). Career experiences, perceptions of employment practices, and psychological commitment to the organization. *Human Relations*, 42, 975-991.
- Gallie, D., & White, M. (1993). *Employee Commitment and Skills Revolution*. London: PSI Publishing.
- Goulet, L.R., & Frank, M. L. (2002). Organizational commitment across three sectors; Public, non-profit, and for-profit. *Public Personnel Management*, 31, 201-210.
- Grant, R. M. (1991). The Resource-Based theory of competitive advantage: implications for strategy formulation. *California Management Review Spring*, 114-135.
- Grau, L. Chandler, B., Burton, B., & Kolditz, D. (1991). Institutional loyalty and job satisfaction about nurse aides in nursing homes. *Journal of Aging and Health*, 3, 47-65.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management*, 16, 399-432.
- Guest, D. E. (1994). Organizational psychology and human resource management towards a European approach. *European Work and Organizational Psychologist*, 4(3), 251-270.
- Guest, D. (1995). *Human resource management, trade union and industrial relations. Human resource management: A Critical Test*. Routledge, London.

- Guest, D. (1998). *Beyond HRM commitment and the contract culture. Human resource management: The new agenda*. Financial Times Publishing, London.
- Guest, D.E. (2001). Human resource management: when research confronts theory. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12, 1092-1106.
- Guzzo, R. & Noonan, K. (1994). Human resource practices as communications and the psychological contract. *Human Resource Management*, 33 (3), 447-462.
- Hackett, D., Bycio, P. & Hausdorf, P. (1994). Further assessments of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three –component model of organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 15-24.
- Hackman, J. R., & Holdman, G. R. (1975). The development of the job diagnostic survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 159-170.
- Hackman, J. R., & Holdman, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Tests of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16, 250-279.
- Hall, D. T., Schneider, B., & Nygren, H. T. (1970). Personal factors in organizational identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 15, 176-190.
- Hammer, M., & Champy, J. (1993). *Reengineering the corporation: A manifesto for business revolution*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Hart, Z. P., & Miller, V. D. (2003). Socialization, resocialization, and communication relationships in the context of an organizational change. *Communication Studies*, 54, 483-493.
- Hartman, L. C., & Bambacas, M. (2000). Organizational commitment: A multi method scale analysis and test of effects. *Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 8, 89-109.
- Hartog, D. N. D., & Verberg, R. M. (2004). High performance work systems, organizational culture and firm effectiveness. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 14, 55-78.
- Hatton, C., Rivers, M., Mason, H., Emerson, L. Kierman, C., Reeves, D., et al. (1999). Organizational culture and staff outcomes in services for people with intellectual disabilities. *Journal of Intellectual Disability Research*, 43, 206-218.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., Snyderman, B., (1959). *The Motivation to Work*, (New York: Wiley).

- Herscovitch, L., & Meyer, J. (2002). Commitment to organizational change: Extension of a three-component model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 474-487.
- Heyes, J., & Stuart, M. (1994). Placing symbols before reality. Re-evaluating the low skills equilibrium. *Personnel Review*, 23(5), 34-47.
- Heyes, J. (1998). *Training and development at an agrochemicals plant in experiencing Human Resource Management*. London: Safe.
- Hochwarter, W. A., Perrewe, P.L., Ferris, G. R., & Guercio, R. (1999). Commitment as an antidote to the tension and turnover consequences of organizational politics. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 55, 277-297.
- Holton, F., & Russell, C. J. (1997). The relationship of anticipation to newcomer socialization processes and outcomes: a pilot study, 70, 163-164.
- Hrebiniak, L. G., & Alutto, J. A. (1972). Personal and role-related factors in the development of organizational commitment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 17, 555-573.
- Hsiung, T. L., & Hsieh, A. T. (2003). Newcomer socialization: The role of job standardization. *Public Personnel Management*, 32, 579-591.
- Hunt, S. D., & Morgan, R. M. (1994). Organizational commitment: One of many commitments or key mediating construct? *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 1568-1587.
- Huselid, M.A. (1995). Human resource management practices and firm performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 635-72.
- Ichniowski, C. Kochan, T. A. and Prenushi. The effects of human resource management practices on productivity: a study of steel finishing lines. *American Economic Review*, 87 (3), 291-313.
- Irving, P. G., & Coleman, D. F. (2003). The moderating effect of different forms of commitment on role ambiguity-job tension relations *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*. 20, 97-107.
- Isabella, L. A. (1990). Evolving Interpretations as a change unfolds. How managers construe key organizational events. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33, 7-41.
- Ito, J. K. (2003). Career mobility and branding in the civil service, an empirical study. *Personnel Management*, 32, 1-28.

- Ito, J. K., & Brotheridge, C. M. (2005). Does supporting employees' career adaptability lead to commitment, turnover, or both? *Human Resource Management*, 44, 5-20.
- Iverson, R. D. (1996). Employee acceptance of organizational change: The role of organizational commitment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 7 (1), 122-149.
- Jablin, F. M. (1987). Organizational entry, assimilation, and exit. Handbook of organizational communication: *An interdisciplinary perspective*, 679-740.
- Jablin, F. M. Jackson, S. E., & Schuller, R. S. (1995). Understanding human resource management in the context of organizations and their environments. *An Annual review of psychology*, 46, 237-264.
- Jackson, S. E., & Schuller, R. S. (1995). Understanding human resource management in the context of organizations and their environments. *An Annual review of psychology*, 46, 237-264.
- Jamal, M. (1990). Relationship of job stress and type-A behavior to employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, psychosomatic health problems, and turnover motivation. *Human Relations*, 43, 727-738.
- Kacmar, K. M., Carlson, D., & Brymer, R. A. (1999). Antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment: A comparison of two scales. *Education and Psychological Measurement*, 59, 976-994.
- Kane, B., & Palmer. (1995). Strategic hrn or managing the employment relationship? *International Journal of Manpower*, 16, 6-22.
- Kanter, R. M. (1983). Frontiers for startegic human resource planning and Management. *Human Resource Management*, 22, 9-21.
- Kanter, R. M., (1997). *Men and Women of the Corporation* (New York: Basic books)
- Keep, E., (1989) Corporations training; the vital component? *New Perspectives on Human Resource Management Journal*, 6: 3, 7-21.
- Kiesler, C. A. (1971). *The psychology of commitment: Experiments linking Behavior to beliefs*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Knoop, R. (1995). Relationship among job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment for nurses. *The Journal of Psychology*, 129, 643-649.
- Koch, M. J., & McGrath, R. G. (1996). Improving labour productivity: human resource management policies do matter. *Strategy Management Journal*, 17 (5), 335-354.

- Konovsky, M. A., & Copranzano, R. (1991). Perceived fairness of employee Drug testing as a predictor of employee attitudes and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 698-707.
- Kontoghioghi, C., & Bryant, N. (2004). Exploring employee commitment in a service organization in the health care insurance industry. *Organizational Development Journal*, 22, 59-74.
- Koys, D. J. (1991). Fairness, legal compliance, and organizational Commitment. *Employees Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 4, 283-291.
- Kramer, M.W. (1994). Uncertainty reduction during job transitions. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 7, 384-412.
- Kramer, M.W. (1995). A longitudinal study of superior-subordinated communication during job transfers. *Human Communication Research*, 22, 39-64.
- Lance, C. E. (1991). Evaluation of a structural model relating job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and precursors to voluntary turnover. *Behavioral Research*, 26, 137-162.
- Laschinger, H. K. S., Finegan, J., Shamian, J., & Casier, S. (2000). Organizational trust and empowerment in restructured healthcare settings. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, 30, 413-425.
- Laschinger, H. K. S., Shamian, J., & Thomson, D. (2001). Impact of magnet hospital characteristics on nurses' perception of trust, burnout, quality care, and work satisfaction. *Nursing Economics*, 19, 209-219.
- Lazarus, R. S. & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York: Springer.
- Lee, T.W., Ashford, S. J., Walsh, J. P., & Mowday, R. T. (1992). Commitment propensity, organizational commitment, and voluntary turnover: A longitudinal study of organizational entry processes. *Journal of Management*, 18, 15-32.
- Leepak, D. P. & Snell, S. A. (2002). Examining the human resource management architecture: the relationship among human capital, employment and human resources configurations. *Journal of Management*, 28, 517-543.
- Lok, P. & Crawford, J. (2001). Antecedents of organizational commitment and the mediating role of job satisfaction. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 16, 594-613.

- London, M. (1998). Effects of applicant stereotypes, order and information on interview impression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 157-162.
- Louis, M.R. (1980). Surprise and sense making: What new comers experience in entering unfamiliar organizational settings. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 25, 226-51.
- MacDuffie, J. ((1995). Human resource bundles and manufacturing performance : Organizational logic and flexible production systems in world auto industry. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 48, 197-221.
- MacNeil, I. (1985). Relational contracts: what we do and do not know. *Wisconsin Law Review*, 483-525.
- Maguire, H. (2002). Psychological contracts: Are they still relevant? *Career Development International*. 7, 167-181.
- Major, D.A., Kozlowskji, S.W.J. Chao, G.T., & Gardener, P.D. (1995). A longitudinal investigation of newcomer expectations, early socialization outcomes, and the moderating effect of role development factors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80, 418-431.
- Mak, S.K.M., & Akhtar, S. (2003). Human resource management practices, strategic orientations and company performance: A correlation study of publicly listed companies. *The Journal of American Academy of Business*, 510-515.
- Marks, A., Findlay, P., Hine, J., McKinlay, a. and Thompson, P. (1996). *You always hurt the one you love: violating the psychological contract at United Distillers*, ERU Conference.
- Mason, G., Van Ark, B. and Wagner, K. (1996). *Workforce skills, product quality and economic performance in acquiring skills*. Cambridge University Press.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Hamel, K. (1989). A causal model of the antecedents of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108, 171-194.
- Mathieu, J.E., & Zajac, D. (1990) A Review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin* 108, 171-94.
- McClelland, D. C. (1961). *The achieving society* (New York): Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- McNeese-Smith, D. (1996). Increasing employee productivity, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment-effective leadership behavior for hospital managers. *Hospital & Health Services Administration*, 41, 160-175.

- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N.J. (1991). A three component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1, 61-89.
- Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three component model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 538-551.
- Meyer, J.N., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the Workplace. Theory Research, and Application*. London: Sage Publication,
- Michaels, C., & Spector, P. (1982). Cause of employee turnover: A test of the Mobley Griffieth, Hand, a Meglino model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67, 53-59.
- Miles, R. E. & Snow, C. C. (1984). Designing strategic human resource systems. *Organizational Dynamics*, 31, 36-52.
- Miller, V. D. & Jablin, F. M. (1991). Information seeking during organizational entry: Influences, tactics and a model of the process. *Academy of Management Review*. 16, 92-120.
- Morales, Y. (1998). Promoting professionalism through policy implementation. *International Journal of Human Resource Development & Management*. 2, 2-10.
- Mowday, R.T., Porter, R. M. & Steers, L. W. (1979). The Measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14, 224-247.
- Mowday, R. T., Porter, R., M. & Steers, R. M. (1982). *Employee-organization linkages: The psychological of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*. New York: Academic Press.
- Mullem, E.J. (1994). Framing the mentoring relationship as an informational exchange. *Human Resource Management Review*, 4, 257-281.
- Nahapiet, J., & Ghoshal, S. (1998). Social capital, intellectual capital and the organizational advantage. *Academy of Management Review*, 23, 242-266.
- Narvan, F. (1994). Surviving a downsizing. *Executive Excellence*, 11 (7), 12-13.
- Newell, H. & Dopson, S. (1996). Muddle in the middle: organizational restructuring and middle management careers. *Personnel Review*, 25 (4), 14-16.
- Noe, R. A. (1986). Trainees' attributes and attitudes; neglected influences on training Effectiveness. *Academy of Management Review*, 11(4) 736-749.

- Ogilvie, J.R. (1986). The role of human resource management practices in predicting organizational commitment. *Group & Organizational Studies*, 11, 335-359.
- O'Reilly, C.A. & Caldwell, D.F. (1981). *The commitment and job tenure of new employees: Some evidence of post decisions justification*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University.
- O'Reilly, C. A. & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 492-499.
- Organ, D., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 48, 775-802.
- Ostroff, C., & Kozlowski, S.W.J. (1992). Organizational socialization as a learning process. The role of information acquisition. *Personal Psychology*, 45, 849-874.
- Pfeffer, J. (1992). *Managing with power*. Boston, Harvard Business School Press.
- Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, B. V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59, 603-609.
- Posner, B. Z. & Kouzes, J. M. (1993). Psychometric properties of the leadership practices inventory – updated. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 53, 191-199.
- Prahalad, C. K., & Hamel, G. (1990). The core competence of the corporation. *Harvard Business Review*, 68, 79-91.
- Prais, S. J. (1995). *Productivity, education and training: An international perspective*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Price, J., & Mueller, C. (1981). A casual model of turnover for nurses. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34, 543-565.
- Purcell, J. (1999). Best practice and best fit: chimera or cul-de-sac? *Human Resource Management Journal*, 9 (3), 26-41.
- Quinn, R. E. (1988). *Beyond rational management: Mastering the paradoxes and competing demands of high performance*, San Francisco: Jossey –Bass.
- Rahim, M. A. & Psenicka, C. (1996). A structural equations model of stress, locus of control, social support, psychiatric symptoms, and propensity to leave a job. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 136, 69-84.

- Randall, D. M., Fedor, D. B., & Longenecker, C. O. (1990). The behavioral expression of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 36, 210-224.
- Reichers, A.E. (1987). An interactionist perspective on newcomer socialization rates. *Academy of Management Review*, 12, 278-287.
- Reilly, N. P. & Orsak, C. L. (1991). A career stage analysis of career and organizational in nursing. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 39, 311-330.
- Robbins, S. (2001). *Organizational behavior: Concepts, controversies and applications*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Robinson, S. L., Kraatz, S. M., & Rousseau, M. D. (1984). Changing obligations and the psychological contract: a longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 137-151.
- Romer, P. (1963). Idea gaps and object gaps in economic development. *Journal of Monetary Economics*, 32 (3), 543-573.
- Romzek, B. S. (1989). Personal consequences of employee commitment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32 (3), 649-661.
- Rousseau, D. M. & Parks-McLean, J. M. (1983). The contracts of individuals and organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 15, 1-43.
- Rynes, S., B. R. & Gergart, B. (1991). The importance of recruitment in job choice: A different way of looking. *Personnel Psychology*, 44 (3), 487-521.
- Santos, A., Stuart., M., (2003). Employee perceptions and their influence on training effectiveness. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 13, 27-46.
- Saks, A. M. (1995). Longitudinal field investigation of the moderating and mediating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between training and newcomer adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80, 211-225.
- Salanick, G. (1977a). Commitment and the control of organizational behavior and belief. *New directions in organizational behavior*, 1-54.
- Salanick, G. R. & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23, 224-253.
- Shepherd, J. L., & Mathews, B. P. (2000). Employee commitment academics vs. practitioners perspectives. *Employee Relations*, 22, 1-12.

- Shore, L. M. & Wayne, S. J. (1993). Commitment and employee behavior: Comparison of affective and continuance commitment with perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 774-780.
- Singh, V., & Vinnicombe, S. (2000). What does commitment really mean? Views of UK and Swedish engineering managers. *Personnel Review*, 29, 1-21.
- Sisson, K. (1990). An Introduction. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 1, 1-2.
- Siu, O. L. & Cooper, C. L. (1998). A study of occupational stress, job satisfaction and quitting in Hong Kong firms: The role of locus of control and organizational commitment. *Stress Medicine*, 14, 55-66.
- Somers, M.(1995). Organizational commitment, turnover, and absenteeism: an examination of direct and interaction effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16, 49-58.
- Sparrow, P. R. (1996). Transitions in the psychological contract: some evidence from the baking sector. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 6, (4), 75-92.
- Steers, R.M. (1977). Antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22, 46-56.
- Stephen, J., (1995). An Assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three component model of organizational commitment and turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 317.
- Storey, J. (1995). *Human resource management: still marching on, or marching out?*, in Storey, J. (Ed.). *Human Resource Management: A Critical Text*, Routledge, London, 3-32.
- Stroh, L. K., Brett, J. M. & Reilly, A. H. (1996). Family structure, glass ceiling, and traditional explanations for the differential rate of turnover of female and male manager. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49, 98-118.
- Sturges, J., Guest, D., Conway N., & Davey, K, M., (2002). A longitudinal study of the relationship between career management and organizational commitment among graduates in the first ten years at work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*.
- Takeuchi, N., Wakabayashi, M., & Chen, Z. (2003). The strategic HRM configuration for competitive advantage: evidence from Japanese firms in China and Taiwan Asia Pacific. *Journal of Management*, 20, 447-465.

- Tannenbaum, S. I., Mathieu, J. E., Salas, E. & Cannon-Bowes, J. A. (1991). Meeting trainees' self-efficacy, and motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 759-769.
- Taormina, R. J. (1994). The organizational socialization inventory. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 2 (3), 133-145.
- Taormina, R. J. (1997). Organizational socialization: A multidomain, continuous process model. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 5 (1), 29-47.
- Taormina, R. J., & Bauer, T. N. (2000). Organizational socialization in two cultures: Results from the United States and Hong Kong. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 8, 262-290.
- Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: Path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel Psychology*, 46, 259-293
- Thite, M. (2004). Strategic positioning of HRM in knowledge-based organizations. *The Learning Organization*, 11, 28-38.
- Thomas, K. W., & Velthouse, B. A. (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An interpretative model of intrinsic task motivation. *Academy of Management Review*, 15, 666-681.
- Tsui, A. S. & Milkovich, G. T. (1987). Personnel department activities: constituency perspectives and preferences. *Personnel Psychology*, 40 (3), 19-37.
- Yousef, D. A. (2000). Organizational commitment and job satisfaction as predictor of attitude towards organizational change in a non-western setting. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 29 (5), 1-13.
- Van der Velde, M. E., Bossink, C. J., & Jansen, P. G. (2003). Gender differences in the influence of professional tenure on work attitudes. *Sex Roles*, 49, 153-162.
- Van Maanen, J. (1978). People processing: Strategies of organizational socialization: *Organizational Dynamics*, 7 (1), 18-36.
- Van Maanen, J., & Schien, E. H. (1979). *Toward a theory of organizational socialization* In B. M. Staw (Ed.). *Research in organizational behavior*, 1, 209-264. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press
- Van Muijen, J. J. Koopman, P. L. and associates (1999). Organizational culture, the FOCUS questionnaire. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8 (4), 551-568. .

- Wanous, J. P. (1992). *Organizational entry: Recruitment entry: Recruitment, selection, orientation, and socialization of newcomers* (2nd ed). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Weiner, Y. (1982). Commitment in organizations: A normative view. *Academy of Management Review*, 7, 418-428.
- Wernerfelt, B. (1987). A Resource-Based View of the Firm. *Strategic Management Journal* 11, 337-351.
- Wexley, K. N., & Latham, G. P. (1991). *Developing and training human resources in organizations*, New York: Harper-Collins.
- Williams, L. J., Hazer, J. T. (1986). Antecedents and consequences of satisfaction and commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: Path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel Psychology*, 46. 259-293.
- Wright, P.M., & McMahan, C.G. (1992). Theoretical perspective for strategic human resources management. *Journal of Management*, 18, 295-319.
- Wright, P.M., Smart, D. & McMahan, G.C. (1995). Matches between human resources and strategy among NCAA Basketball teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 1052-74.
- Ohio State University, College of Business. (n.d.). Retrieved January 25, 2005 from www.cob.ohiostate.edu/klein.
- Youndt, M. A., Snell, S. A., Dean, J. W., Jr., & Lepak, D. P. (1996). Human resource management, manufacturing strategy, and firm performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39 (4), 836-866.
- Yousef, D. A. (2000). Organizational commitment and job satisfaction as predictors of attitudes towards organizational change in a northwestern setting. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 29, 1-13.