

Organizational commitment, organizational culture and career satisfaction

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Abstract: In terms of this tripartite classification, “commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee’s relationship with the organization and (b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization. Organizational culture gives identity to an organization. Notwithstanding the individuality of the staff members, their actions are collectively bound by the organizational culture. Organizational commitment–guest worker status interactions were significant predictors of overall performance and helping, and partially supported the dissonance perspective. Paulin, Ferguson, & Bergeron (2006) proposed that job satisfaction influences organizational commitment. Kim, Leong, & Lee, (2005) believed that employees with job satisfaction have higher levels of organizational commitment than employees with job dissatisfaction. Organizational culture appeared to have some influence on attitudes toward organizational change.

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1. Introduction

Organizational commitment has generated great interest among researchers. As Allen and Meyer assert, “of the ‘several work attitude’ variables studied by organizational psychologists, only job satisfaction has received more research attention than organizational commitment”. Organizational culture appeared to have some influence on attitudes toward organizational change (Ahmed, 1998; Lorenzo, 1998; Silvester and Anderson, 1999; Pool, 2000). According to Ahmed (1998), innovation is the engine of change and the possession of positive cultural characteristics provides the organization with necessary ingredients to innovate. Culture could enhance or inhibit the tendency to innovate. Pool (2000), however, suggested that organizational culture allowed an organization to address ever-changing problems of adaptation to the external environment and the internal integration of organization resources, personnel and policies to support external adaptation.

Organizational support refers to management’s encouragement of service, training, design of service systems and organizational procedures for optimal service delivery (Dienhart et al., 1992). Eisenberger et al. (1986) developed a measure of perceived organizational support that has subsequently demonstrated a positive relationship to employees’ affective commitment to the organization (e.g., Settoon et al., 1996). Thus, it is possible that employees will also feel a greater sense of obligation to remain if they view the organization as supportive.

Because perceptions of organizational support increase affective attachment to an organization and strengthen expectations that greater effort will be rewarded, employees who think that their organizations support them should exert more effort and thus will perform better than employees who do not think that their organizations support them (Orpen, 1994).

Empirical studies have illustrated that member’ perceptions of the nature and strength of organizational culture is a critical component of human resource management, change management, leadership, and work-related behaviours and attitudes that can impact task performance (e.g., Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006). Although a number of studies in the sport domain have considered organizational culture, only a few have examined its further influence. In a study of provincial sport organizations in Canada, Kent and Weese (2000) found that the use of organizational culture building activities was associated with more effective organizations. Smart and Wolfe (2000) noted the important role of organizational culture in the strength and sustainable competitive advantage for the Penn State football program. Choi and Scott (2008) found that team winning percentage was associated with culture type and strength in American Triple-A baseball organizations. In a study of state sporting organizations in Australia Colyer (2000) found differences in the perceptions of organizational culture between the paid work force and volunteers, and suggested the potential impact of those differences

would affect the management of the workforce. MacIntosh and Doherty (2005) found that perceived organizational culture in one company was inversely associated with fitness club staff intention to leave their organization and drew implications for the management of fitness organizations.

2. Organizational culture

Culture consists of some combination of artifacts (also called practices, expressive symbols or forms), values and beliefs and underlying assumptions that organizational members share about appropriate behavior (Gordon and DiTomaso, 1992). Although there are many definitions of culture, organizational culture has been viewed as holistic, historically determined, and socially constructed. Culture involves beliefs and behavior, exists at a various levels, and manifests itself in a wide range of features of organizational life (Hofstede *et al.*, 1990). As such, organizational culture refers to a set of shared values, belief, assumptions, and practices that shape and guide members' attitudes and behavior in the organization (Kotter and Heskett, 1992; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1996; Wilson, 2001).

In trying to understand better the concept of corporate culture, several typologies had been developed. One of the most recent typologies was developed by Goffee and Jones (1998). Goffee and Jones (1998) categorized organizational culture into four main types based on two dimensions: sociability and solidarity. Four cultures are defined by the quadrants of the figure. The four main types are:

1. Communal culture;
2. Fragmented culture;
3. Networked culture; and
4. Mercenary culture.

The concept of organizational culture first emerged in the 1970s and 1980s (e.g., Ouchi & Price, 1993), and soon became one of the most influential but also most controversial concepts in management research and practice (Jarnagin & Slocum, 2007). The concept has been interpreted very differently and there is a lack of consensus regarding a common definition of the term (Ashkanasy, Broadfoot, & Falkus, 2000). Culture theorists have suggested a variety of definitions, ranging from notions of accepted behavioral rules, norms and rituals (e.g., Trice & Beyer, 1984), to shared values, ideologies and beliefs (e.g., Schwartz & Davis, 1981), and, at an underlying level, shared patterns of meaning or understanding (e.g., Smircich, 1983). One frequently cited definition is Schein's (2004) abovementioned three-level typology of culture, as it extends through and includes various concepts and cultural dimensions (Crane, 1995; Linnenluecke, Russell, & Griffiths, in press).

Organizational culture has been defined as the social or normative glue that holds an organization

together (Siehl and Martin, 1981). It expresses the social ideals, values and beliefs that members of an organization come to share (Louis, 1980). These values or patterns of belief are manifested by symbolic devices such as myths (Boje *et al.*, 1982), rituals (Deal and Kennedy, 1982), stories (Mitroff and Kilmann, 1976), legends (Wilkins and Martin, 1980), and specialized language (Andrews and Hirsh, 1983). Organizational social capital is one of the themes on organizational communication that has recently been studied in the field of organizational theory. In studies on organizational social capital, concepts related to both organization and communication studies are combined, as "Social capital is part of a social structure that is embedded in personal and organizational contacts" (Greve & Salaff, 2001), and such studies observe that "social capital accrues from relationships such as those embedded in communication networks" (Monge & Contractor, 2003). According to Putnam (1993), the concept of social capital contains social trust, norms of reciprocity, and networks of civic engagement. Applying the concept to organizations, organizational social capital focuses on human communication of trust, mutual-support relationships, and network communication among members. In the present study, organizational communication of organizational social capital is presented as a mediating variable in the relationship between team autonomy and worker attitudes.

3. Organizational commitment

Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) defined organizational commitment as the degree to which an employee identifies with the goals and values of the organization and is willing to exert effort to help it succeed. The issue of organizational commitment within both private and public sector organizations has, generally, received significant research focus over the past 25 years (Hope, 2003). In addition, organizational commitment is viewed as an attitude of attachment to the organization by an employee, which leads to particular job-related behaviours such as work absenteeism, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, organizational citizen behaviours, work motivation and work performance.

4. Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values. Job satisfaction has been found to significantly influence absenteeism, turnover, job performance, and psychological distress (Chen *et al.*, 2006). Lee (1988) also revealed that job dissatisfaction is among the best predictors of turnover. Additionally, Williams (1995) found that employee benefits affect their job satisfaction. Nevertheless; several antecedents of job

satisfaction have been studied over the years including compensation, opportunity for advancement, leadership style, work environment, organizational structure and climate (Testa, 1999).

5. Job satisfaction and Organizational commitment

Paulin, Ferguson, & Bergeron (2006) proposed that job satisfaction influences organizational commitment. Kim, Leong, & Lee, (2005) believed that employees with job satisfaction have higher levels of organizational commitment than employees with job dissatisfaction. Thus, Mobley (1977) states that if dissatisfaction of employees with their works increases, they have intentions to leave the organization for other job conditions. Employees' job satisfaction has been related to organization outcomes such as organizational commitment. According to some studies (e.g. Yang and Chang, 2008) organizational commitment is related to job satisfaction. Some studies indicated that some factors of job satisfaction (e.g. satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with overall job, satisfaction with policy and support, and satisfaction with pay) were direct indicators of organizational commitment. Several studies (e.g. Deconinck, 2009; Rutherford et al., 2009; Sweeney and Quirin, 2009) investigated these two variables in research models (structural equation model and path analysis) which confirmed that job satisfaction has a direct and positive influence on organizational commitment.

Several studies have viewed job satisfaction as an antecedent to organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior (Bateman & Organ, 1983) while others have considered job satisfaction as an antecedent of organizational commitment only (Williams & Hazer, 1986). Nguni, Slegers, and Denessen (2006) noted that research was not conclusive on the causal order of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. Most studies have shown a positive, but not always strong, relationship between job dissatisfaction and behavioral responses such as absenteeism and turnover (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2005). Evidence indicates that dissatisfied workers have higher turnover and absence rate than satisfied workers (Smith et al., 1969). In his metaanalytical study, Hellman (1997) found a significant and consistent inverse relationship between the level of job satisfaction and workers' intentions to quit their jobs. Turnover intentions were negatively related to job satisfaction and job security, and positively related to level of educational attainment. Researchers have taken many strides in delineating different types of commitment. Morris and Sherman (1981) proposed that most theorists either favor an exchange approach, in which commitment is the result of investments or contributions to the organization, or a psychological

approach, in which commitment is depicted as a positive, high-involvement, high-intensity orientation (Mayer and Schoorman, 1992) toward the organization. The latter is the predominant view of commitment, one of identification with the organization and commitment to organizational goals (Hackett et al., 1994). This psychological commitment to the organization has been dubbed affective commitment (Gregersen and Black, 1992).

6. Discussion

Despite difficulties in the measurement of individual performance (Ostroff, 1992) and small observed correlations between attitudes and performance (Angle and Lawson, 1994), researchers continue theoretical and empirical pursuit of these relationships. In this research, we examine two dimensions of performance, commonly studied in the management and psychology literature. These dimensions are not meant to run the gamut of all possible dimensions, but are meant to sample from the relevant dimensions of job performance. Job satisfaction measures the degree to which workers are happy with their job and daily work life. For example, Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor (2000) presented the variables of "compared with most jobs, this is pretty good" and "I am happy with this job" as the concept of job satisfaction. Attitudes and intentions of voluntary behavior, regardless of reward, reflect organizational commitment. In the present study, organizational commitment is defined as the degree to which workers devote themselves to offering their best practices in their teams and organizations. The concept is close to and reflects that of affective commitment, defined by Meyer and Allen (1991) as "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization". Flap and Volker (2001) found that "dense networks of solidarity ties, the solidarity networks, do improve an employee's satisfaction with the social side of the job". This suggests that high network density is assumed to be positively related to job satisfaction. Aquino and Serva (2005) remarked, "Development teams with dense social capital also voluntarily completed tasks beyond their responsibilities".

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