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**ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT IN CUSTOMER
SERVICE CENTRES**

DEPARTMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR

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Organizational Commitment and Work-Family Conflict in Customer Service Centres

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List of abbreviations

Abbreviations used in the thesis:

Abbreviation	Phrase
AC	Affective Commitment
CC	Continuance Commitment
NC	Normative Commitment
WIF	Work Interference With Family
FIW	Family Interference With Work
TWIF	Time-based WIF
SWIF	Strain-based WIF
BWIF	Behavior-based WIF
WFIW	Time-based FIW
SFIW	Strain-based FIW
BFIW	Behavior-based FIW
WFB	Work-Family Balance
WRC	Work Role Conflict
FRC	Family Role Conflict
WTD	Work Time Demand
FTD	Family Time Demand
FRA	Family Role Ambiguity
WRA	Work Role Ambiguity
JSAT	Job Satisfaction
FSAT	Family Satisfaction
FSUPP	Family Social Support
WSUPP	Work Social Support
QUIT	Intention to Quit

1 Introduction

The ultimate value of an organization is Man, as several authors say (Bakacsi, Bokor, Császár, Gelei, Kovács, & Takács, 2004; Bassi & McMurrer, 2007; Nicholson, 2009). The background of the statement is that in a lot of cases the sustainable development and long-term success of business organizations lie in the competencies and the performance of the recruited and retained employees. More and more empirical evidence show that organizational commitment is an important antecedent of the employee's performance and their intention to keep their organizational membership. It can be argued that for those companies that handle human resources as a key to their success, high organizational commitment leads to favorable outcomes. So we might rephrase our opening statement as: the ultimate value of an organization is the committed Man.

At the same time organizational commitment poses challenge for employees as the involvement in their job might interfere with other life domains (e.g. family). This phenomenon is often called as work-family conflict. It has negative effects on the work and family life domain as well. So it influences the individuals, their relatives and employers as well.

Therefore organizational commitment and work-family conflict are not independent concepts. One has favourable consequences the other not – regarding organizations. But both can be influenced by the management. In order to get the desired outcomes from the interventions of the management, the antecedents of organizational commitment and the relationship between organizational commitment and work-family conflict have to be studied in detail.

The research detailed in this thesis was aimed at providing new scientific knowledge regarding the antecedents of organizational commitment and its relationship with work-family conflict by examining these questions in a relevant organizational context that offers the possibility of generalization as well: customer service centres. We tapped the employees' organizational commitment, work-family conflict and their antecedents and consequences using a self-report questionnaire. The obtained data (the relationships between the variables) were examined by statistical methods.

The goal of the introductory chapter is to give an insight into our research. It has six sub-chapters, which cover the following topics: background, problem statement, research objectives, theoretical framework, significance of research, limitation of research.

1.1 Background

The realm of work has undergone a fundamental change over the last few decades. Forces of globalization, technological advancement, and an ever-increasing market competition have all been giving rise to organizational needs for new solutions to economic efficiency and

profitability (ILO, 2006). More and more novel and innovative solutions are required for a sustainable development and long-term success of business organizations (Holliday, Schmidheiny, & Watts, 2002).

It has been a long-standing conclusion, however, that organizational efforts made to improve labour productivity and efficiency very often act to induce a decrease in the organizational commitment, moreover alienation, of people within organizational bonds (Smith, 1971), while employees have, with their competence, efforts, motivatedness, and commitment affecting competitiveness essentially, been playing an increasingly key role in the overall performance of any business organization (Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994; Wright, Dunford, & Snell, 2001). Human resources are an important assets of the organization, which have value as well. This value can be increased by appropriate programs and processes.

Several factors influence the amount an organization is willing to invest in employees (Mello, 2001):

1. Sees people as central to its mission/strategy - has a management philosophy that encourages the development and retention of human assets and does not treat or regard human assets in the same ways as physical assets.
2. "Investment orientation" of its managers.
3. Management's attitude toward risk: Investment in human resources is inherently riskier due to lack of absolute "ownership" of the asset.
4. Nature of Skills Needed by Employees: The more likely that skills developed by employees are marketable outside the firm, the more risky the firm's investment in the development of those skills.
5. Availability of Outsourcing.

In sectors, where the employees' behavior and performance have a direct impact on the perceived quality of service (as for example customer service centers (URCOT, 2000)), the investment in people can simultaneously increase the quality of the service and lower the associated costs (by lowering the opportunity cost among employees)¹. This can lead to a virtuous value conversion cycle (Figure 1), in which organizational commitment has a key role (Hallowell, 1996). It is not surprising that in an era of economic crises, the issue of organizational commitment as demonstrated by staff is of utmost importance both in Hungary and worldwide (Gyökér & Krajcsák, 2009).

¹ Refer to Hallowell (1996) for a detailed explanation.

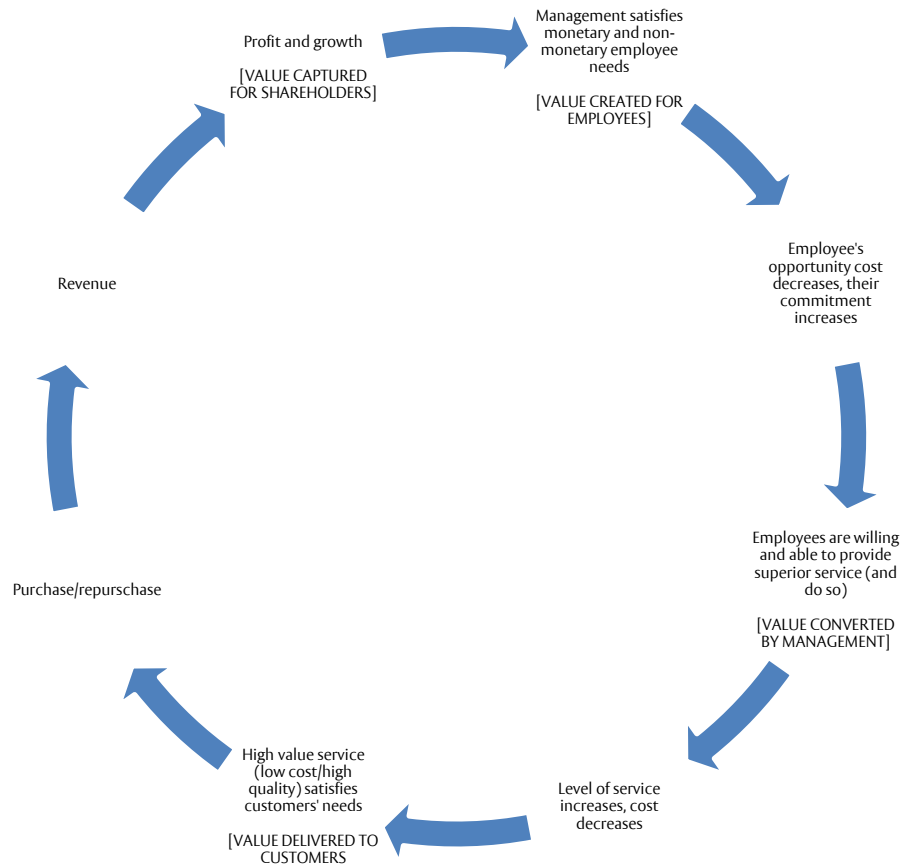


Figure 1 - Value Conversion Cycle (Hallowell, 1996)

On the employees' part, there is more and more an expectation that they can fulfill their duties at work without such fulfilment being to the detriment of other aspects of their lives. In other words, there is an expectation that various so-called 'life domains' (such as work, family, etc) be in harmony. Work and life are the most important life domains for any individual (Mortimer, Lorence, & Kumka, 1986; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Consequently, the character of any relation between them is a rather exciting issue, and not only for the individuals. Most working people have joined organizations, with the result that their problems arising from the reconciliation of working and family life, and any consequence therefrom, will be of significance to the management of those organizations as well. Among Hungarian managers *'it is generally believed that for an employer it is in its own economic interest to retain its skilled and motivated employees, especially in areas of business where expertise obtained over several years is, when lost, difficult to make up for. Consequently the family-friendly attitude shown by business organizations is not a mere philanthropism, but a program whose financial return they reckon with'* (Borbíró, Juhász, Nagy, & Pál, 2007, p. 61).

If organizations do consider the issue important, government agencies concerned should, in their turn, not be blind to it either. *'If it comes to the import of balance between family and work, one cannot go too far. The well-being of people, and fertility of the nation, are securities for the present and future. An increasing number of organizations come to realize that a supply of committed, motivated, and flexible work force may serve as an important means of improving competitiveness as well as offer welfare and social benefits'*, reads the website of the National Employment Service.² This latter passage quoted suggests that the very government agency with the best insight into the Hungarian labour market, takes it as an axiom that harmony between an employee's working and family life is closely related with his/her organizational commitment, and from the very fact that they have nailed their colours to the mast of improving the situations, it is evident that there is still much to do in the field.

An issue which is important for particular countries in Europe, should not be considered an item of secondary importance by the European Union either. And it is not – RECWOWE (Reconciling Work and Welfare in Europe) Network of Excellence, a joint international research effort involving 27 European educational and research establishments, is busy with the processing of results from European investigations into the issue of harmonizing working and well-being, through the 6th Framework Programme of EU³. Key subject-matters of said research include efforts made to gain a deeper understanding of the work-family interface for the advancement of harmony between working and family life of citizens.

Consequently, the way the work-family interface and organizational commitment interact, is relevant to entities ranging from ordinary people and organizations to national and transnational line policies, and signifies a contemporary problem domain at any level. In a lot of respects, general research aimed at a deeper understanding of such interactions may provide added value.

Rather than in general terms, this study, however, looks at the issue in a well-defined context, i.e. as it exists at customer service centers.

Operating as important divisions at multiple companies, customer service centers (especially call centres) are of considerable and ever-increasing significance (Gans, Koole, & Mandelbaum, 2003). The call center industry has demonstrated the most dynamic development of all industries in Europe, the United States of America, and Australia over the decade past (URCOT, 2000). At the same time, the sector is characterized by a *'contradictory position in which staff are placed, being tasked as they are, with providing a high quality customer service while management limit their ability through work intensification to provide such a service. (...) It is ironical, however,*

² See http://www.afsz.hu/engine.aspx?page=showcontent&content=full_afsz_munka_csalad_osszefoglalo (Downloaded: 2013. 02. 05.)

³ See <http://recwowe.vitamib.com/>

that concern with customers does not seem to be matched with an equal concern with employees, but perhaps the greater irony is that the two are seen as distinct' (Knights & McCabe, 1998, pp. 182, 188). Typical phenomena include high levels of job dissatisfaction and employee turnover, considerable exposure of employees to stress, uncertainty of sectorial career paths, and much complaint about wages and working conditions (URCOT, 2000).

An increasing number of scientists have been concentrating on issues connected with such working conditions as organization of work and working hours and consequences arising therefrom. Overtime work, unusual working regimes, and inflexible assignment and leave arrangements are features typical of customer service centers (Hannif, 2006). With respect to the customer assessment of a customer service center (and hence that of the whole parent organization), the levels of helpfulness and friendliness its employees exhibit are crucial. To this end, employees should have a high level of organizational commitment, while practical management and organization solutions seem to undermine that requirement (Kinnie, Hutchinson, & Purcell, 2000). Evidently, it is essential that there be *'greater alignment between the HR practices and control systems adopted, the high quality interactions expected with the customer and the needs of employees. The ability to manage these potentially conflicting pressures in this fast-changing environment is seen to be one of the key factors in exploiting the potential benefits to be gained from this new way of working'* (Kinnie, Hutchinson, & Purcell, 2000, p. 971).

With the advancement of information technology, scientific interest was focused on call centres rather than on physical contact customer service centres. Rose and Wright (2005) emphasize that running a call center makes its management face multiple challenges, with some of them being old, while others new and complex, including issues of control, commitment, and the work-family balance. [People] *'need a positive work-life balance, but many call centers still fail to recognise this. Failure to take these factors into account can create real difficulties for call center employers and employees alike, resulting in recruitment and retention costs, high sickness absence and stress levels, loss of trained and experienced staff, and lower productivity and morale'* (Paul & Huws, 2002, p. 21).

With call centers, the employees' organizational commitment and its relation with the work-family interface are thus questions one shall not evade. [Call centers] *'provide, therefore, an appropriate context for examining contemporary pressures in working life'* (Hyman, Baldry, Scholarios, & Bunzel, 2003, p. 216). Some authors even call call centres the prototype of the white-collar jobs of the 21st century (Batt, 2000).

Having several similarities to international tendencies, the problem is of great importance in Hungary too. At Hungarian call centers, the turnover of employees is nearly as high as 10 %, the most common causes to quit being, firstly, insufficient wages, and secondly, high levels of

physical and psychic pressure and great performance expectations (HEA, 2009). The two major individual strategies applied at call centers to cope with stress are the seeking of support and distraction (Szendrő, 2009), a fact suggesting considerable interaction between such life domains as work and family with the employees of Hungarian calls centers as well.

The question arises: how is the organizational commitment (or commitment profiles) of customer service center staff related with their work-family conflict? In the hope of finding an answer to that question, the research outlined in this thesis was conducted.

1.2 Problem statement

Organizational commitment has been a focus of intense research for several decades (Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Somers, 1995; Wasti, 2005), with the contents of, antecedents to, and outcomes from the concept much investigated (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002).

Similarly, life domains such as work and family have been investigated for long, with multiple studies analyzing interaction between these life domains, and exploring a mine of antecedents and outcomes (Marks, 1977; Crouter, 1984; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, LeBreton, & Baltes, 2009).

Relations between organizational commitment and the work-family interface have, however, been set in the focus of much less research. While a few studies with remarkable results have indeed been produced (Super, 1990; Perrone, Ægisdóttir, Webb, & Blalock, 2006; Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, & Luk, 2001; Ali & Baloch, 2009; Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino, & Rosner, 2005; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999; Grover & Crooker, 1995), and workoholism, this 'pathological outgrowth' from commitment, which, for all its significance, is thus beyond the scope of this study, has been examined by several authors (Piotrowski & Vodanovich, 2006), not a single piece of research has, as far as the author of this study is aware, relied upon the commitment profiles theory (Meyer & Herscovitsch, 2001; Wasti, 2005; Somers M. J., 2009) to any extent. As pointed out in this study, the commitment profiles theory has opened up new prospects in scientific thinking about organizational commitment, with an increasing number of authors having looked into the antecedents to and outcomes from commitment profiles (Wasti, 2005; Somers, 2009). Consequently, it seems to be timely and reasonable that, going beyond the above-mentioned studies aimed at cognition of relations between organizational commitment and the work-family interface, one carries out investigations into the relationship of organizational commitment profiles with the work-family interface – in an organizational context specifically to which both are relevant. The

research proposed in this thesis has set the latter objective, and can, in this respect, be considered a novelty even when compared to international efforts.

Commitment profiles (as well as their relations with various variables) derivable from organizational commitment components have already been subjected to research in a lot of countries, including Canada (McNally & Irving, 2010; Gellatly, Hunter, Currie, & Irving, 2009), the United States (Somers, 2009), Turkey (Wasti, 2005), India (Kwantes, 2003), Greece (Markovits, Davis, & van Dick, 2007), and Malaysia (Karim & Noor, 2006). They have not, however, been studied yet in a Hungarian cultural context or using a Hungarian sample, or at least no paper on the issue has been published so far.

Nevertheless, national cultures may have peculiarities on account of which findings from research carried out in a particular country may only be generalized to a limited degree to match other countries (Markovits, Davis, & van Dick, 2007). It follows that international research results referred to above may not be fully applicable to Hungary under any circumstances, which makes it necessary to carry out the research proposed here. The latter assumption appears to be supported by two research efforts, significant on an international scale, into the Hungarian national culture, as follows:

- Having taken measurements of national and organizational cultures in empirical (practice) and normative (value) terms using nine variables⁴, the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) research effort (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) found that Hungary belongs to the so-called 'East-European cultural cluster'. That is to say, it has, in respect of those nine dimensions, got characteristics significantly different from those of other countries where commitment profiles have been examined before (with each and every of them belonging to a cluster not identical with that of Hungary). Refer to Bakacsi (2010) for detailed data.
- Results from Hofstede's investigations (1980) show that Hungary is rather different from other countries as regards power distance and uncertainty avoidance, a finding which can also be demonstrated in organizational culture, and hence employees' attitude to organizations (Bakacsi, 2004). This is illustrated in the figure below, showing typical types of organizational 'ideals' in a two-dimensional frame of reference. Clearly, Hungary is located outside any of the areas containing the countries in which commitment profiles have been examined so far.

⁴ power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism I (institutional collectivism), collectivism II (group collectivism), equality by gender, assertiveness, performance-orientedness, future-orientedness, human orientedness

Therefore, channelling Hungarian employees' characteristics into commitment research can be said to signify another element of the research proposed in this study which is novel on an international scale as well.

Such findings as may be derived from this research are likely to help us to obtain a deeper understanding of relations between the organizational commitment and work-family balance associated with customer service center employees in Hungary. Organizations with customer service center and customer service center staff may equally benefit from the knowledge to be gained and from a possible translation of such knowledge into HR management practices (organization of work, training development, performance management, etc.), which may, in view of the large number of call center employees, have an effect on society not to be dismissed lightly.

1.3 Research objectives

The main research question is the following: "What is the relationship between organizational commitment and work-family conflict in customer support centers?"

To answer it we intend to examine among customer service center employees:

- what is the relationship between the components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) and its work domain antecedents (work role ambiguity, work time demand, work role conflicts, work social support) and its work domain consequences (job satisfaction, intention to quit);
- what is the relationship between the components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) and the variables regarding work-family conflict (work-family interference, family-work interference) and their components.

We discuss the research questions in detail after the literature review, in Chapter 3.2.

1.4 Theoretical framework

During our research we operationalize organizational commitment by the Three Component Model (TCM) of organizational commitment, developed by Meyer & Allen (1991); and work-family conflict by the integrative model of Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, LeBreton, & Baltes (A comparative test of work-family conflict models and critical examination of work-family linkages, 2009).

- Meyer & Allen (1991) identified three components of organizational commitment. Affective commitment means emotional attachment, identification with the organization: the individual is a member of the organization because he/she wants to be a member. Continuance commitment is linked with the individual's recognition that

quitting would involve costs. It means that the individual is a member of the organization because of a necessity. Normative commitment is predicated on a feeling of normative pressures to retain the organizational membership, which means that the individual remains out of moral obligation.

During our research we build on the theory that for each individual the three commitment components exist simultaneously, but differ in their strengths. (Meyer & Herscovitsch, 2001). So we not only examine the isolated antecedents and consequences of each component, but (by creating commitment profiles) we analyse their mutual effects as well.

- Michel et al. (2009)'s integrated theoretical framework of work-family conflict distinguish two directions of work-family conflict: work-family interference (WIF), where work has a negative effect on family life, and family-work interference (FIW), where family has a negative effect on work. They identify three components of WIF and FIW: time based, strain based, and behavior based. A further distinction is made between the domains of family and work, relating antecedents and consequences to both domains.

Our research aims to find a connection between Meyer & Allen's TCM and Michel et al's integrative model. The pool of the analysed variables was selected appropriately. Our research model is detailed in Chapter 3.2.

1.5 Significance of Research

Our study offers several contributions to the theory and the practice of the field.

1.5.1 Theoretical contributions

- **Topic:** our study applies the commitment profiles theory regarding the analysis of work-family conflict.
- **Method:** In our study such mathematical and statistical methods are used, which had been not used by others to examine the relationship between organizational commitment and work-family conflict. Thus, our study examines uniquely many aspects of the subject.
- **Results:** Empirical evidence is shown that the commitment profiles are significantly different regarding such work antecedents and consequences, that are related to the work-family conflict. We are not aware of any previous investigation to do so in a such comprehensive manner.

- **Organizational context:** our research gives support to the commitment profile theory in the context of customer service organizations, which allows more general lessons to be based on the results. The examined research questions had not been tested in the context of customer service organizations prior to our study.
- **Cultural context:** our research examines the commitment profile theory on a Hungarian sample - in this cultural context the theory has not yet been tested.

1.5.2 Contributions to the practice

- If the results support that the commitment profiles have different work antecedents and consequences, this has important implications for the managers and HR experts. Almost all of these work antecedents are within the sphere of influence of the top or middle managers and HR professionals, so their organization design and organization development efforts may induce predicted changes regarding the commitment profiles, and positive changes can occur regarding the consequence variables of the commitment profiles..
- Through a deeper understanding of the relationship between organizational commitment and work-family conflict, development of organizational solutions and practices can be possible, which help to reduce work-family conflict and at the same time to increase organizational commitment of employees. Thus contributing to the goal congruence of the employees and the organization.
- A large number of employees are working in customer service jobs in Hungary and worldwide. Based on the results of this research, steps can be taken by the organizations to improve the quality of work life and family life of the customer service employees, and progress can be made in reconciliation of these two life domains.

1.6 Limitations of Research

Any result or conclusion to be derived from the research proposed in this study should be interpreted with allowance made for three fundamental limitations: design of research, approach adopted, and generalization.

1.6.1 Design of Research

A cross-sectional approach, rather than a longitudinal one, will be used in the research, i.e. a momentary survey of organizations will be made. With a cross-sectional research seeking to make simultaneous observations of the antecedents to and outcomes from a phenomenon under study, the possibility to explore cause-and-effect relationships will be narrow, and no temporal dimension will be involved.

1.6.2 Approach to Empirical Research

In the research, correlations between pre-defined dependent and independent variables will be examined, and several methods of multivariable statistics will subsequently be used to draw inferences on the causality of the relationship, and degree of association between the variables. Hence it follows that no effect of variables which the preliminary investigation model is exclusive of, will be dealt with. The questionnaire will not include any open question, and the information to be acquired through the data survey will have a pre-determined focus.

1.6.3 Generalization

The data survey was confined to Hungarian employees working at customer service centres. Organizations and employees to be involved in the research volunteered to join rather than were selected from a sampling population at random. For this reason, we can not exclude the possibility that our findings may not be representative in statistical terms of all customer service center employees (or all employees) in the total Hungarian labour market, and any result or inference should be generalized with extreme care. Three considerations below may serve as securities for generalization:

- While one of the largest-scale attitude research efforts ever made among call center employees in Hungary has been based on a sample of 528 individuals (Kara, 2009), while this research is based on a sample nearly 1,5 times as large as that.
- Our research covers industrial sectors relevant to customer service center activity (public utilities, banking, financing).
- Our sample consists of employees of 41 organizational entities.

The steps taken in order to secure the validity and reliability of our research are discussed in Chapter 3.4.1.1.

2 An Overview of Literature

This chapter has three main sub-chapters. The first one discusses the theories regarding the concept of organizational commitment. The second one provides a review of the theories regarding the work-family interface. We summarize the classic and the current theories as well, before focusing on the work-family conflict theory, which is most relevant to our research. The third sub-chapter overviews the research context: the customer service centres.

2.1 Organizational Commitment

The various conceptions about organizational commitment have played an invariably key role in any investigation into organizations in the last 25 years (Gautam, Van Dick, & Wagner, 2004). One of the main reasons is that organizational commitment is a predictor of a wide range of such behavioral characteristics as organizational members may exhibit (Abbott, White, & Charles, 2005).

Literature offers no consensus about either the linkage of organizational commitment to other concepts within the overall notion of work commitment (Morrow, 1983; Hackett, Lapierre, & Hausdorf, 2001) or, unfortunately, its definition (Meyer & Herscovitsch, 2001). What seems with high certainty to be generally believed is that organizational commitment pertains to the employee's overall attachment to the whole of the organization (Baker, 2000, p. 42).

Different authors emphasize differing aspects of the concept:

Table 1 – Definitions of organizational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitsch, 2001 – expanded)

General commitment definitions
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• 'Commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity' (Becker, 1960, p. 32)
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• 'A stabilizing force that acts to maintain behavioral direction when expectancy/equity conditions are not met and do not function' (Scholl, 1981, p. 593)
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• 'A force that stabilizes individual behavior under circumstances where the individual would otherwise be tempted to change that behavior' (Brickman, 1987, p. 2)
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• 'Commitment is an attitude or an orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization' (Sheldon, 1971, p. 143)

Organizational commitment	
•	'A state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities of his own involvement' (Salancik, 1977, p. 62)
•	'The relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization' (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, p. 226)
•	'Commitment is viewed as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth' (Buchanan, 1979, p. 533)
•	'The totality of normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests' (Wiener, 1982, p. 421)
•	'The psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization' (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 493)
•	'A psychological state that binds the individual to the organization (i.e. makes turnover less likely)' (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.14)
•	'A bond or linking of the individual to the organization' (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p. 171)

Another question about organizational commitment to answer is whether it is a one-dimensional concept or it has got identifiable segments, each defining a particular aspect of an employee's relation to the organization. In the table below major multi-dimensional theories are enumerated.

Table 2 – Multidimensional theories of organizational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitsch, 2001)

(Angle & Perry, 1981)	
<i>Value commitment</i>	commitment to support the goals of the organization
<i>Commitment to stay</i>	commitment to retain the organizational membership
(O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986)	
<i>Compliance</i>	involvement for specific extrinsic rewards
<i>Identification</i>	attachment based on a desire for affiliation with the organization
<i>Internalization</i>	involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organizational values

<i>(Penley & Gould, 1988)</i>	
<i>Moral</i>	acceptance of and identification with organizational goals
<i>Calculative</i>	a commitment to an organization which is based on the employee's receiving inducements to match contributions
<i>Alienative</i>	organizational attachment which results when an employee no longer perceives that there are rewards commensurate with investments yet he or she remains due to environmental pressures
<i>(Meyer & Allen, 1991)</i>	
<i>Affective</i>	the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization
<i>Continuance</i>	an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization
<i>Normative</i>	a feeling of obligation to continue employment
<i>(Mayer & Schoorman, 1992)</i>	
<i>Value</i>	a belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization
<i>Continuance</i>	a desire to remain a member of the organization
<i>Jaros et al</i>	
<i>Affective</i>	the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, fondness, pleasure, and so on
<i>Continuance</i>	the degree to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of the high costs of leaving
<i>Moral</i>	the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through internalization of its goals, values, and missions

2.1.1 Attitudinal and Behavioral Aspects of Organizational Commitment

Prior to an introduction to the most influential ones of numerous theories on organizational commitment, a most important, and very often implicit, presupposition underlying those theories needs to be clarified. The fundamental question arising is this: does the concept of

organizational commitment pertain to the way individuals feel or think, or the way they act, about the organization? That is to say, is it the thoughts or the behavior of organizational members that the concept of commitment tells us about? Separation of the attitudinal aspect from the behavioral aspect of commitment is predicated on that question.

The concept of attitude has been defined in multiple ways in the past (Ajzen, 2005), with a detailed discussion of all those definitions being, for reasons of length, beyond the scope of this study. A most common element of all of them is that attitudes are relatively stable patterns of emotions, beliefs, and behavioral predispositions pertaining to an incorporeal or material subject (Greenberg & Baron, 1993). Attitudes are traceable to conceptual, emotional, and behavioral bases. Initially, social psychologists thought these three factors to be the components of attitudes (Katz & Stotland, 1959; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960; Atkinson, Atkinson, Smith, & Bem, 1996, p. 521), while nowadays attitudes are rather viewed as overall comprehensive assessments originating in those three bases (Albarracín, Johnson, & Zanna, 2005, p. 82; Ajzen, 2005, p. 20).

An attitude may have strong (though not exclusive) influence on an individual's behavior (Klein, 2005). It follows that the attitudinal aspect of commitment is not independent of the behavioral aspect of the same, though they can be interpreted by two different psychological processes. *'Attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization. In many ways it can be thought of as a mind set in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organization. Behavioral commitment, on the other hand, relates to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem'* (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982, p. 26).

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), studies into attitudinal commitment were primarily focussed on antecedents to the emergence of, and behavioral outcomes from, commitment, while scientists with a behavioral approach to organizational commitment sought to find out what circumstances led to the repetition of a particular behavior and how that behavior contributed to a change in attitude.

The fundamental difference between the two approaches outlined above is illustrated in the figures below according to Meyer and Allen (1991). In the diagrams, continuous lines are used to indicate the succession of variables and the primary causal relations, while dotted lines to show secondary relations being present as additional processes in the commitment-to-behavior relation.

With attitudinal commitment, the individual's psychological state, i.e. the totality of thoughts and feelings developing in his mind, is in focus. Having been shaped under particular circumstances (e.g. experience), they will lead to a particular behavior. The behavioral outcomes of commitment are most likely to have influence on the circumstances which contribute to the stability or changing of commitment (i.e. that of the psychological state in question).

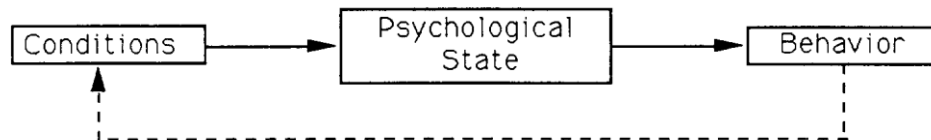


Figure 2 – The attitudinal aspect of organizational commitment (Source: Meyer & Allen, 1991)

With behavioral commitment, the main question is whether a particular behavior will, when shown, be repeated or not, and if it will, under what circumstances, and how the attitudes (or changes in attitudes) arising from that behavior will affect the probability of future repetition of that particular behavior.

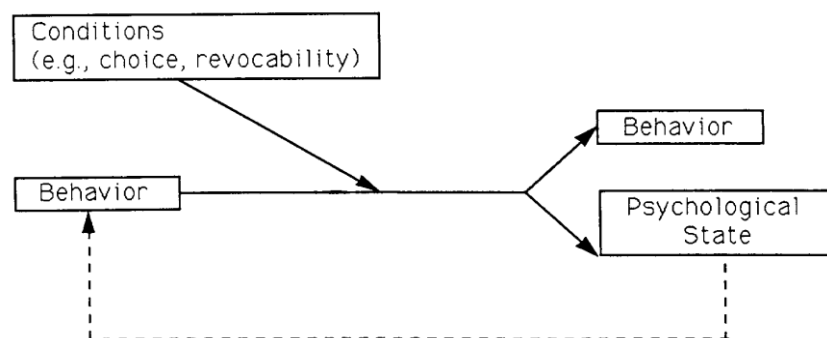


Figure 3 – The behavioral aspect of organizational commitment (Source: Meyer & Allen, 1991)

2.1.2 Theories on Organizational Commitment

A detailed introduction to approaches to organizational commitment the most frequently quoted follows below. In each case, a definition of the concept is given, followed by a discussion of antecedents and outcomes identified in the theory. Based on a categorization by WeiBo, Kaur, & Jun (2010), this overview covers four periods of commitment research:

1. the side bet period;
2. the attitude / affection period;
3. a period of multi-dimensional theories;

4. and contemporary new models.

2.1.2.1 The Side Bet Period

In an attempt at interpreting the concept of commitment, Becker (1960) notices that commitment is a kind of consistent human behaviour. However, argues Becker, it can be considered either a state ('being committed') or action ('make a commitment'), and the trouble with this reasoning, Becker claims, is that if we consider an individual as committed because he has made a commitment, we will end up in a tautology. *'It is a hypothesized event or condition whose occurrence is inferred from the fact that people act as though they were committed. (...) To avoid this tautological sin, we must specify the characteristics of "being committed" independent of the behavior commitment will serve to explain'*, emphasizes Becker (p. 35), and deems to attain his aim through adopting the metaphorical concept of 'side bet', and proposing the following three components of being committed to be observed independently: *'(1) prior actions of the person staking some originally extraneous interest in his following a consistent line of activity; (2) a recognition by him of the involvement of this originally extraneous interest in his present activity and (3) the resulting consistent line of activity'* (p. 36).

The point of this argumentation is that an individual who has, on account of certain prior actions of his, made side bets which have not originally seemed to be related to the behavior he shows in the current decision-making situation, recognizes that relation, and sticks to his consistent behavior in order to avoid a loss.

According to Becker, side bets may derive from multiple sources:

- generalized cultural expectations

An individual's perception of the fact that deviants from norms are punished by the society, is that it is a limitation on his freedom of action, and a certain alternative decision in his current position appears to him a deviation from norms. For instance, he thinks that anyone who keeps changing jobs is looked upon by the society as unreliable, and for this reason he would seem to be like that, should he quit his current job. His perception is that his positive image in the eye of the society would be lost.

- impersonal bureaucratic arrangements

For an individual, considerable financial loss (e.g. that of compensations due on a seniority basis) would result from certain provisions of law, agreements with the organization, or organizational statutes, should he quit his current job.

- individual adjustment to social positions

An individual who has already made efforts to develop certain behavioral patterns (e.g. invested time and money in the acquisition of competencies specific to his job), and managed to achieve success both in his social interactions and job performance through them, would lose his investments, and be compelled to cope with new processes in a new social environment, should he quit his current job. His side bet here is the safety of 'the beaten track'.

- face-to-face interactions

Making reference to Goffman's work (1955), Becker claims that an individual, once he has got an image developed of himself through his face-to-face interactions, feels that he must be equal to that image as fully as possible, and behave himself to this end. An individual with an image of a reliable person arising from his previous behavior cannot afford to be caught telling lies, and is therefore committed to truthfulness. That is to say, a line of activity determined by his former behavior will serve as security for a behavior consistent with it because his image in other people's eyes is at stake.

Clearly, Becker's model deals with commitment as a one-dimensional concept based on the individual's perception that, quitting the organization, he would sustain certain incorporeal or material losses.

Becker did not use any empirical observation to fortify his theory, nor, indeed, he pursued any research to that end. Not a hint whatsoever is given in his paper at a possible way of taking measurement of the concept which he has introduced.

The concept of side bets is not easy to apprehend. Obviously, the range of things which an individual considers important so much so that he sticks to the organization rather than lose them, varies from individual to individual. Early theories (Ritzer & Trice, 1969; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972) sought to define a side bet by means of certain so-called 'anchor variables' deemed to be closely linked therewith, including age, length of service (or organizational tenure), gender, and marital status. The underlying argumentation was that side bets get accumulated with age and length of service, and that women and married employees incur higher perceived expenses when translocating from one organization to another.

Ritzer and Trice (1969) conducted the first data survey meant to test the model outlined above, and worked out a questionnaire with the aim to grasp Becker's commitment concept. They designed their questionnaire to find out the degree of probability to which an individual would have quitted the organization under the pressure of certain inducements (such as higher wages, higher position, etc). Not having found any relation between their anchor variables and organizational commitment, they believed to have proved the side bets theory fundamentally wrong.

In the next similar study, Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) identified in their 12-item questionnaire four so-called 'temptations' (higher salary, higher degree of freedom, higher position, and more friendly colleagues), and respondents were supposed to tell the degree of probability (definitely yes, uncertain, definitely no) to which they would have quitted because of those temptations. However, nor did this study bring about convincing enough results in support of Becker's propositions (Powell & Meyer, 2004).

Cohen and Lowenberg (1990) subjected results from the above-outlined investigations and those from later research to a meta-analysis. Again, most of anchor variables were found to have hardly any relation with Becker's organizational commitment. As regards the reasons, Meyer and Allen (1984) offered a possible explanation: Temptation reduces the perceived measure of loss which would arise from leaving the organization. Consequently, it seems rather unreasonable to derive the strength of Becker's model from any relation between temptations with differing intensities and intention to quit the organization. If an individual does not quit the organization despite of a powerful temptation, it may be indicative of a strong emotional bond. It was on the basis of these arguments of theirs that the authors designed a questionnaire of their own, called Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS), to examine this type of commitment.

Similarly, Shore et al. (2000) conducted investigations into possible relations between side bets and aspects of commitment. They managed to identify five factors of making a side bet. Three of them, namely impersonal bureaucratic arrangements, individual adjustment to social positions, and nonwork concerns, were found to be consistent with those enumerated by Becker, while neither generalized cultural expectations, nor face-to-face interactions had a separate counterpart among the identified factors, apparently because these latter two sources of side bets are medleys of both affective and normative elements. For the remaining two factors, the terms 'organizational responsibility' and 'replaceability' were used by the authors.

2.1.2.2 The Attitude/Affection Period

2.1.2.2.1 Organizational Commitment As Affective Identification with the Organization

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) created a multi-dimensional model for a better understanding of attitudinal commitment. Making reference to Kelman's famous work (1958), they identified three forms of commitment which, like Kelman, they called compliance, identification, and internalization. Compliance will emerge when an individual adopts certain attitudes and behavioral patterns incidental thereto in order to earn certain rewards (or avoid punishments). Identification infers a closer psychological attachment; here the individual accepts influence in order to establish or maintain a relation suitable to him, with a stronger element of discretion as regards acceptance of influence. Internalization, the third step, implies that influence is

accepted because the attitudes and behavioral patterns to be adopted are congruent with the individual's own values, that is to say, the individual has already accepted and internalized the values themselves.

The authors conducted investigations into two outcomes of commitment. A confirmed relation with intention to quit was not particularly novel – as opposed to that with Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB⁵). The latter finding has opened up new vistas for several subsequent pieces of research.

The model is but not one without any trouble. As pointed out by Meyer and Herscovitch, subsequent investigations failed to corroborate the tripartite division as outlined above (Meyer & Herscovitsch, 2001). In their response, the authors merged the category of identification with that of internalization, calling the resultant category normative commitment. The latter is, however, not to be confused with Meyer and Allen's category with the same term, its meaning coming nearer to Meyer and Allen's affective commitment.

In addition, the authors' findings raise a few questions. For instance, they found compliance to show a positive correlation with turnover, while a commitment concept is supposed to travel in a direction opposite to that of turnover. This finding may be explained by the assumption that compliance is an indicator of performance commitment rather than commitment to stay (Meyer & Herscovitsch, 2001).

2.1.2.2.2 Organizational Commitment Based On Mutual Goals

According to the approach adopted by Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian (1974), organizational commitment is a one-dimensional concept related with the individual's emotional attachment to the organization. Specifically, it is a measure of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization, determined by three factors:

1. a strong belief in and acceptance of an organization's goals and values,
2. a willingness to exert considerable efforts on behalf of the organization,
3. a definite desire to maintain organizational membership.

Despite these three underlying factors, the authors fancied the concept as a one-dimensional one (Benkhoff, 1997; Kacmar, Carlson, & Brymer, 1999).

⁵ The concept of Organizational Citizenship Behavior was created by Denis Organ et alii (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Their definition reads like this: 'an individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable'.

The authors sought to investigate into relations between organizational commitment, satisfaction with certain work-related aspects, and turnover, and in this respect they did pioneering work, with these investigations not having been conducted in this way before. Organizational commitment was found to be inversely correlated with turnover, and this may be the force which can make an individual overcome his dissatisfaction with his boss or salary. In addition, the findings showed that, reflecting a more comprehensive and lasting affection, organizational commitment (or an overall attitude to the organization as a whole) could be a better predictor of turnover than job satisfaction (or an attitude to certain work-related aspects) was. On the other hand, the authors claimed that satisfaction with certain work-related aspects might serve as an antecedent to commitment in preparing the way for involvement (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974).

In subsequent research following the authors, several antecedents to and outcomes from commitment were identified. In their summary of findings published to date, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) explored 26 antecedents, falling within categories such as personal characteristics, job characteristics, group-leader relations, organizational characteristics, and role states (age, sex, education, marital status, position tenure, organizational tenure, perceived personal competence, ability, salary, protestant work ethic, job level, skill variety, task autonomy, challenge, job scope, group cohesiveness, task interdependence, leader initiating structure, leader consideration, leader communication, participative leadership, organizational size, organizational centralization, role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload). All these indicate well the great many directions from which organizational commitment have been looked at from the very beginning.

In the same meta-analysis, several variables were identified which, while being neither antecedents to, nor outcomes from organizational commitment, were nevertheless closely related therewith. These include motivation, intrinsic motivation, job involvement, stress, commitment to profession, commitment to trade union, and job satisfaction (on the whole, i.e. satisfaction with internal factors, external factors, superior, colleagues, chances of promotion, salary, and work itself).

As far as outcomes are concerned, eight of them can be identified on the basis of the authors' research, including job performance (others' ratings and output measure), perceived job alternatives, intention to search, intention to leave, attendance, lateness, and turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

To assess commitment, the authors worked out a questionnaire consisting of 15 items (Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, OCQ) which, based on the authors' assumption that commitment is a one-dimensional concept, should rest on a single factor (Benkhoff, 1997;

Kacmar, Carlson, & Brymer, 1999). Respondents were supposed to use Likert's seven-degree scale to tell the degree to which they agreed to each statement, with 'fully disagree' and 'fully agree' being at the extreme ends of the scale, and a commitment index for each respondent was derived from a simple arithmetical average of the values associated with his choices.

Both the definition of commitment as given above and OCQ designed to assess commitment soon became extremely popular, while opinions as to the one-dimensional nature of commitment differed very much. Yousef (2003) reviewed investigations carried out using OCQ. Based on his papers and a few additions thereto, major findings from such investigations are enumerated below.

In several pieces of research, organizational commitment was found to be a one-dimensional concept. They are as follows:

- Mowday (1979) made a data survey on a sample of 2563 employees working in numerous lines for nine different organizations. Through factor analysis, a single factor was found to underlie OCQ.
- Morrow and McElroy (1986) surveyed 563 employees with the same employer in the United States and, again, found a single factor through their analysis.
- Mathieu & Zajac (1990) subjected findings from 174 different surveys to a meta-analysis, and argued in support of a single-factor interpretation.
- By Meyer and Allen (1991), OCQ was found to be suitable for assessing the emotional dimension of commitment and, as such, was recognized to rest on a single factor. (They proposed two more dimensions to add to that assessed by OCQ instead of suggesting that OCQ should be divided for a better understanding of commitment.)
- Having surveyed a sample of 2734 altogether, Dunham, Grube and Castaneda (1994) found that OCQ rested on a single factor, and was basically capable of assessing the emotional component of commitment (in the sense used by Meyer and Allen).
- Ferris and Aranya (2007) got 1105 professional accountants from Canada and the United States involved in their survey and, again, their factor analysis showed that the questions rested on a single factor.

However, others concluded that OCQ in itself comprised more than one factor.

- Having subjected 1244 workers and 96 managers altogether from 24 bus transport services to their survey, Angle and Perry (1981) managed, through an analysis of OCQ,

to detect two dimensions they subsequently called value commitment and commitment to stay, respectively. Their theory is discussed in some more detail in a later section of this thesis.

- Luthans et al. (1985) made surveys among American, Japanese, and Korean employees, arriving at interesting results. Answers from both the American and Japanese samples rested on a single factor, while two dimensions were detectable with Korean respondents. Koh et al. (1995) had the questionnaire completed by 2000 teachers altogether from 100 secondary schools, detecting two principal components (through, in fact, a principal component analysis with adequate rotation). One dimension implied acceptance of organizational values and a willingness to exert extra efforts, while the other was related with intention to quit the organization.
- Bar-Hayim and Berman (1992) to whom 1299 employees from altogether 14 major industrial enterprises returned their survey forms, managed to differentiate between two factors. According to their findings, one of them reflected identification with and involvement in the organization, while the other a desire to remain a member of the organization.
- Having used the 15-item OCQ for their research, Cohen and Gattiker (1992) obtained two separate factors from their factor analysis, namely value commitment and calculative commitment.
- Koslowsky et al. (1990) got policemen involved in their survey, finding as many as three factors which they subsequently called organizational philosophy, loyalty, and pride.
- Benkhoff (1997) reduced the fifteen-item OCQ to a questionnaire consisting of six items, proposing an abbreviated version because he felt that some of the items failed to rest in a clear-cut manner on any of the factors which he had identified. The three dimensions he managed to detect were identical with those proposed by the original authors.

2.1.2.2.3 Organizational Commitment As an Influencing Force Beyond Motivation

Scholl (1981) insists that the relationship of commitment with both the exchange-based expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) and equity theory (Adams, 1965) on motivation be clarified. His reason is that if we view commitment as behavioral intentions arising from an individual's positive exchange-based relationship with the organization or expectation of would-be rewards, we will not materially go beyond the statements or conclusions which the expectancy or equity theory has drawn.

For a conceptual distinction, Scholl defined commitment as ‘a stabilizing force that acts to maintain behavioral direction when expectancy/equity conditions are not met and do not function’ (p. 593). He identified four mechanisms which may underlie commitment as defined above, thus increasing the likeliness of staying with the organization. They include the individual’s investments in relation to the organization (side bets), reciprocity (amount of the individual’s perceived debts, either material or incorporeal, to the organization), lack of alternatives (e.g. because of skills specific to the organization), and identification. Scholl used a 2 by 2 matrix to illustrate the difference between motivation theories and the messages of commitment.

Table 3 - Relationship between motivation theories and commitment (Scholl, 1981)

		Commitment	
		<i>low</i>	<i>high</i>
Expectancy	<i>low</i>	1	2
	<i>high</i>	3	4

According to Scholl, high turnover is likely with employees in the 1st quadrant, while turnovers for the 2nd and 3rd quadrants are nearly the same and lower than that for the 1st quadrant. Employees belonging to the 2nd quadrant stay with the organization because of their high levels of commitment, that is to say, they have made great organization-specific investments and/or they feel that they are indebted to the organization and/or they have got no relevant alternatives and/or they have strongly identified themselves with the organization. Employees belonging to the 3rd quadrant remain within the organization because expectancy and equity conditions are met. Interestingly, according to Scholl, the level of turnover with employees in the 4th quadrant is not lower than in the 2nd or 3rd quadrant because, with exchange-based motivation conditions being met, employees do not brood over the four factors underlying their commitment, that is to say, commitment is irrelevant and predominated by the other dimension.

2.1.2.3 Multi-Dimensional Theories

2.1.2.3.1 Organizational Commitment As Moral, Calculative, and Alienative Attachment

The way the individual is attached to the organization was profoundly investigated by Etzioni (1961) as well. It was on the basis of his work that Penley and Gould (1988) created a commitment model consisting of three components. The three dimensions of commitment identified here are moral, calculative, and alienative commitments. Moral commitment is based on an acceptance of and identification with organizational goals. Calculative commitment is based on the employee’s receiving inducements to match his contributions.

Alienative commitment results when the individual no longer receives compensations commensurate with his efforts, and yet he remains. Causes of staying are to be searched among external circumstances: lack of alternative job options, potential considerable financial loss resulting from quitting, and so on.

Following Etzioni, Penley and Gould (1988) sought to integrate affective and instrumental commitments into a single commitment model. They included calculative commitment into the instrumental category on the grounds of its exchange-based logic: the employee receives inducements from the organization in exchange for his contributions. On the other hand, moral and alienative commitments can be associated with the affective type of commitment. According to the authors, the way moral commitment is related with alienative commitment is similar to the relationship between job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction by Herzberg's theses (1987). That is to say, they are not the two extremes of a dimension. Instead, the opposite of moral commitment is a lack of moral commitment rather than alienative commitment, and, likewise, the opposite of alienative commitment is a lack of alienative commitment rather than moral commitment.

As far as the outcomes of commitment are concerned, the authors found moral commitment to have significant positive correlations with job involvement and desire to retain organizational membership, calculative commitment with two types of ingratiating behavior, and alienative commitment with perceived loss of control over career, respectively.

2.1.2.3.2 Organizational Commitment As Staying and Performance

Similarly, co-authors Mayer and Schoorman considered commitment a multi-dimensional concept (Mayer & Schoorman, 1992). Having referred back to March and Simon's thesis (1958), they described commitment to stay with and commitment to efforts on behalf of the organization as two dimensions of commitment, using the term 'continuance commitment' for a desire to participate and retain organizational membership, and the term 'value commitment' for the individual's willingness to exert efforts on behalf of the organization. They claimed that while these two dimensions are not fully separated, it may be reasonable to treat them as distinct concepts.

Their principal reason for making a distinction between continuance commitment and value commitment was that they had found differing antecedents and outcomes to be associated with high levels of the two commitments.

In particular, continuance commitment was found to be significantly correlated with antecedents such as organizational tenure, retirement benefits, qualifications, and the

employee's age, while value commitment with perceived participation, perceived prestige, job involvement, and role ambiguity, respectively (Mayer & Schoorman, 1998).

As far as outcomes are concerned, value commitment was found to be more closely correlated with voluntary behaviors shown on behalf of the organization (or OCB), job satisfaction and job performance than continuance commitment was, while the latter was found to have a close correlation with quitting. Nearly the same frequency of absence and intensity of intention to stay were found to be linked with high scores of one type of commitment as with those of the other type.

Interestingly, the degree of correlation between absenteeism and continuance commitment was found to be affected by the rigorousness of absence control at work as well. The less an organizational culture was tolerant of absenteeism, the stronger negative correlation was found between continuance commitment and absence. The reason is that since a high level of continuance commitment implies a strong pressure to remain, the individual's perception is that he cannot afford to risk his job by a high absence level under rigorous control at work (Mayer & Schoorman, 1992).

2.1.2.3.3 Value Commitment and Commitment To Stay

As already mentioned before, the theoretical framework and a matching questionnaire (Organizational Commitment Questionnaire or OCQ) developed by Porter et alii soon became extremely popular. The survey tool was adopted in multiple investigations, bringing about rather interesting findings. In several independent studies, the questions of OCQ were found to rest on more than one factors, which gave rise to thinking about commitment as a multi-dimensional concept. One of the pioneering papers was published by Angle and Perry (1981) who, upon an extensive data survey and analysis of OCQ, managed to identify two dimensions, and came to call them value commitment and commitment to stay. The former term is used to describe the degree to which organizational members are willing to accept organizational goals, while the latter refers to the degree of their desire to retain their organizational membership.

The research confirmed that, as its very description indicates, commitment to stay has a very strong negative correlation with the intention to quit. However, an individual's desire to retain his organization membership does not necessarily implies his willingness to work hard for attainment of organizational goals, which makes it reasonable to make a distinction between the two dimensions of commitment. The frequency and measure of tardiness, a key parameter of the quality of work performance, was found, as expected, to be much correlated with value commitment, which involves the lesson that one should refrain from assuming a clearcut and

simple relation between the level of commitment organizational members show and the organizational efficiency, but get to the core of commitment to identify its outcomes exactly.

2.1.2.3.4 Organizational Commitment As Affection, Calculation, and Norm – The Three-Component Model (TCM)

Meyer and Allen (1991) claimed that the model they had created might be of help to integrate and interpret any former scientific finding on organizational commitment, offering a fundamental model for future research commonly known as the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (TCM). Since this theoretical framework has become most popular over the last two decades, it is discussed below in much detail.

2.1.2.3.4.1 *Theoretical foundations of TCM*

Going beyond a mere distinction between attitudinal commitment and behavioral commitment, TCM integrates both into its theoretical framework. A key concept of the model is the psychological state, i.e. a totality of the individual's emotions and beliefs about his relation with the organization. The tripartition of the model is predicated on three different psychological states which constitute the three pillars or components of the model, namely emotional attachment to the organization, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization, and a feeling of obligation to retain organizational membership. The reason why these three dimensions present themselves in the model is that, having taken a survey of literature, Mayer and Allen concluded that, typically, the diverse definitions of commitment are centered round these three topics.

As already mentioned before in this study, it is to Porter et alii that we owe one of the most popular definitions of emotional attachment to the organization. Their OCQ questionnaire is designed to assess the degrees to which the individual is willing to make efforts on behalf of the organization, accepts organizational values and goals, and desires to retain his organizational membership. It is this line of former research that one component of the commitment concept TCM has adopted is constituted by.

A second pillar was offered by findings from investigations into perceived costs associated with commitment. In this subject, Becker had acted as the authors' forerunner, giving rise to much research as discussed above. As contrasted with Mowday et al. (1972), Meyer and Allen (1991) regarded Becker's theory as one of the attitudinal approaches to commitment on the grounds that what Becker had attached key importance to was the individual's recognition, or becoming aware of, his side bets. Being affected by various environmental factors (e.g. the side bets themselves), the resultant psychological state will have some behavioral outcome (such as retention of the organizational membership), which is equivalent to the very argumentation used in an attitudinal approach to commitment.

Commitment relying on obligation is a third pillar. The essential point of this approach, having originated again in previous publications, is the individual's feeling of a moral obligation to remain a member of the organization.

The authors came to call the three respective pillars outlined above affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. An important circumstance, however, they were considered by the authors to be components rather than different types of commitment, demonstrating the fact that they manifest themselves with individuals simultaneously, though to differing degrees.

A common characteristic of all the three components is treatment of commitment as a psychological state, describing the individual's relation with the organization, and bringing about as a consequence the individual's decision as to continuing or discontinuing his organizational membership.

On the other hand, as Mayer and Allen claimed, these psychological states have different natures. There are emotional attachment, identification with the organization, and involvement at the back of affective commitment. It means that the individual is a member of the organization because he wants to be one. Continuance commitment is linked with the individual's recognition that quitting would involve costs. It means that the individual is a member of the organization because of a necessity. Normative commitment is predicated on a feeling of moral obligation to retain his organizational membership, which means that the individual remains out of moral obligation.

As a matter of course, the three components are supposed to have different antecedents and outcomes, otherwise a tripartition like that would offer little added value.

The antecedents and consequences identified by Meyer and Allen are illustrated below:

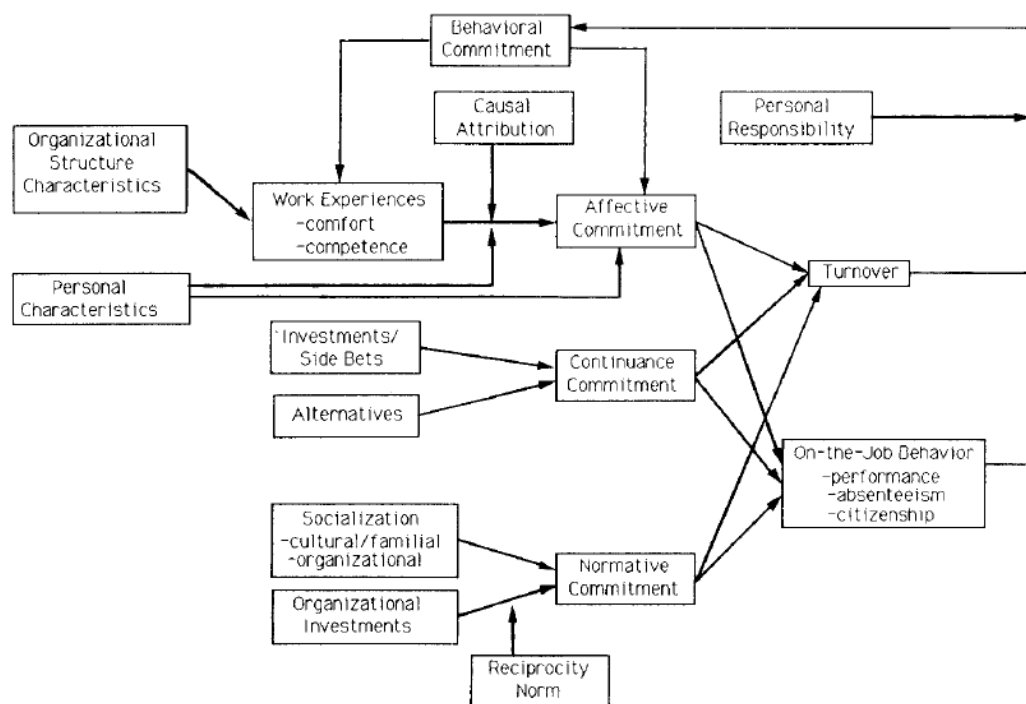


Figure 4 - The conceptual model of TCM (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.: 68)

As Figure 4 shows, there are several antecedents of the three components of commitment. We briefly overview these based on Meyer-Allen (1991).

Affective commitment is influenced by personal characteristics and by organizational structure characteristics (e.g. formalization, decentralization). These affect the amount the individual's hygiene and motivator needs are fulfilled – as Herzberg (1987) underlined. The more the individual attributes the fulfilment of his/her needs to the organization, the more the affective commitment develops. Continuance commitment is based on the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization or on the low number of alternative jobs. Normative commitment stems from socialization and from the organization's investment in the individual, should the individual feel an obligation to reciprocate.

The most relevant consequence variable is turnover (or staying). But there are other notable consequences identified, as the higher performance, the lower number of absences and the organizational citizenship behaviour.

The TCM inspired several researches. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002) conducted a meta-analysis with an aim to summarize these regarding the antecedents to and outcomes from the three components of commitment. Below we discuss briefly their results – whether they have found proofs regarding Meyer and Allen's theoretical framework or not.

Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch és Topolnytsky (2002) underlined that one of the most important outcomes is turnover. With commitment being at issue, there is an expectation that each component is inversely correlated with turnover, that is to say, an increase in each is supposed to involve a decrease in turnover. There are further outcomes of relevance to the organization such as attendance, performance, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior, with which affective commitment is correlated to the highest degree, followed by normative commitment, and continuance commitment having a correlation with them non-significant in statistical terms. Additional outcomes, important but not closely linked with the organization, include the employees' physical condition and well-being, with which correlations do not seem to be clearcut. Certain findings show that affective commitment can mitigate the effects that work stressors exert on the individuals' health, while others claim that it is the very committed employees that take work stress situations worse.

The authors detected differing antecedents to affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. It is the individual's personality and job experience that underlie his affective commitment. As well as by personality, continuance commitment is influenced by levels of the individual's investment in relation to the organization and a lack of alternative job options. The factors playing an important role in the development of normative commitment include the individual's socialization experience and levels of his investment in relation to the organization in addition to personality.

There are factors which cannot be classified as either antecedents or outcomes beyond doubt because, while they are evidently correlated with commitment, the sense of their causal relationship with commitment seems to be questionable. Being concepts nevertheless easily distinguishable from affective commitment to the organization, they include job satisfaction, job involvement and commitment to profession.

Having investigated into the relationship of Meyer and Allen's Three-Component Model with the intention to quit, turnover, and absence, Somers (1995) found these factors to show the strongest correlations with affective commitment. In fact, affective commitment was the only one of the three components which was found to be correlated with turnover and absence at all, while normative commitment was found to have influence on the intention to quit only. While no direct effect by continuance commitment was detectable, it was found to indirectly mitigate the influence of affective commitment on absenteeism and intention to stay.

2.1.2.3.4.2 The empirical testings of TCM

Meyer and Allen created three blocks of questions consisting of 8 questions each, designing them to assess affective commitment (Affective Commitment Scale, ACS), continuance

commitment (Continuance Commitment Scale, CCS) and normative commitment (Normative Commitment Scale, NCS), respectively.

With CCS being predicated on, and related to, Becker's (1960) reasoning, its close examination resulted in a few surprises. McGee and Ford (1987) used a factor analysis to look at that questionnaire, and found two factors easy to interpret (and one more factor difficult to interpret⁶). Questions with reference to perceived individual losses as may arise from quitting (CC:HiSac) were found to rest on one factor, while those relating to a lack of alternatives (CC:LoAlt) on the other. That is to say, a high score of continuance commitment may be attributable to either of two major causes. In one of the cases the individual would have to give up too many things, should he quit the organization, and in the other case the individual is compelled to remain within organizational bounds in lack of other options.

Subsequent analyses pointed out that those two factors were distinct indeed. For instance, having carried out a meta-analysis, Meyer et al (2002) found that the CC:HiSac scale showed a stronger negative correlation with the intention to quit than the CC:LoAlt scale did. Consequently, as recommended by Allen and Meyer (1990), it seems reasonable to regard a lack of alternatives as an antecedent to continuance commitment rather than a part of the concept.

Powell-Meyer (2004) claim that continuance commitment is not identical with intention to stay. The reason is that even an individual with a low level of continuance commitment may have a strong intention to stay if he has a high level of affective or normative commitment. Powell-Meyer (2004) sought to get to the bottom of relations between side bets, the three components of organizational commitment, and intention to quit. Having arisen from a large-scale questionnaire-based survey, their findings appeared to support Becker's theses rather strongly. The authors came to distinguish between seven side-bet categories, including satisfying conditions and lack of alternatives added to Becker's five categories, and found all of them to be significantly correlated with the CC:HiSac scale. Furthermore, commitment turned out to act as a mediating variable for the relation between intention to quit and side bets.

Having examined ACS and CCS for an adequate differentiation on a sample comprising Malaysian librarians, Karim and Noor (2006) found that adequate differentiation existed between the two scales, and that convergent validity criteria, discriminant validity criteria, and reliability criteria were all met.

⁶ It was constituted by items Nos. 9 and 12 of the questionnaire in a way beyond comprehension for the authors. For sure, they were two reversely coded questions in CCS, a fact which found significance in the light of research by Magazine et al. (1996) later.

Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda (1994) carried out nine different examinations, and having analyzed the data obtained, found the three components, as defined in TCM, to be distinct, and two dimensions of continuance commitment (i.e. few alternatives, and high level of sacrifice) to be detectable. However, with questions Nos. 18. and 24 in NCS pertaining to general loyalty norms rather than a feeling of moral obligation to continue employment, their content validity appeared to be doubtful. Indeed, the contributions of these questions to the model turned out to be poor enough.

Hackett, Bycio and Hausdorf (1994) examined the structural validity of TCM. According to their findings from a survey of a sample comprising nurses and bus drivers, the three components were seen as distinct, and found typically to be linked with different sets of antecedents and outcomes.

Again, Cohen (1996) found an adequate distinction between the three factors, that is to say, they all had high levels of discriminant validity. Furthermore, with these components, either taken separately or jointly, being adequately different from other similar concepts (such as job involvement, work involvement, and protestant work ethic), TCM itself was found to exhibit a high level of discriminant validity. In addition, when assessed with TCM, organizational commitment showed a better fit with the models than when it was measured with OCQ for comparison.

2.1.2.3.4.3 Criticisms On and Developments of TCM

In our time, TCM is considered a predominant theoretical model for investigations into organizational commitment (Solinger, van Olffen, & Roe, 2008), which can be explained by its advantages: the three dimensions have acceptable discriminant validities as well as the content validity of the three-dimensional approach is acceptable. In addition, the scales adopted have adequate validities (Cohen, 2007).

At the same time, numerous criticisms in content, assessment, and practical terms have been formulated:

- Vandenberg and Self (1993) claimed that new hires into an organization might find it difficult to interpret questions designed to assess affective commitment or continuance commitment. For this reason, care should be taken in applying the questionnaire to new hires.
- Magazine et al. (1996) found certain items of ACS and CCS (i.e. items Nos. 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, and 12 in the complete questionnaire) to be problematic on account of their reverse coding (reverse codiscoring effect), i.e. they rested on a separate factor, which may impair reliability and validity.

- Having surveyed two samples in South Korea, Ko et al. (1997) found questions designed to assess continuance commitment to have low levels of reliability, and affective and normative commitments to have low levels of discriminant validity. For the former finding, they offered the explanation that as opposed to the logic of TCM, continuance commitment was a behavioral rather than attitudinal issue, while the latter finding was thought to result from a theoretical overlapping of the two components in question.

Moreover, they pointed out a more general problem, claiming that *'Meyer and Allen did not offer a precise definition of commitment that embraces the affective, continuance, and normative components. They simply noted that what is common to the three components is a "psychological state" that links the employee to the organization, but it is not clear what is meant by this psychological state'* (Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997, p. 970).

For the most part because of the criticisms quoted above, the questions of TCM designed to assess continuance commitment (too) were subsequently improved. In particular, making corrections with a general effect on all the three components, Meyer-Allen (1997) came to distinguish between two dimensions of the continuance component (i.e. few alternative job options, and a high level of personal sacrifice); Culpepper (2000) suggested omission of questions Nos. 4 (ACS), 9, 12 (CCS), 18 and 24 (NCS); and finally, revising CCS thoroughly and making an addition, Powell-Meyer (2004) proposed nine questions, with three of them intended to assess the dimension for few alternative job options, and the remaining six the dimension for a high level of personal sacrifice, respectively.

- Solinger, van Olffen and Roe (2008) subjected the fundamental conception of TCM to their criticism. They claimed that TCM was not recognizable as a comprehensive organizational commitment model because, among others, the underlying assumption to the effect that each of the three components of commitment constituted an attitude towards the organization, was wrong.

While affective commitment is an attitude towards the organization indeed, continuance and normative commitments represent attitudes towards certain courses of action (i.e. retaining or quitting the organization), with the attitudes relying on outcomes hypothesized by the individual, rather than those towards certain targets. That is to say, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment represent attitudes with differing natures and are directed at different objects.

Attitudes towards targets should not be confused with those towards courses of action. The authors used the following sample by way of illustration: According to TCM, it is from employees' normative commitment that we can derive their quality concerns about products manufactured by the organization. By doing so, we have used intention to stay to account for quality concerns, that is to say, used normative pressures towards course of action B (retaining the organization) to explain course of action A (remarking on quality concerns). As a matter of course, correlation will be low. It would become higher if we brought the remarking on quality concerns into relation with an attitude towards the taking of steps to improve quality. Proposing an alternative model, the authors regarded commitment as an attitude, and sought to throw light upon the relationship between attitudes interpreted with view to certain targets and those towards certain courses of action. To this end, they went back to Eagly-Chaiken's attitude-behavior model, of which a detailed discussion is given in Subclause 2.1.2.3.4.3.2 below.

2.1.2.3.4.3.1 Motivational TCM

The numerous commitment definitions seek to grasp the target of commitment in a variety of ways. TCM declares the organization a target of commitment in a clear-cut manner. The inconsistencies with this opinion have encouraged other scientists to expand this interpretation of the concept, giving rise to the creation of a new definition as follows:

'Commitment is a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets' (Meyer & Herscovitsch, 2001, p. 301).

Now the question is how a range of such goals and targets can be identified, and whether the individual gets committed to a course of action or entity. To the end that an answer be found, Meyer and Herscovitsch (2001) worked out a pair of concepts, namely focal behavior and discretionary behavior. For comprehension of these concepts, a close look at the authors' train of thought is needed.

The starting point is that individuals may get committed to both courses of action (e.g. efforts made to attain organizational goals) and entities (e.g. organizations, associations, professions). That is why Meyer and his research team defined commitment as a course of action of relevance to an entity. Whenever commitment is interpreted in relation to an entity, the relevant action is either stated explicitly or at least implied. Similarly, whenever the point under discussion is commitment to a course of action, the entity to which it is relevant is usually stated or implied in a clear-cut manner. Consequently, according to the authors' reasoning, attention should be paid to both the entity and courses of action, and moreover, for an understanding of the outcomes from commitment, it is desirable that both be identified.

When we talk about commitment to an entity, we should also state the course of action relevant thereto to ensure that we can infer outcomes of commitment much more exactly than we could do without an explicit statement like that. For instance, with commitment to the organization, relevant courses of action may include attainment of organizational goals. On the other hand, when we are to examine commitment to a course of action, we will be able to make much better predictions if we are aware of the target of commitment. In their sample, the authors used provision of high-quality customer service as a course of action. Whether the individual's commitment to customer satisfaction or that to organizational profits is at the back of a behavior like that, does make a difference. With the former, the employee may even counteract organizational interests (and, for instance, recommend the products of a rival firm if he thinks it is the best for the customer), while with the latter, a short-term profit target may impair the customer recurrence rate.

Accordingly, Meyer and Herscovitch define commitment as a psychological state with several possible forms of manifestation which links the individual to a course of action relevant to a specific target. [It is on account of this definition that the revision of TCM as outlined above is commonly called a motivation-based interpretation of TCM (Solinger, van Olffen, & Roe, 2008)].

Such courses of action can be either so-called 'focal behaviors' or 'discretionary behaviors'.

A focal behavior is defined as a course of action which results from the individual's commitment, or to which he is attached by his commitment (e.g. retaining organizational membership for organizational commitment). It always relates to a certain target which may be an entity (e.g. organization), abstract concept (e.g. statutes) or outcome from a course of action (e.g. attainment of a goal). On the other hand, a discretionary behavior is defined as a course of action which the individual decides on his own accord, or which is at his discretion, to take or not to take. Discretionary behaviors are always shown in addition to focal behaviors, and beneficial to the target of commitment, but typically, no one would blame the individual for not taking such actions. OCB is a good example. The point of distinction lies in the fact that these two types of behavior are affected by components of commitment, whether taken separately or jointly, in different ways. For instance, affective commitment shows correlations with a wider range of outcomes (or focal behaviors) than continuance or normative commitment does, and those correlations are typically stronger with all possible outcomes (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnysky, 2002). Similarly, affective commitment makes discretionary behaviors more likely than the other two components of commitment do. An individual emotionally committed to an organizational change initiative is most likely to exert an effort to set the idea in motion greater than he would out of mere obligation, while a course

of action like that is less likely with those who identify themselves with the initiative either out of a sense of duty or under necessity. Members belonging to either of the latter two groups are most likely to do nothing beyond their obligations proper.

As far as combined effects are concerned, Meyer and Herscovitsch (2001) used the figure below to illustrate correlations of particular commitment profiles with occurrence probabilities of focal and discretionary behaviors.

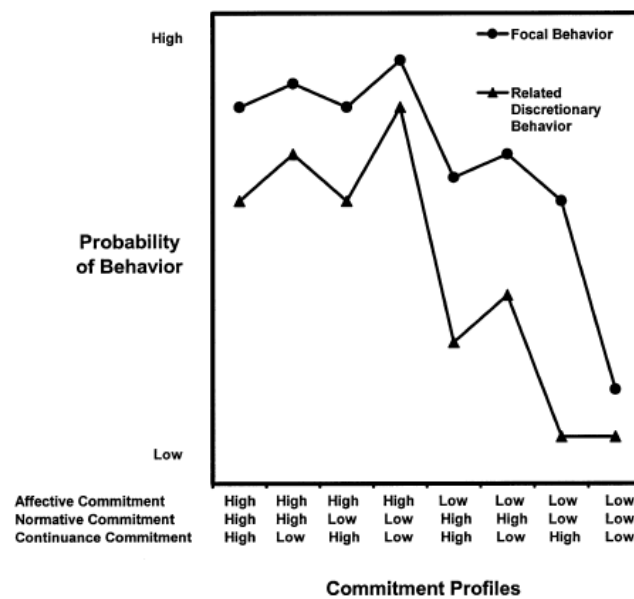


Figure 5 - Effects of commitment profiles on focal and discretionary behaviors

As clear from the figure, the probability of either a focal or discretionary behavior is the highest when affective commitment stands alone. It is followed by the case when affective commitment is accompanied by a high level of normative commitment and/or continuance commitment. Normative commitment alone is more likely to involve a focal behavior than continuance commitment alone would. Furthermore, when standing alone, continuance commitment makes focal behaviors more likely than low levels of all commitment components would, while with discretionary behaviors there is no such difference.

Accordingly, the authors created a general commitment model, which they used the figure below to illustrate:

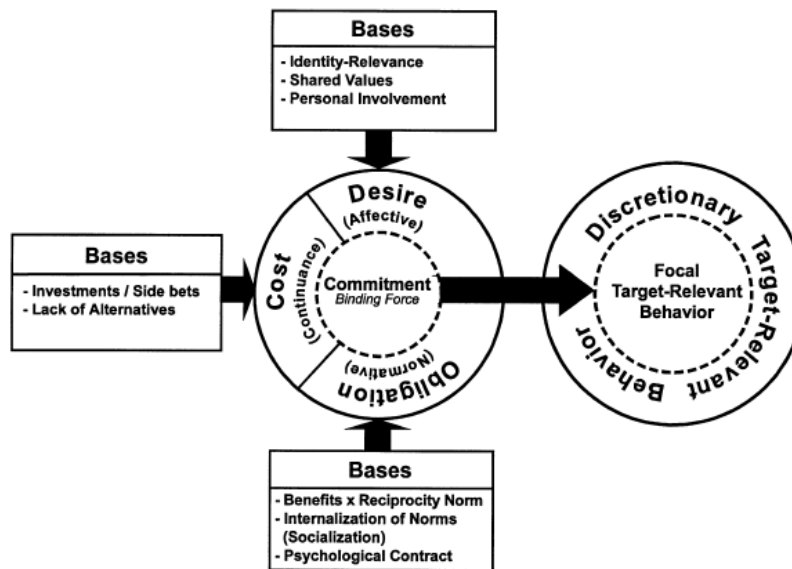


Figure 6 – The conceptual model of motivation-based TCM

As shown in the figure, commitment acts as a binding force attaching the individual to courses of action of relevance to certain targets. Such courses of action may include focal behaviors and discretionary behaviors. Note that rather than one pertaining to organizational commitment in a narrow sense of the word, this is a generalized commitment model with three distinct components of commitment. The three components result from three different psychological states with differing antecedents. At the back of affective commitment, there are personal or situational variables which increase the probability that 1) the individual will be intrinsically motivated to take an action, 2) he will recognize the alignment of his own values with an entity or course of action, and 3) he will derive his identity from attachment to an entity or from a target-relevant behavior. Continuance commitment originates in two sources, namely a lack of alternatives, and a perceived high level of side bets. Antecedents to normative commitment include norms which the individual has internalized through the socialization process, rewards received which make the individual develop a feeling of moral indebtedness, and a psychological contract. Whether taken separately or jointly, the components have influence on both focal behaviors and discretionary behaviors.

Empirical Findings

Gellatly, Meyer and Luchak (2006) examined how the three components of commitment affected focal and discretionary behaviors. Like most scientists seeking to test Meyer and Allen's model, they used staying intention as the focal behavior, and OCB among others as a discretionary behavior.

The highest likelihood of both focal and discretionary behaviors were found with employees with an affective dominated commitment profile (AC), followed, in a decreasing order, by employees with a normative dominated commitment profile (NC), those with a continuance dominated commitment profile (CC), and those with a low commitment profile (LC) (the latter two categories being associated with equally low levels of discretionary behavior). It means that presence of even a single component may serve as a binding force. Interestingly, however, continuance commitment was not found to be significantly different from a low commitment profile in terms of their relation to the focal behavior.

Any component of commitment showed the highest correlation with the focal behavior when the other two components had low scores.

The hypothesis that a co-occurrence of normative or continuance commitment with an affective dominated profile would moderate the latter's influence on the focal behavior, did, however, not prove true. Quite the contrary, either would amplify the willingness to retain organizational membership.

On the other hand, Meyer and Herscovitch's presuppositions (2001) about discretionary behaviors were more or less vindicated except for a finding of Gellatly et al. (2006) to the effect that individuals with a purely normative commitment profile were the most likely to show a discretionary behavior, those with a purely affective dominated commitment profile taking only second place. Refer to Subclause 2.1.2.4.1 for a more detailed discussion of the latter finding.

As expected, the correlation between affective commitment and discretionary behavior was found to be stronger when both normative and continuance commitment levels were low than when one or the other had a high level. On the other hand, said correlation was found to be the strongest when normative and continuance commitments scored equally high. Normative commitment was found to show the strongest correlation with the discretionary behavior when affective and continuance commitments scored equally low. Again, continuance commitment was found to exhibit a peculiar nature: it had the strongest negative influence on discretionary behaviors when affective commitment scored low, and normative commitment scored high, rather than with both affective and normative commitments having low levels.

Generally speaking, a high level of an employee's affective commitment seems to increase his likelihood to retain organizational membership and his willingness to exert efforts beyond his mere duties. It holds true of normative commitment as well with the only exception mentioned above. Though continuance commitment may contribute to retention, individuals who retain their organizational membership because of the potential losses to be sustained

upon quitting, will probably be less willing to adopt OCB than those who stay for reasons different from that.

A novelty and considerable advancement, the authors regard a commitment profile as a context having influence on the way the individual perceives each components of his commitment. For instance, the significance of normative commitment as perceived by the individual is not the same when combined with high affective commitment as when combined with low affective commitment. The approach outlined above throws light upon numerous findings on the nature of normative and continuance commitments otherwise not easily interpretable.

Co-occurring with affective commitment, normative commitment was found to show equally strong correlations with focal and discretionary behaviors. With a low level of the affective component and high level of the continuance component present, however, it showed a low positive correlation with the focal behavior, and negative correlation with the discretionary behavior. The authors accounted for it by saying that normative commitment had different meanings in the two cases. In the former case, the individual's attitude was like this, 'I must, and want to, act like that', while in the latter case, 'I must act like that to fulfill my duty'. In other words, the very same normative commitment was seen in very different ways.

According to the authors, an attitude like that explains why the correlation between discretionary behavior and affective commitment was the strongest when normative and continuance commitments were equally high. Affective commitment has a strong contextual influence on normative commitment, and one stronger than continuance commitment has. As affective commitment increases, obligation will gradually become vocation. For this reason, an increase in the level of affective commitment will change the aspect of normative commitment, contributing to an increase in the likelihood of discretionary behavior.

2.1.2.3.4.3.2 TCM Embedded in Eagly and Chaiken's (1993) Model

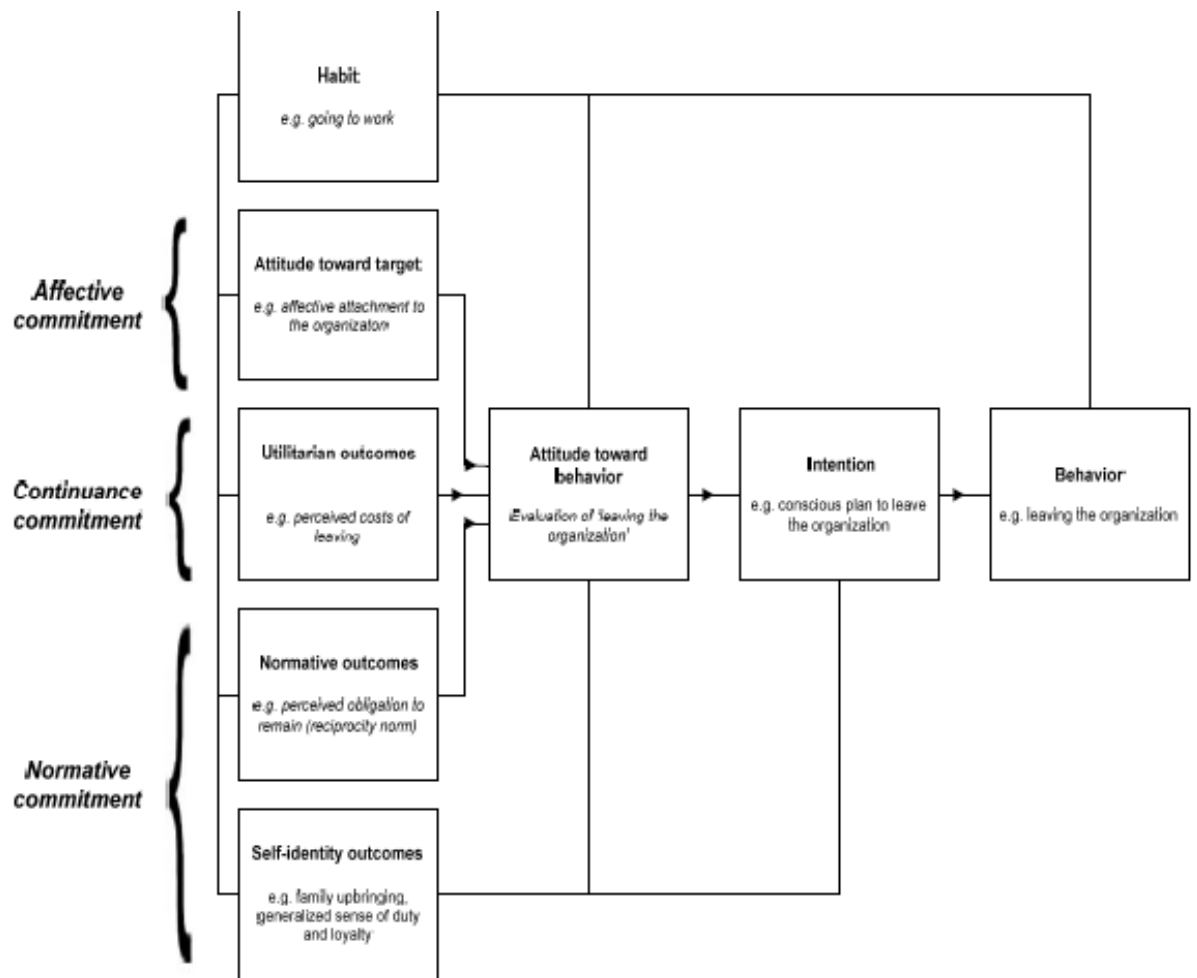


Figure 7 - Eagly and Chaiken's (1993) model and TCM integrated. Source: Solinger, van Olffen, Roe, 2008, p. 73

As shown in the figure, the integrated model is based on an idea that TCM is equivalent to the process outlined in Eagly and Chaiken's model in the way it is realized in a special organizational context (Solinger, van Olffen, & Roe, 2008). The figure above shows how TCM can be interpreted within Eagly and Chaiken's model. The term 'Habit' refers to a particular action, and 'Attitude toward target' in this context signifies the very affective attachment to the organization. Furthermore, 'Utilitarian outcomes' correspond to continuance commitment, while 'Normative outcomes' and 'Self-identity outcomes' are analogous to normative commitment. All these result in an 'Attitude toward behavior' underlying 'Intention' which will, in its turn, induce a behavior.

In this model, attitudes towards a target are related with those towards a behavior in a clear-cut manner. The main message of this integrated model is that being identical with an attitude toward a target (i.e. the organization), organizational commitment should be identified with affective commitment, and the other two components as ones representing attitudes towards behaviors, should be treated separately. Actually, the latter two, though playing a significant role in influencing the behavior, fall outside the notion of organizational commitment.

Consequently, TCM should rather be considered a theoretical framework capable of describing antecedents to the quitting of the organization, and cannot be used as a fundamental model of organizational commitment.

2.1.2.4 Recent Models

2.1.2.4.1 The Time-Dependent Commitment Theory

Interpreting commitment as an attitude exclusively, Cohen (2007) developed a four-component commitment theory. The author's intention was to create a model which, relying on the most common commitment theories, '*builds upon the strengths of the current approaches and minimizes their limitations*' (p. 336). Out of the intention, a theoretical framework defining four components was produced.

The four component are arranged along two dimensional axes. On axis is related with time, differentiating between one period before the entry to the organization and another thereafter. The other dimension is used to grasp the bases of commitment, i.e. instrumental attachment and psychological attachment. The two axes mark out the location of the four components as shown in the table below:

Table 4- Theoretical foundations of the time-dependent commitment theory

Commitment dimensions		Bases of commitment	
		<i>Instrumental attachment</i>	<i>Psychological attachment</i>
Timing	<i>Before entry to the organization</i>	Normative commitment propensity	Normative commitment propensity
	<i>After entry to the organization</i>	Affective commitment	Affective commitment

Commitment propensity is defined '*as the aggregation of specific personal characteristics and experiences that individuals bring to organizations, such that a stable attachment to the organization is more likely to develop*' (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982 in: Cohen 2007, p. 342). It is worth studying because, while commitment can *per definitionem* develop only upon entry into the organization, commitment propensity will have influence on how strong and what nature of a commitment develops.

Normative commitment as defined in TCM is presented here as commitment propensity with due regard to the fact that evidently and in TCM too, the underlying factors of, or important

antecedents to, normative commitment, namely family and education, precede entry into the organization in time. While TCM considers the socialization process taking place upon entry as another security for normative commitment, Cohen disputes the contribution of organizational experiences to the evolution of this component, discussing normative commitment as commitment propensity associated with the period preceding entry into the organization. This normative commitment propensity emerges in Cohen's theory as an antecedent to affective commitment, which underpins theoretically the high correlations between affective commitment and normative commitment as was detected by several pieces of empirical research designed to test TCM.

Instrumental commitment here is similar to TCM's continuance commitment, with but an essential difference: this is about the potential benefits of staying rather than the costs an individual would incur, should he quit the organization. It uses the logic of a business transaction: it is indicative of the individual's perception of the relation between his own contribution to the organization and the inducements received in return. Actually, this kind of perception is meaningful both before and after entry.

The figure below illustrates antecedents to and outcomes from the four components:

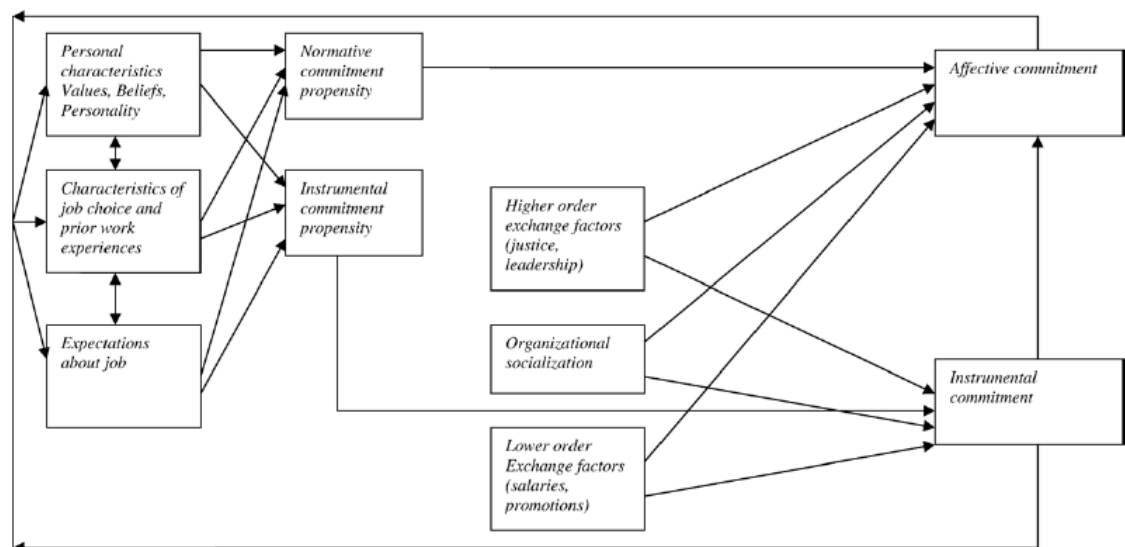


Figure 8 – The conceptual model of the time-dependent commitment theory

Three antecedents to commitment propensity include personal characteristics, characteristics of job choice and prior work experiences, and expectations about the job. Normative commitment propensity acts as an antecedent to affective commitment, while instrumental commitment propensity acts as an antecedent to instrumental commitment, with both commitments being affected by organizational socialization. Higher order exchange factors are

primarily relevant to the evolution of affective commitment, while lower order exchange factors seem to be more closely related with instrumental commitment.

2.1.2.4.2 The Commitment Profiles Theory

The idea that different employees may exhibit the three components of commitment with differing intensities simultaneously, has marked out a new direction of research. Turning their attention from investigations into the antecedents and outcomes of particular components, scientists came to examine how particular combinations of commitment components affected certain outcomes, and what typical conjunctions of commitment components were detectable at the same time. Out of a rather poor supply of studies available on the matter, three papers are worth mentioning.

Upon a data analysis, Somers (2009) detected five commitment profiles on a sample of 288 nurses, including high commitment, affective-normative dominated commitment, continuance-normative dominated commitment, continuance dominated commitment, and low commitment. Having examined correlations of the profiles with certain phenomena at work (intention to quit, job-seeking, absence, tardiness, work stress, and cross-domain stress), he found the majority of favourable work domain outcomes such as low levels of intention to quit, work stress, and cross-domain stress, to be linked with the affective-normative profile. There was no detectable difference between the profiles in terms of tardiness and, surprisingly, the continuance-normative profile was associated with the lowest level of absence.

Using cluster analysis, Wasti (2005) managed to detect five out of the eight profiles proposed by Meyer and Herscovitsch (2001), and added one more, calling her six profiles high commitment, low commitment, affective dominated, continuance dominated, affective-normative dominated, and neutral. Having examined the profiles for their correlations with three outcomes, namely intention to quit, work withdrawal, and work stress, she found that it was the low commitment profile that was likely to bring about the least favourable development of the three outcomes, while with profiles such as high commitment, affective-normative dominated and affective dominated, the three outcomes were the most favourable. Remarkably, a high level of continuance commitment did not involve favourable work domain outcomes. Furthermore, it is important to note that favourable outcomes are most likely to present themselves when affective commitment scores high, especially if it co-occurs with a low level of continuance commitment.

Though adopting a different approach, Gellatly et al. (2006) arrived at similar findings. Instead of deriving profiles by means of factor analysis or cluster analysis, they resorted to a median cut, linking each respondent to one of the eight profiles arbitrarily. Again, according to their findings, the affective dominated profile correlates with work withdrawal and OCB to the

highest extent, and when normative commitment is also added, association will become even stronger with the likelihood of focal behavior (i.e. retention of organizational membership) and discretionary behavior (i.e. OCB). It is slightly inconsistent with the hypothesis proposed by Meyer and Herscovitsch (2001) (refer to Figure 4 above) who did not recognise an additive effect of AC like that.

Similarly, McNally-Irving (2010) used a median cut to derive profiles, and investigated into correlations with focal behaviors (intention to quit) and discretionary behaviors (OCB). Based on their findings, most of all favourable outputs seem to be correlated with the presence of AC. Even when AC stands alone, the scores of output variables will be more favourable than with a purely NC or purely CC profile, and when it is combined with another component, it will have a fortifying effect. Component CC exhibits a peculiar behavior: when standing alone, it shows hardly any difference in terms of its correlations with output variables from the low commitment profile, and tends to reduce the beneficial additive effect of AC, especially in relation to discretionary behaviors. NC was found to behave in an interesting manner too, the relevant findings being consistent with those supplied by Gellatly et al. (2006). In particular, the two-fold nature of NC manifested itself again. When it is combined with a high level of AC, and CC is absent, the likelihood of desirable (focal and discretionary) behaviors will increase. On the other hand, when it is combined with CC, and AC is not dominant, the same likelihood will decrease. The cause of the phenomenon is not clear. According to a possible explanation offered by the authors, with a CC-NC profile the feeling of a moral obligation to stay may be correlated with a desire to meet other people's expectations rather than a deep-seated conviction of the individual, with the latter possibly underlying an AC-NC profile (McNally & Irving, 2010).

Markovits, Davis and van Dick (2007) studied the possible correlations of commitment profiles with job satisfaction. Based on their findings, profile HC scoring high in all the three components of commitment was associated with the highest level of satisfaction with internal and external factors, followed by the AC dominated profile taking the second place, and the AC-NC profile taking the third place. Here CC proved to be 'harmful' to a less extent. On the other hand, there was hardly any difference between the no commitment profile (LC) and the CC dominated profile in their influence on the output variable. Any interpretation of the findings should, however, make allowance for the fact that instead of focal and discretionary behaviors, satisfaction was used here as an output variable, and the survey was made in a different cultural context, i.e. Greece (Markovits, Davis, & van Dick, 2007).

2.1.3 Summary

Main features of the theories outlined above are summarized in the table below:

Table 5 - Major commitment theories

Commitment model	Becker	Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974	Angle & Perry, 1981	O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986	Penley & Gould, 1988	Meyer & Allen, 1991	Mayer & Schoorman, 1992
Dimensions of commitment		acceptance of goals	value commitment	compliance	moral	affective	value
	side bets		commitment to stay	identification	calculative	continuance	continuance
				internalization	alienative	normative	
Antecedents to commitment ⁷	generalized cultural expectations impersonal bureaucratic arrangements individual adjustment to social positions face-to-face interactions	solid faith in and acceptance of organizational goals and values willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization positive desire to remain a member of the organization	acceptance of organizational goals intention to retain organizational membership	earn rewards or avoid punishments establish or maintain a relation suitable to the individual attitudes and behaviors to be adopted in congruence with the individual's own values	acceptance of organizational goals inducements to match contributions lack of alternative job options, potential considerable financial losses upon quitting	emotional attachment to the organization high perceived costs of leaving the organization feeling of moral obligation ----- personality work experiences alternative job options individual investments specific to the organization socialization experiences	organizational tenure retirement benefits qualifications age perceived participation perceived prestige job involvement role ambiguity
Outcomes from commitment ⁸	quitting	quitting	intention to quit frequency and extent of tardiness	prosocial behavior quitting (-)	retention of organizational membership control over career work involvement ingratiation	quitting OCB stress	OCB job satisfaction work performance intention to stay quitting absenteeism

⁷ Antecedents discussed empirically or theoretically in the theory as published, by the authors of the theory

⁸ Outcomes discussed empirically or theoretically in the theory as published, by the authors of the theory

2.2 The Work and Family Life Domains

After studying the relationship between the individual and the world of work we shall move on to broaden our focus to include another fundamental life domain: that of the family.

We shall explore the mutual relationship and influence of work and family life domains in the life of the individual and the possible consequences to both individuals and organizations. To have a proper understanding of the work-family interface, it seems appropriate first to give an overview of the basic principles of the role theory and then to have a look at the relevant models that have followed in the past few decades. First, I shall overview those theories which describe the negative influences between work and family life domains with special regard to the most frequently studied so-called work-family conflict (WFC) model. Secondly, I shall outline the theory of a positive relationship: work-family enrichment (WFE). Finally, I intend to elaborate on the concept of work-family balance (WFB), which puts the subject in a broader perspective.

2.2.1 The concept of work

Studies concerning the work and family interface have defined the concept of (paid) work in several – sometimes contradictory – ways (Trask, 2010).

According to one of the most often cited definitions 'work' is an instrumental activity intended to provide goods and services to support life (Piotrowski, Rapoport, & Rapoport, 1987). During this the individual contributes to the realisation of the mission of an organization while getting financial compensation. (Kabanoff, 1980) To sum up: *'A set of (prescribed) tasks that an individual performs for material rewards while occupying a position in an organization'* (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003, p. 280).

In the above definitions five key elements may be identified, each emphatic and contributes equally to the whole concept:

- Prescribed: doing work here refers to the sum of activities during which the individual has a limited level of freedom. He may decide what to do and how to complete something in a given task but leisure time activity and work is clearly different in that the latter is set/prescribed by outer limitations.
- Occupying a position in an organization: the majority of research - including my own - has focused on work done by persons belonging to, and in the interest of a certain organization.

- Tasks: the work process involves the completion of a series of subsequent tasks.
- Instrumental: work is not done for its own sake, i.e. it is not a 'l'art pour l'art' activity but is done towards specifically set objectives. (This, of course, does not mean the exclusion of intrinsic motivation or ignoring further work-related objectives).
- Material rewards: doing work entails material rewards for the individual. Therefore, - according to our usage of terms- where no such element is present we may not refer to 'work'.

2.2.2 The concept of family

Based on everyday experiences, everyone is aware of the meaning of the word 'family' – yet the exact content is not so evident. Therefore, I shall briefly present the possible interpretations of the same concept.

The central element of the concept is the nucleus of the family or the nuclear family. *'Family, sociologically speaking, is a small group living together, the members of which are bound together by marriage, common ancestry, in other words, those who live in blood- or, in exceptional cases, adoptive relation to one another.'* (Andorka, 1997, p. 353) To sum up, the classic concept of the nuclear family covers a married couple and their children.

Family is to be distinguished from household which is *'formed by a group of people who live together, share living expenses, (have meals and use durable goods together) and are generally but not necessarily relatives'* (Andorka, 1997, p. 353).

Research on the work-family interface has hardly been able to cover all the complicated family types (Hoffmann-Riem, 1988; Vaskovics, 2000) in society. Since the majority of relevant theoretical models are based on 'fill-in form' surveys, interviewees are left to think of whatever they wish when reading questions about work and family issues. This method can be advantageous because it may be able to 'channel' family models however complex and sociologically underrepresented they might be. A shortcoming, however, is that the integration of the family concept into these theories is not sufficiently sophisticated.

Considering that in relevant research outstanding importance is given to household-related issues and also – as we have demonstrated – family constellations can be of a rather complex nature, present study intends to interpret the concept of family in a broader sense, rather similarly to the definition of 'household' as follows:

'Family is formed by a group of people who live together, share living expenses, (have meals and use durable goods together) and are related by biological ties,

marriage, social custom, or adoption' (Piotrowski, Rapoport, & Rapoport, 1987; Andorka, 1997).

2.2.3 Relationship between work and family life domains

Drawing on research by Geurts és Demerouti (2003) theories dealing with the relationship between family and life domains can be put into three groups:

1. Classic theories: segmentation, compensation, spillover
2. Role-related theories: role strain, role enhancement/accumulation
3. Current theories

2.2.3.1 Classic and role-related theories

On the basis of Edwards and Rothbard (2000) a summary is given of the most frequently analyzed classic and role-related theories. Classic theories involve the analysis of underlying theoretical structures concerning segmentation , compensation, spillover and congruence while role-related theories refer to resource drain and work-family conflicts .

2.2.3.1.1 Classic theories

2.2.3.1.1.1 Segmentation

This theory sharply distinguishes work and family-related issues relying on the fundamental proposition that the former has no influence on the latter. It ranks among the oldest theoretical approaches with roots going back to the 1950's. In 1956 Dubin published his thesis proposing that these two life domains are to be regarded as separate psychological, physical, time-managerial and functional entities (Cifre –Salanova, 2009) At first, this thesis was grounded on the hypothesis that the separation of the two domains is a natural process . At present, however , it tends to be regarded more as the result of a conscious process in which the individuals willfully try to separate them minimizing their influence on each-other.

2.2.3.1.1.2 Compensation

This theory implies the negative correlation between the domains of work and family when dissatisfaction in one domain urges the individual to seek fulfillment in the other. This process has two forms : the individual decreases involvement in one dissatisfactory domain in order to increase involvement in the other. In the second case the individual reacts to dissatisfaction in one domain by seeking positive (satisfactory) way-outs in the other. This second case has two further variants : the individual tries to compensate shortcomings in one domain in the other domain (complementary compensation) while negative experiences in one domain are compensated by contrary experiences in the other (reactive compensation).

2.2.3.1.1.3 Spillover

By and large, this theory implies a case when mutual influence of work or/and family domains lead to one becoming similar to the other. (Crouter, 1984)

We may differentiate between negative and positive spillover (Grzywacz & Marks, 1999) The latter means *'The transfer of positively valenced affect, skills, behaviors, and values from the originating domain to the receiving domain thus having beneficial effects on the receiving domain'* (Hanson, Hammer & Colton, 2006, p. 251).

2.2.3.1.1.4 Congruence

This theory, again, refers to the similarities between work and family domains. Contrary to spillover, which is grounded on the mutual influence in the creation of similarities between the two domains, congruence implies that the same objective is reached by a third antecedent variable.

2.2.3.1.1.5 Relationship between classic theories

Kabanoff (1980) studied work and family interface – or to be precise that of 'work' and 'non-work' - along five dimensions. On the basis of autonomy, variety, skill utilization, stress and social interaction he made a distinction between 'active' (high level) and 'passive' (low level) experience of the five dimensions both in the world of work and non-work. This proposition can be followed in a 2x2 matrix in which the theories of spillover and compensation can be inserted.

Table 6 – Relationship between classic theories (Kabanoff, 1980)

	Passive work	Active work
Passive non-work	Passive spillover	Reactive compensation
Active non-work	Supplemental compensation	Active spillover

According to this, we can talk about passive spillover when autonomy, variety, skill utilization, pressure and social interaction stay at a low level in both work and outside work domains. Reactive compensation characteristically appears when the five dimensions are present at a low level in family life but the individual tries to overcome these negative domestic experiences at the workplace. Complementary compensation means that – regarding the five dimensions - the individual seeks satisfaction outside the workplace for those needs which can not be fulfilled at work. Active spillover supposes a high level presence of the five dimensions in both domains.

2.2.3.1.2 Role-related theories

Before the presentation of these theories it is necessary to clarify the concept of 'role'. Fábíán (2007) gives an excellent summary of its development and definitions that evolved along scientific and theoretical paradigms. To have an understanding of role-related research it is not necessary to elaborate in detail on the subject. It will suffice to use Fábíán's synthetising definition as a starting point: *'on the one hand 'role' means a set of behaviour-regulatory expectations linked to a given position in society. These expectations are mediated to the individual by social sub-systems. On the other hand it integrates a wide range of individual behaviour patterns given in response to the above expectations'* (Fábíán, 2007, p. 31).

Individuals may fulfill several roles at the same time. Research focusing on the consequences of this phenomenon has come up with two variants: the theories of scarcity and the theory of enhancement.

2.2.3.1.2.1 The theory of scarce resources

The fundamental thesis here is that people have limited time, energy and attention resources. Consequently, multiple roles require the sharing of these limited resources, thus, scheduling and allocation will have a key importance. The more roles the individual undertakes the more probable it is that fulfilling one role will damage the other which leads to the exhaustion of resources and ,ultimately, role-strain appears (Goode, 1960) In contrast to the theory of compensation, the reasons for resource sharing are not dealt with here. Instead , the theory of scarce resources focus only on the individual's inner, personal resources. (Haar & Bardoel, 2008).

Certain researchers (Sieber, 1974; Marks, 1977) argue that fulfilling multiple roles does not necessarily lead to negative consequences in each case. Subsequently, this gave impetus to the enhancement approach.

2.2.3.1.2.2 The enhancement approach

As a critical response to the theory of scarce resources, the main theoretical starting point of this approach is that taking up multiple roles may even result in positive consequences. Sieber (1974) suggested the in the case of individuals simultaneously fulfilling multiple roles, advantageous influences may outnumber strain caused by role accumulation. Four positive consequences of role accumulation are given:

- Role privileges: each role involves rights and duties. Therefore, the more roles the individual fulfills, the more rights he will have.
- Status security: the more roles the individual fulfills, the more opportunities there may be to find compensation and support in one role for failure in another, which may, in the course of time, may have a positive effect on the failed role as well.

- Getting access to resources which support status enhancement and role performance: apart from getting certain inclusive rights with a new role, the individual may also have access to further specific resources (e.g. connection capital, favours, e.t.c.) In this process personal value and social status of the individual may be increased through the eyes of role-related acquaintances. Furthermore, as a result of fulfilling multiple roles, positive outcomes experienced in one role may have a beneficial influence on performance in the other.
- Personal enrichment: by undertaking multiple roles the individual's scope on life may widen, his self-esteem may be enhanced.e.t.c.

As an alternative to the theory of scarcity Marks (1977) came up with the so-called 'expansion theory'. According to this, time and energy are not to be considered as inherently scarce resources which set up limitations in the individuals' lives, but rather, they make sense as factors determined by a certain 'contract' made by the individual concerning a given role(s).

This theory presupposes that physical and mental energy is abundant and continually renewable at the hands of the individual. The utilization of this energy is unseparable from its (re)production, thus the individual has sufficient energy at his/her disposal for each and every undertaken role. Energy does not flow out boundlessly from the individual from morning till night, but rather, it is the individuals themselves who regulate the amount of energy directed to each role: it is they who decide when to withdraw or exploit their energies. The feeling of exhaustion in a given role is, therefore, not due to the exhausting nature of the role itself but by the person(s) activity level in and around a given role(s). In other words, if one feels exhausted, it may be explained by commitment to a number of roles. Supposing the individual has more and less important roles to fulfill at the same time, the feeling of scarcity will be felt in the less important roles. i.e. when they wish they could use time better elsewhere. To sum up, the limiting factor here is not the objective scarcity of time and energy, but the perception of the presence of more and less important roles. The individual does not have to endure role stress if all his commitments are equally of positive or negative nature.

2.2.3.1.2.3 *Work-family conflict*

This concept applies the theory of scarce resources to the work – family interface. The two life domains are in competition for the same resources (time, attention, energy), although the individual has only a limited supply of them. Consequently, the individual has to share his resources between the two domains since satisfying one role-expectation makes it difficult or even impossible to satisfy the other. In other words, the individual is faced with a role-conflict when he tries to fulfill work and family roles. (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Work-family conflict is a fundamental source of strain and has a strong influence on the individual's well-being. (Frone, Barnes, & Farrell, 1994)

According to Greenhaus és Beutell (1985) work-family conflict may be related to three main principles: time, strain and behaviour.

- Time-based means that time dedicated to fulfill the expectations of one domain is used up by fulfilling expectations of the other domain.
- Strain-based, in essence, means that strain (dissatisfaction, anxiety, exhaustion e.t.c.) caused by one domain makes it difficult to meet the challenges of the other domain.
- Behaviour-based refers to the phenomenon when behaviour-forms that work well in one domain are not efficient in the other – yet, the individual is unable to change them:

In all the three types of conflict a distinction may be made between the influence of work on family (WIF) and the influence of family on work (FIW). In the former case the domain of work has a negative influence on family life , in the latter case - it is vice versa. (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991).

The above conflict types are shown in the table below (Carlson et. Al 2000):

Table 7 - WIF and FIW

		Direction of work-family conflict	
		<i>Work interference with family</i>	<i>Family interference with work</i>
Type of work-family conflict	<i>Time</i>	Time Based FIW	Time Based FIW
	<i>Strain</i>	Strain Based FIW	Strain Based FIW
	<i>Behavioral</i>	Behavioral Based FIW	Behavioral Based FIW

In both WIF and FIW antecedents and consequences can be shown in the two domains. Thus, in most overall theoretical models dealing with work-family conflict three fundamental elements may be identified (Michel et al, 2009):

- Antecedents related to the domains of work and family
- Consequences related to the domains of work and family and life as a whole
- Variables as mediating variable describing the two directions of work-family conflict.

The most frequently identified antecedents and their descriptions:

Table 8 - The most frequently identified antecedents of WIF and FIW

Work (Family) Social Support	'Social support is an interpersonal transaction that involves emotional concern, instrumental aid, information, or appraisal.'	Carlson & Perrewé (1999, p.: 514)
Job (Family) Involvement	'Cognitive or belief state of psychological identification.'	Kanungo (1982, p.: 342)
Work (Family) Role Conflict	'Simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other.'	Kahn et. al (1964, p.: 19)
Work (family) time commitment	'Time devoted to work- (family-) related activities.'	Frone, Yardley, Marker (1997, p.: 55)
Work (Family) Role Overload	'An individual's level of perceived role overload in the work domain.'	Carlson-Kacmar (2000, p.: 1039)
Work (Family) Role Ambiguity	'The lack of clear, consistent information that is associated with a person's position.'	Kahn et. al (1964, p.: 19)

Table9 - The most frequently studied consequences of WIF and FIW

Job (Family) Satisfaction	'The degree to which an individual is satisfied (positive feelings, emotional experience) with the work (family) aspects of their life.'	Michel et. al (2009, p.: 201)
Life Satisfaction	'The degree to which an individual is satisfied (positive feelings, emotional experience) with their general quality of life.'	Michel et. al (2009, p.: 201)

The three overall work-family conflict models with the greatest influence and the most frequent references can be linked to Frone et al. (1992, 1997), Carlson-Perrewe (1999) and Carlson-Kacmar (2000).

2.2.3.1.2.3.1 The model of Frone et al. (1997)

First, I intend to describe the theory of Frone et al. (1997). The authors' chain of thought considerably builds on their pioneering model (1992), though at some points it also surpasses it. Thus, I present below the later, further developed model as reflected in the first one.

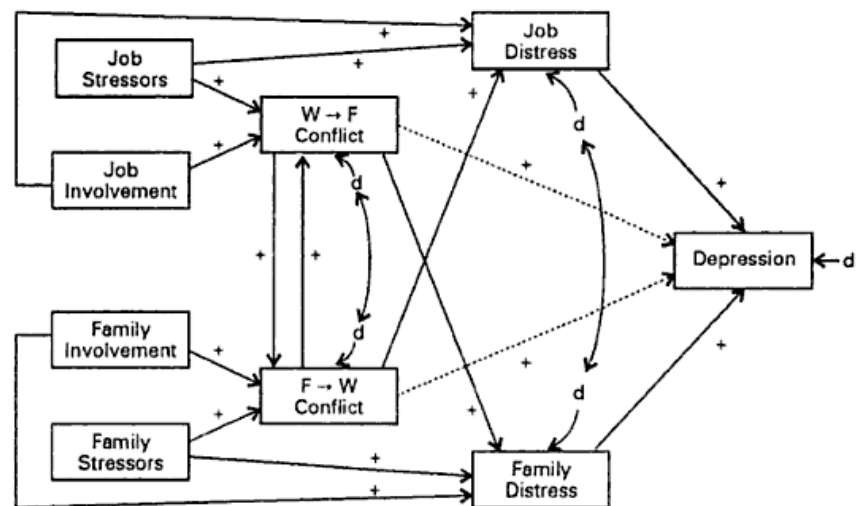


Figure 9 – The first model (1992)

The novelty in their first model (published in 1992) is that it was among the first to acknowledge arguments by Gutek et al. (1991), and made a distinction between the two directions of work-family conflicts i.e. work to family and family to work directions. It defined their independent, life domain-specific antecedents and consequences. The model revealed the mediating role of work-family conflict in the cross-influence between antecedent variables in one domain and consequence variables in the other.

These fundamentals did not change in the second model five years later, but the specific content were modified in several areas.

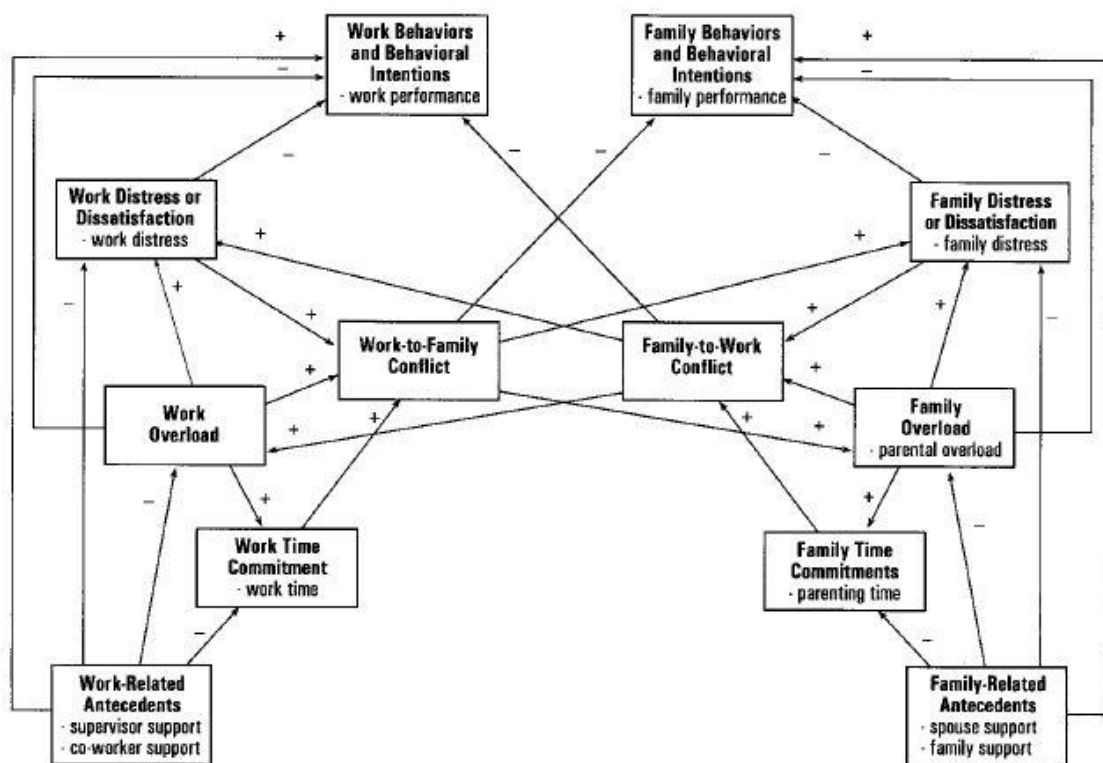


Figure 10 – The 1997 model (1997)

The new model focuses on conflict between the domains of work and family. Although the authors do not apply the concepts of WIF and FIW in the table, their presence can be perceived. Work to family conflict may be associated with WIF, while family to work conflict with FIW. The definition they use also makes it clear: '*Extent to which work interferes with family life (work-to-family conflict) and the extent to which family life interferes with work (family-to-work conflict)*' (p. 148).⁹

The striking speciality – and novelty- of the model is that it does not acknowledge direct to- and from influence between WIF and FIW. The two variables get into contact with each-other only by indirect influences, e.g. growing of WIF does not have a direct influence on FIW which will increase only as the consequence of growing family distress or dissatisfaction and growing family overload.

The other merit of the model is that it treats antecedent variables in a highly sophisticated way i. e. it makes a distinction between proximal (direct) and distal (indirect) antecedents. The relationship between the two may be described as follows: proximal antecedents function as mediating variables in the relationship between distal antecedents and FIW/WIF variables. By proximal antecedents (mediating variables) we mean: Work Time Commitment, Work/Family Distress or Dissatisfaction and Work/Family Role Overload.

⁹The authors use the term 'interference' in their definition in the same way as in the concepts of WIF and FIW .

The model applies two distal antecedents of WIF and FIW : one is social support within the given life domain (Work/Family Related Antecedents), and the other - as we have earlier shown - FIW-as related to WIF and WIF as related to FIW . The influence of social support is felt through the decrease in distress and overload (relationship to committed time has not proven significant in either domain).

The model also has a sophisticated approach to the relationship between WIF/FIW and emotion (distress) as manifested in the given life domain. WIF exclusively affects distress in family domain and not in work domain. FIW, on the other hand, affects only stress in work domain and not that in family domain. This approach is in contrast to other models which do not acknowledge two different directions within work-family conflict and ,consequently, leave this difference hidden. The model also focuses on emotional antecedents to the accumulation of distress, thus, it sets up a 'distress-chain': the antecedent of WIF is work distress, the consequence is distress appearing in the domain of family life, while the antecedent of FIW is family distress appearing in the domain of work.

The fourth theoretical novelty of the model concerns consequence variables. It deals separately with behaviour and behavioural intentions, more specifically, performance in the given domains The directions of the influences are not really surprising, except that work distress does not significantly affect work performance, while this relationship proves significant in the family domain . It might be worth mentioning that social support in the given life domains (Work/Family Related Antecedents) does not have a direct and significant influence on performance – it is only exercised through the other variables.

2.2.3.1.2.3.2 The Carlson-Perrewé (1999) model

In the authors' study main focus is placed on the role of social support in work-family conflict. The conflict was examined in a single dimension without making a distinction between WIF and FIW . Antecedents in both domains included role-conflict, time-demand and role-ambiguity. They found that the antecedent model characterizes best the relationship between social support and work-family conflict variables. On the basis of the above aspect they set up their complete model shown in the figure below:

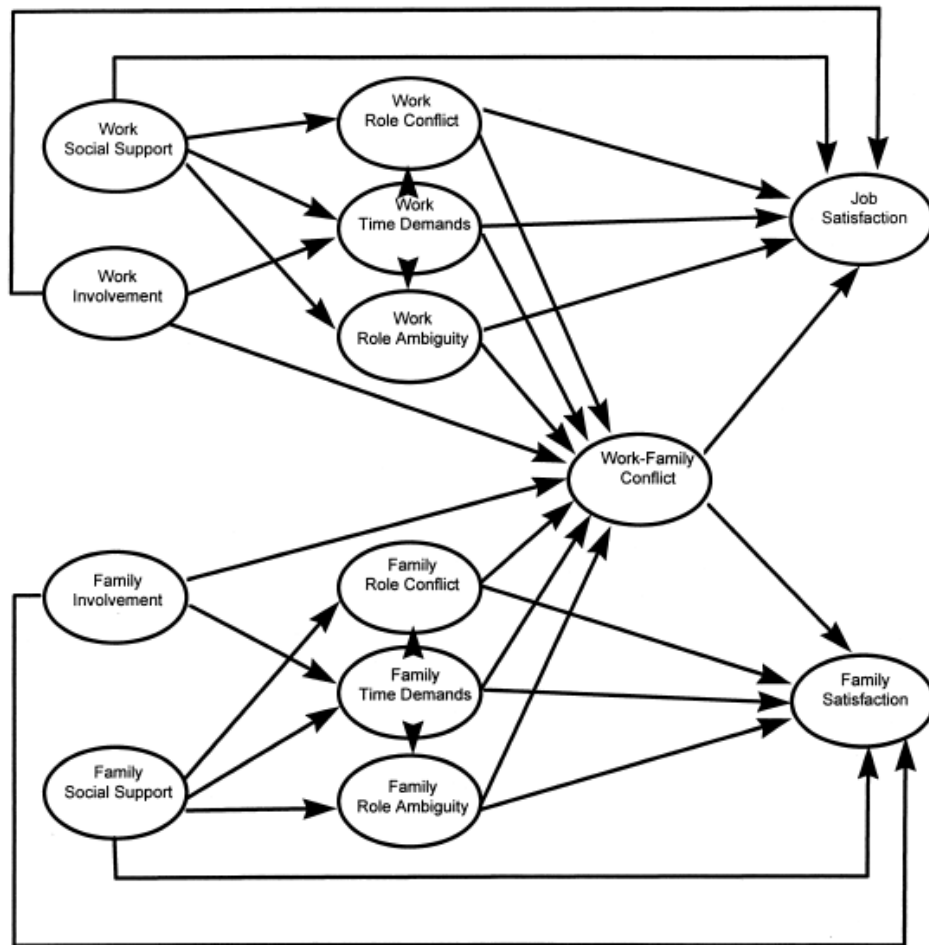


Figure 11 – The model of Carlson-Perrewé (1999)

It is quite clear that the model treats social support as antecedent and involves one more antecedent: involvement in the given life domain. On the one hand, involvement affects work-family conflict directly, on the other hand it has an influence indirectly, through time-demand. Social support affects the three direct antecedents to work-family conflict: role-conflict, time-demand and role-ambiguity and also it influences satisfaction with the given domain. Another outcome variable appears as well: satisfaction with the given domain.

The above model has been partly justified by their empirical research: satisfaction with family life was not influenced directly by involvement in family life, role-conflict, time-demand and role-ambiguity but only by work-family conflict as mediating variable. It might be even more interesting to note that in the domain of work no significant relationship was shown between role-conflicts at the workplace and work-family conflict.

A critical aspect of the model is that it blurs the concepts of WIF and FIW . Furthermore, it defines only one-way relationships without acknowledging the functions of feed-back

influences. It is built on segmentation logics i.e. antecedents to one domain have a direct influence only within that given domain.

2.2.3.1.2.3.3 The Carlson-Kacmar (2000) model

The model is illustrated below:

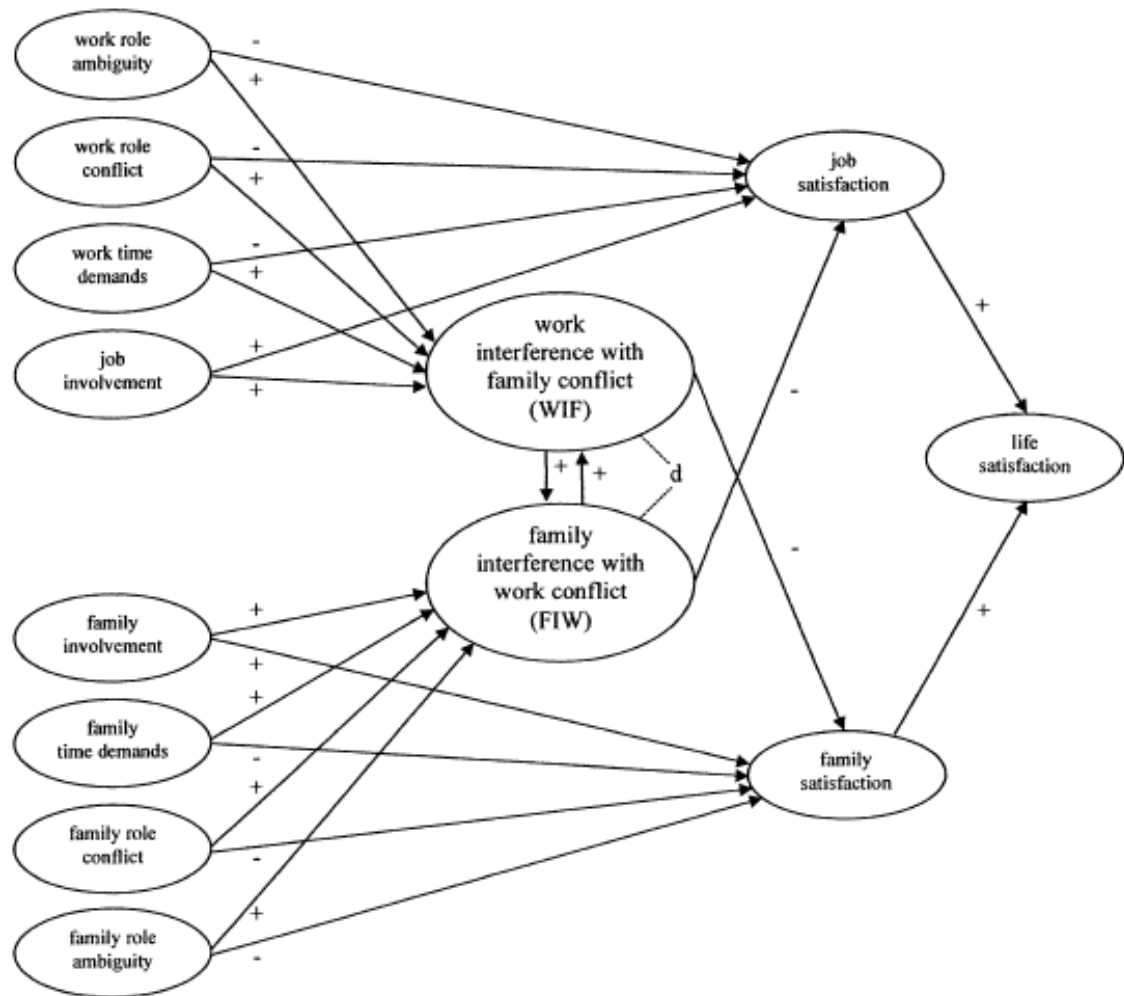


Figure 12 – The model of Carlson-Kacmar (2000)

As we can see here, WIF FIW are also mediating variables in this theoretical structure with their own antecedents and consequences. Antecedents in both domains are: involvement, time demand, role conflict and role ambiguity. Work related antecedents affect family domain through WIF, while family related antecedents affect work domain by mediating FIW. Antecedents to one domain have a direct influence on consequences within the given domain (segmentation logics). Consequences are satisfaction with life domains, and thus, satisfaction with life. Positive to- and from influence between WIF and FIW should be noted.

The speciality of the above model is that it applies the concepts of time demand and role ambiguity (Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, LeBreton, & Baltes, 2009).

2.2.3.1.2.3.4 *The integrative model of Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, LeBreton, & Baltes (2009)*

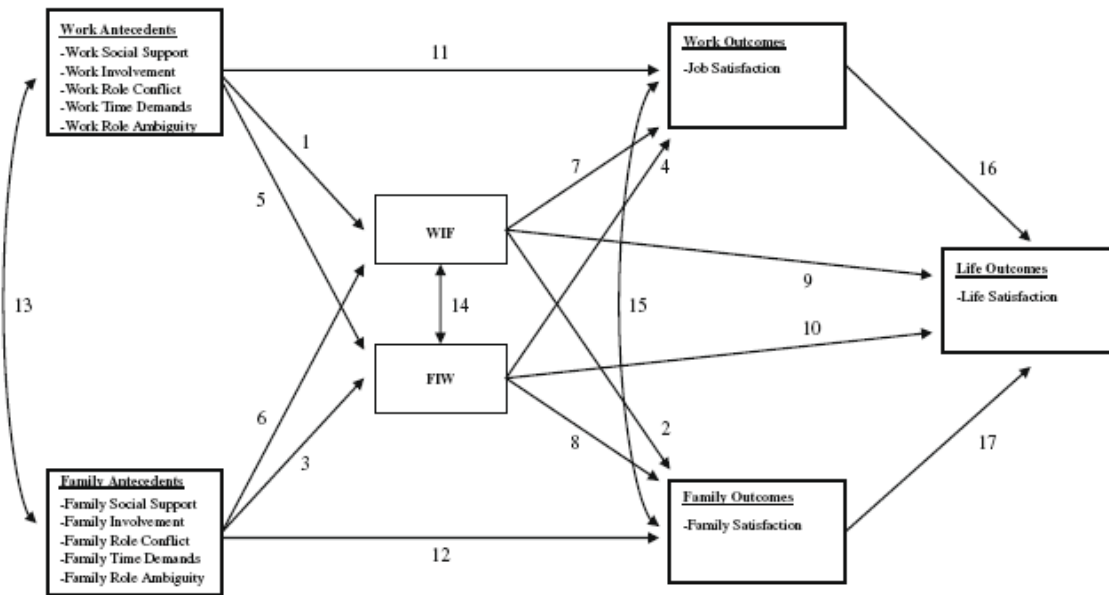


Figure 13 - The integrative model of Michel et al. (2009)

The authors ventured to create a homogenous framework from the above models, thus setting up an integrated theoretical framework of work-family relationship. The model applies the basic concepts used to describe relationship between the domains of work and family i.e. segmentation, conflict, spillover e.t.c. It also distinguishes direct and indirect influences between the domains. A further distinction is made between the domains of family and work, relating antecedents and consequences to both domains. Work-family conflict is regarded as multi-dimensional, WIF and FIW are distinguished. Consequence variables of work and family domains are considered together as antecedent to life satisfaction. Direct and indirect relationships are identified among the above variables as indicated by numbered arrows.

2.2.3.1.2.3.4.1 Indirect effect linkages

Theoretical background to indirect influences is given by the approach to work-family conflict. According to this, antecedents to the domains of work and family lead to conflicts between work and family (FIW and WIF), and have an influence on these domains. See arrows Nos. 1-2 (WIF because of work antecedents) and arrows Nos. 3-4 (family antecedents, FIW, work consequences). Indirect influences also include certain doubled indirect mechanisms. These are indicated partly by arrows Nos. 5-6 (work influencing FIW and family influencing WIF), and partly by arrows Nos 7-8. (WIF influencing the domain of work and FIW influencing the domain of family). At first sight, these influences might appear rather abstract. As an example to arrow No.5, work-related strain is to be mentioned, which, according to certain research, might function as an antecedent to negative FIW (Byron, 2005).

Logically, this group also includes arrows Nos 9-10 which refer to the influence of WIF and FIW on life satisfaction. At first, it would perhaps seem to be a direct relationship, as it does not recognize the mediating effect on satisfaction with the given domains. In the present logical framework, however, the direct or indirect nature of influences are determined by whether WIF and FIW appear in them. Therefore, these influences are to be considered indirect as well.

2.2.3.1.2.3.4.2 Direct effect linkages

Theoretical background to direct influences is based on segmentation theories, i.e. antecedent to a given domain lead to consequence within that given domain. It is shown by arrow No. 11 (antecedents of work influencing the domain of work) and arrow No. 12 (antecedents of family influencing the domain of family).

2.2.3.1.2.3.4.3 Cross-domain effects

Cross-domain effects are indicated by arrow No. 13 (mutual influences of antecedents to both life domains), arrow No. 14 showing the relationship between WIF and FIW, and arrows Nos. 15-16-17 (mutual influences of outcomes).

The authors have come to the conclusion in their research that not every arrow-indicated relationship is equally strong. Relationships defined as 'indirect' proved to be rather weak , while WIF and FIW – in a shocking contrast to their definitions – proved to to be better predictors of consequences in their own domain than of those in an other domain. Direct influences within a given domain, however, formed strong relationships.

2.2.3.2 *Current theories*

2.2.3.2.1 Work-family enrichment

The concept of work-family enrichment was created by Greenhaus & Powell (2006). Their basic proposition is that while negative influence between the domains of work and family is frequently and thoroughly studied, positive influences are given far less attention in scientific circles. The concept of work-family enrichment means that experiences in one domain result in improvement of life quality (performance or affection) in the other. It is realized when in domain 'A' the individuals acquire resources, which will enhance their personal performance in domain 'B'. The authors make a distinction between two forms: first, the direct way, when resources acquired in one domain directly enhance performance in the other , and the affectional way, when this influence is perceived through positive affections. An example to the former case is when employees feel they have acquired skills in their family life which will eventually help them get on better with their colleagues. An example to the latter case is when the individual leaves the workplace in a good mood, ready to respond positively to family matters at home.

The key concept of the definition is 'resources', which may have five dimensions:

- skills/perspectives,
- flexibility,
- psychological and physical resources,
- social-capital resources,
- material resources.

'Resources' here implies that with the help of experiences gained in one domain the individual is able to complete tasks in the other. 'Perspectives' mean finding solutions in different situations in life and appreciating different points of view. 'Psychological resources' include self-esteem and a positive prospect on the future. Examples to physical resources are: an increasing energy level, fitness and mental alertness. 'Social-capital resources' cover inter-personal contacts among individuals which help them reach objectives. 'Flexibility' refers to the individual's ability to determine time, place and intensity in the fulfilment of undertaken roles in a given domain. 'Material resources' represent financial and other material rewards that may be at disposal in a given domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Similarly to work-family conflict, in the case of work-family enrichment there are two directions of influences, i. e. family to work enrichment and work to family enrichment. The former refers to positive influences coming from family life but perceived in the domain of work. The latter works in the opposite direction. Carlson et. al. (2006) distinguish further three dimensions within each direction:

In the case of work-family enrichment:

- Work to family enhancement: it is realized when involvement in work contributes to the creation or enhancement of skills, knowledge, behaviour or perspectives and by this, the individual becomes a better family member.
- Work to family affect: a positive emotional condition or attitude which, owing to involvement in work, helps the individual to become a better family member.
- Work to family capital: involvement in work enhances the individual's psycho-social resources (a feeling of security, confidence, self-realization) which supports the individual in becoming a better family member.

The above three dimensions – as Carlson et al. suggested – are in harmony with the findings of Greenhaus and Powell (2006), i.e. enrichment works through direct and indirect (emotionally mediated) ways. This classification, however, makes further distinctions when it differentiates

two variants within the direct way: individual-related enhancement and a psycho-social enrichment which presupposes the existence of a social interface.

Regarding family to work enrichment:

- Enhancement: it is realized when involvement in family contributes to the creation or enhancement of skills, knowledge, behaviour or perspectives and by this, the individual becomes a better employee.
- Affect: a positive emotional condition or attitude which, owing to involvement in work, helps the individual to become a better employee.
- Efficiency: involvement in family enhances the concentration skills of the individual and creates a feeling of alertness by which they become a better employee.

As another striking similarity to the theory of Greenhaus and Powell (2006) it should be noted that within the direct way further two variants should be differentiated i.e. resources supporting the individuals' personal enhancement and resources supporting their efficiency at work.

The concept of work-family enrichment is similar to concepts describing positive relationship between the two life domains, i.e. to positive spillover (Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1980; Crouter, 1984; Grzywacz & Marks, 1999), facilitation (Wayne, Mussica, & Fleeson, 2004), enhancement (Sieber, 1974) and to interaction (Halpern & Murphy, 2005). Yet, certain sharp differences remain palpable.

(Status) enhancement means that in the course of multiple role fulfilment the individual experiences positive outcomes which then may have a beneficial influence on performance in another role (Sieber, 1974). In this case, therefore, there is only a theoretical chance that the acquired skills will in fact be utilized and applied in the other domain. Enrichment, on the other hand, definitely focuses on the improved performance which is motivated by resources acquired in the other domain. It is clear that in this case enhancement functions as a necessary antecedent but not as a sufficient condition to enrichment.

Positive spillover suggests that experiences in one domain (mood, skills, values, behaviour) are transferred to the other, thus, the two domains become more and more similar to each-other (Crouter, 1984). Both enrichment and positive spillover have a common feature, i.e. certain positive outcomes are transferred from one life domain to the other. First, they were used as synonymous concepts (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008). The basic difference between them is that enrichment explicitly requires the successful utilization of transferred resources i.e. 'de facto'

enhancement of performance or quality of life in the recipient domain. Positive spillover does not require this. Spillover is realized even when performance enhancement remains a theoretical option without any realization. In other words, positive spillover is a necessary condition to work-family enrichment but, in itself, is not sufficient to it. 'Therefore, positive spillover is best seen as a set of pathways by which enrichment may occur rather than a construct that is synonymous with enrichment' (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006, p.148).

Facilitation was defined as 'occurring when, by virtue of participation in one role (e.g., work), one's performance or functioning in the other role (e.g., family) is enhanced'. (Wayne, Mussica, & Fleeson, 2004, p.110) It is 'a form of synergy in which resources associated with one role enhance or make easier participation in the other role' (Voydanoff, 2004, p. 399). According to Carlson et al (2006) the basic difference here is that facilitation is on a different analytical level: i.e. enrichment focuses on the individual, while facilitation studies issues on a system-level. It is easy to imagine the realization of enrichment in one domain without enhanced performance in the other in any other system larger than the individual's. For example, if the individual's work performance has improved because of certain influences from family life, we may definitely talk about work-family (or more precisely family-work) enrichment, which, however, has not necessarily resulted in enhanced performance in the work team or the organization. Thus, facilitation has not necessarily been realized.

'The idea of an interaction comes from statistical models where two effects combine to provide something that is greater than would have been predicted from either one alone' (Halpern & Murphy, 2005, p. 4). In other words, we may talk about interaction when a certain synergic co-influence between the two life domains has been experienced. Obviously, this is a different approach from that of enrichment, since, in interaction, happenings realized separately in each life domain form a common 'third' happening, instead of 'to- and from' influences. For example, the individual has to work overtime in the afternoon while the child should be looked after at home. The individual decides to bring the child to the workplace. If the child enjoys it and the work can also be done, synergic co-influence i.e. interaction has been realized.

2.2.3.2.2 Work-family balance

The concept of work-private life balance (WLB) is broadly used in both everyday life and scientific terminology. Work-family balance (WFB) is less often mentioned in everyday contexts, yet scientific research gives much more focus on this than on WLB. The most probable reason for this is that WFB can be better operationalized than WLB, i.e. the two domains WFB refers to can be much more specifically addressed.

Initially, the concept was given a negative definition, i.e. it was identified as the absence of conflict between work and family. '*Satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict*' (Clark, 2001, p. 349).

(In the terminology of the above models WFB was high when the influence of work domain to family domain (WIF), and vice versa (FIW), was of low frequency and low intensity.)

After the turn of the millennium Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003) gave a preliminary definition to WFB: '*the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in—and equally satisfied with—his or her work role and family role*'. (p. 513)

Voydanoff (2007, p.138) argued that work-family balance may be derived from the person-environment fit, as WFB is a '*global assessment that work resources meet family demands, and family resources meet work demands such that participation is effective in both domains*'.

Greenhaus and Allen (2006) captured the essence of WFB by defining it '*the extent to which an individual's effectiveness and satisfaction in work and family roles are compatible with the individual's life priorities*' (p. 10.).

Concerning the above definitions Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) formed three points of criticism:

- They are distant from everyday reality, i.e. it is improbable that an equal measure of involvement would be necessary in work and family life domains for the realization of WFB. See Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003).
- Voydanoff's (2007) above definition is too abstract and alien to life, i.e. it is rather unlikely that ordinary people would try to reach 'balance' by thinking about how to satisfy family demands with the help of resources at work (and vice versa).
- The concept of 'individual satisfaction' does not include the relationship with other people, i.e. it '*isolates individuals in their work and family-related activities from the organizations and families in which these activities are performed*' (p. 457). Thus, WFB is reduced to an issue of individual perception. Furthermore, the concept allows for the realization of WFB even if – as the case may be – , it is harmful to others, which, as the critics argue, is contrary to the fundamental sense of WFB. If we regard WFB as completely dependent on individual perception, three further problems must be faced:
 - First, the phenomenon is difficult to study, as it takes place in the individual's mind.

- Second, it is almost impossible to form organizational strategies on system levels to improve WFB because life conditions of organizational members and their individual perception of them can be very different.
- Third, since the definition is given on the individuals' level, in the event of a failed WFB full responsibility is placed on them, although the potential role of organizational and social factors are not negligible, eitheró.

On the basis of the above comments the authors proposed their own definition which would be able to eliminate the above mentioned problematic aspects and at the same time integrate the strong points of earlier theories. This definition sees WFB as 'accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his or her role-related partners in the work and family domains' (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007, p. 458). What makes this approach interesting is that it does not interpret work-family balance from the point of view of the individual but considers the individuals in their relation to other persons. Moreover, it does not limit the individual in their fulfilment of role-expectations, i.e. WFB may be realized even with a certain degree of work-family conflict. Furthermore, WFB in this context requires neither efficiency nor satisfaction in any of the life domains. The point is efficient performance in fulfilling roles with positive consequences in the two life domains. Contrary to work-family conflict or work-family enrichment, the concept of WFB does not deal with mutual role-influences between the two domains. The main focus in this case is given to the individual's ability to take up and respond to responsibilities arising in the domains of work and family. Obviously, conflict or enrichment between the two domains have their respective influence – and so have a number of other factors, e.g. how the individual is able to take part in the negotiation process concerning responsibilities in the two life domains. (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009)

The concept of WFB has two further fundamental elements: role enjoyment and role negotiation that are built on the so-called 'attitudinal flexibility'. This concept implies that thoughts about roles are not stored in people's minds in the same way as boxes are on a shelf always taking up the same space, but, instead, they change flexibly according to the given moment and to the given role. If we accept that role strain is caused by two or more simultaneous role demands which then result in a kind of anxiety, the adequate solution – contrary to public belief – is not the reduction of undertaken roles or the setting up of a priority order. Because with the help of attitudinal flexibility the individual may be able to focus on one role at a time (role enjoyment). This involvement is based on a continuous, situative negotiation of role related responsibilities (role negotiation) (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009).

2.3 Customer Service Centres

Among customer service center jobs we can distinguish front office and back office jobs (Fig. 14). “Front office tasks consist of interface with customers, either face-to-face or through the mediation of information and communication technologies (ICT), such as in call centres and online services. Back office tasks include administrative management and logistics.” (Muchnik & Valenduc, 2008, p.: 140).

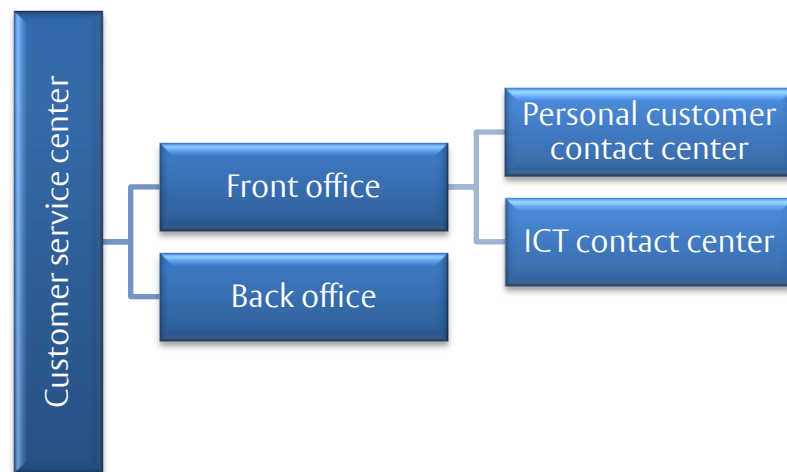


Figure 14 – The grouping of customer service center jobs

2.3.1 Front office

Front office jobs have two main characteristics (Muchnik & Valenduc, 2008):

- they are office jobs (employees are clerical workers);
- employees are in direct relationship with customers.

There are two main types of front offices:

- Personal customer contact center
- ICT contact center

A front office-oknak két alapvető fajtáját különíthetjük el: a személyes ügyfélszolgálatokat és az infokommunikációs technológián alapuló (ICT) ügyfélszolgálatokat.

2.3.1.1 Personal customer contact center

Historically personal customer contact centres gave the first opportunity for customers to contact the companies. As Anton (2000) describes, customers generally have four reasons to get in touch with companies:

- they have a question and need an answer in order to proceed (i.e.: What is the price?);

- they want the company to do something (i.e. Send me a manual.);
- they have a problem and need assistance (i.e. technical support);
- they are emotionally upset and want to know that the company will resolve the problem (i.e. anger diffusion).

In the early stages of technological development, personal customer contact centers were the easiest ways for the companies to fulfil these needs of their customers. The personal customer contact center is a place (an office) where the customer has the opportunity to personally interact with an employee of the company, without any sort of technical mediation (mail, fax, telephone, internet etc.). As technology advances, the significance of personal customer contact centers are fading, however they are still important: assisted by better technological and back office support (Anton, 2000).

2.3.1.2 ICT contact center (call center)

2.3.1.2.1 Introduction

The ICT contact centres (we simply refer to them as call centres) are organizational units of the 'new economy' that fundamentally changed customer service by utilizing solutions made possible by advances in information and communications technology (Hannif, McDonnell, Connell, & Burgess, 2010). Since the 1990's call centers have been the most dynamically growing workplaces in North America, Europe and Australia as well (URCOT, 2000). Surveys in Hungary show that at present approximately 150,000 people work in call centers, which accounts for 4-5 % of the whole working population (Filius, 2010).

The size of the sector and the characteristics of the processes in call centres make call centres a great field for scientific studies (Askin, Armony, & Mehrotra, 2007). Not surprisingly scientific interest in the subject has been growing (Beirne, Riach, & Wilson, 2004; Hannif, McDonnell, Connell, & Burgess, 2010). Evaluations by researchers are rather mixed. Some label them as exploiting sweatshops, the embodiment of the Panopticon concept (Ferne & Metcalf, 1998). Others point at the excess of bureaucratic and technocratic control-mechanisms (Callaghan & Thompson, 2001). Optimistic approaches also exist: keen interest is taken in possibilities of raising organizational commitment (Kinnie, Hutchinson, & Purcell, 2000), and the improvement of working conditions (Nicholson, 2009; Paul & Huws, 2002; Hannif, 2006).

2.3.1.2.2 Definition

According to the general definition, call center is *'an office employing people in specialist posts involving the use of a computer and a telecommunication link to process communications in voice or electronic form'* (Paul & Huws, 2002, p. 10).

In Ternovszky's approach a call center is *'a communications system or method by which an organization or company keeps contact with its internal and external clientele by means of telephone or instant messaging. As an organizational unit of a company, it receives and/or initiates a large volume of calls from and/or to its clientele to maintain a close contact with it'* (Ternovszky, 2006, p. 115).

2.3.1.2.3 Different types of call centers

Call centers are far from uniform, considerable differences may be identified among them. They may have different types according to the criteria listed below (Paul & Huws, 2002, p. 10):

- Communication is maintained with external parties (e.g. general public, consumers, subcontractors) or with other parties within the organization.
- Communication is initiated by the other party or the agent of the call center (outbound or inbound calls).
- The means of communication are: voice, fax, e-mail or the combination of them.
- Operation requires specific skills or knowledge (e.g. legal advisory lead) or it may require no special qualifications at all, (e.g. electricity consumption measuring lead).
- Employees are paid by the hour or by performance, work full-time or part-time, for definite or indefinite length of time. The form of employment may be permanent, hired or, occasionally, student work.
- The call center functions as an independent unit, or as a unit within an organizational structure or as a network of smaller, electronically linked workstations.
- In many cases, certain functions are not done by a separate call center but by employees whose duties at work may include this. (Our research focuses exclusively on call centers where operators do call center functions in full-time employment.)

2.3.1.2.4 Characteristic features of call centers

Work organizational solutions in most call centers show a marked similarity to the basic principles of Taylorism (Bain, Watson, Mulvey, Taylor, & Gall, 2002): this means strict control mechanisms. Typical control mechanisms include quantitative and qualitative norms concerning individuals and work groups (response time, length of call, number of cut-off calls, the ways of greeting and saying goodbye, e.t.c.), recording, replaying and analysis of calls (Kinnie, Hutchinson, & Purcell, 2000; Taylor & Bain, 1999). Nevertheless, 'employers are seriously interested in contracting a committed work force. Self-monitoring employees may not

only make external monitoring and surveillance devices unnecessary but are also able to create a confidential relationship with their employers or superiors' (Lazányi, 2010, p. 29).

In most cases, the well-being of call center employees are negatively influenced by the following factors: the nature of work, close monitoring of performance, /the lack of/ HR-practices and managerial support. (Holman, 2002).

Kinnie et al. (2000) pointed at highly restricted working practices in most cases, close monitoring and dominant process and result surveillance. Low rates of pay and low prestige/status of the job are also common. Yet, the quality of communication between the clientele and the call center agent affects attitudes towards the whole servicing organization, thus, responsibility of the operator staff is high. In the above mentioned restrictive organizational framework excessive strain is put on the individual to perform at the expected high level. These factors lead to a low level of organizational commitment on the part of the employees and a typically high level of turnover.

As Hannif (2006) explains, quality of work is determined by a number of factors which are partly dependent on the job function itself, and partly on work organizational solutions. Workplace relationships and protective mechanisms serving the interests of the employees must also be mentioned. (See Table No.10). In the framework of our research, major focus is given to two factors: organizational commitment and work-life balance (highlighted by block capitals in the table below)..

Table 10 - Factors determining the quality of work in a call center (Hannif, 2006)

Job Functions	Work Organization	Workplace Relationships/Initiatives	Protective Mechanisms
The nature of work	Income	Relationships with co-workers	Occupational health and safety
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT ¹⁰	WORKING HOURS/WORK-LIFE BALANCE (WLB)	Managerial Style	Unionisation
		Monitoring and Surveillance	
	Employment Status	Traning and development opportunities	

¹⁰ The author uses 'identification with work' in the table. In his text, however , the term 'organizational commitment' is also used - synonymously.

2.3.2 Back office

Employees of back offices have no direct contact with customers. Research on customer service work tend to focus on front-line service, but as Korczynski (2004, p.: 98) points out, „this should not mean that research should forget back-office service work” .

Work in back offices is mainly bureaucratic (Berry, 2010; Brook, 2007). But customer service centres are under pressure to provide better customer orientation, and while in the beginning this was relevant only for front offices, now it influences back offices as well (Joseph, 1996; Matteis, 1979).

Korczynski (2004) points out that this trend induces changes, and two types of back offices are to be distinguished (Table 11):

Table 11 – Dimensions of work organization for back-office service work as bureaucracy and as customer-oriented bureaucracy (Korczynski, 2004)

<i>Dimension</i>	<i>Bureaucracy</i>	<i>Customer-oriented bureaucracy</i>
Work tasks	Routinization for efficient task completion	Routinization and customer-orientation
Form of control	Process measurement	Process measurement and customer-related norms
Affect in relation to customer	Impersonal	Rationalized emotional labour
Relationship with front-line staff	Potentially fraught, with work underpinned by differing logics	More harmonious, with work underpinned by similar logics

Korczynski (2004) gives detailed explanation of Table 11. We focus on the last dimension: relationship with front-line staff. The main presupposition of Korczynski is that in order to be successful, front office and back office work both have to be customer-oriented. This underlines the importance of shared norms, beliefs and values – this is the reason why in our research we analyse affective commitment of front office and back office jobs together. As there are no significant differences regarding the local labour market among front office and back office employees, we assume that their continuance commitment has a similar pattern too. The cultural roots of normative commitment may be the same for front office and back office employees as well.

Based on the above arguments, in our analyses we focus on the whole customer service center sample, and do not distinguish between front office and back office staff. It is possible, of course, that there are important differences, and examining these would allow us to draw interesting conclusions, however due to our page number limitations, these analyses could not be included in the present thesis

3 Methodology of Research

In this chapter we present the organization theoretical foundations of our thesis then we discuss in detail our research questions, the data collection process, and the key data analysis methods used.

3.1 Organization theoretical foundations

3.1.1 Introduction

The concepts of the domain of work and organisational commitment of individuals are interpreted in organisational context. This is the reason why prior to their analysis certain organisation theoretical questions and questions regarding the philosophy of science have to be addressed.

When thinking about organisations, we have declared or non declared presuppositions about why we do all these, what is the subject of our research, which methods we use, and what we think about reality, recognition and science. 'OT serves the reflection of organizational practice and outlines how organizational practice is conducted and how it should be conducted. Philosophy of science in contrast serves the reflection about OT. What is the practice of OT and how should research efforts be conducted and to what end?' (Scherer, 1995, p. 526) The relationship is demonstrated on the following illustration (Scherer, 1995):

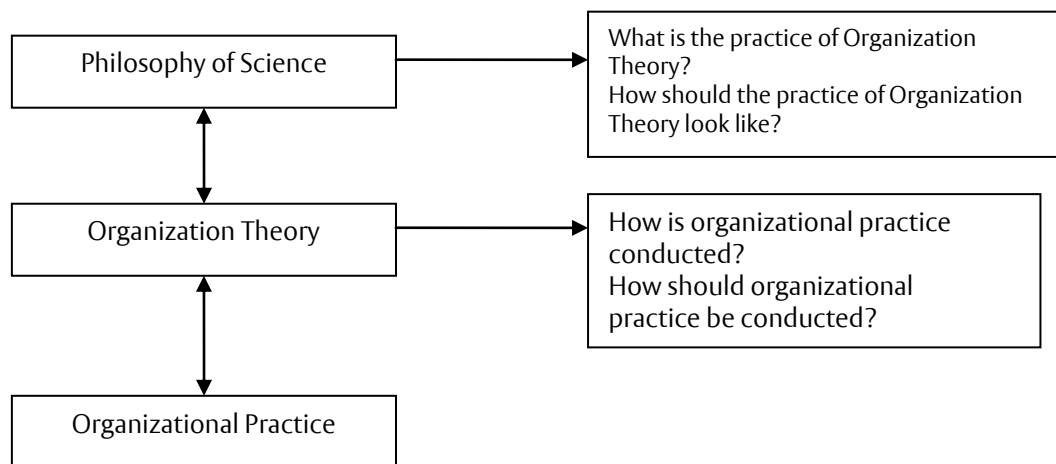


Figure 15 - The relationship between Philosophy of Science, Organization Theory and Organizational Practice (adapted from Scherer 1995:526)

The connection between the subject (the scientist) and the object (the examined phenomenon) of the recognition is an examined topic for ages. On the field of natural sciences the so-called object-subject model has strong legitimation. In this model reality is given objectively, it exists independently from the individual consciousness. The efficacies of this external reality are explorable; there is causal explanation about the specialities of its operation. This exploration may happen with regulation of the scientific methodology,

whereby we are able to gain knowledge to accumulate. The growing knowledge results in social progress. On the field of organisation theories this science theoretical model appears in the so-called contingency theory in the sharpest way. This topic will come up further on. In the Seventies many organisation researchers began to recognize the limits of the above mentioned fundamental assumptions, and they began to think about organisations from a different point of view. Debates from philosophic point of view brought essential change in thinking about organisations, new and new standpoints arose – and all of them were occasionally uninterpretable, unacceptable from the other point of view. As there was not only one organisation theory, so behind them could not stand only one philosophy of science as well.

The different researchers gave very different answers on certain basic questions. These are followings: What is reality? How can reality be recognized? What do we think about human actions? How can we gain knowledge? The given combination of ontological, epistemological, methodological and idea of human relating presuppositions we call paradigm. The idea was introduced by Thomas Kuhn in the academic life. According to his interpretation: 'A paradigm is what the members of a 'scientific community' [discipline], and they alone, share. Conversely it is their possession of a common paradigm that constitutes a scientific community [i.e., discipline] of a group of otherwise disparate men' (Kuhn, 1977, p. 460) The importance of paradigms is the fact that every researcher elaborates his/her own relation to them, whether they are aware of it or not.

3.1.2 Paradigms in organization theory

Burrell and Morgan (1979) in their often cited system of co-ordinates summarized and systematized the science philosophical and sociological trends behind the different organisation theories. Hereinafter I introduce shortly this theoretical frame.

They divided the approaches into two groups based on the picture created about reality and the relation to the existing social order.

In case we think, that the organisational reality is independent from the person performing the observation, exists for itself, is 'outside being' something, which general principals are explorable, and even to be explore, about them it is possible to give causal explanation by an outsider researcher, whose work does not influence the organisational reality – than we accept the 'objective' approach. In this way the behaviour of the actor is formed by general forces independent from its consciousness, these structures determinate it. The typical method of the recognition is the scientific attempt and the analysis from wide sample.

The 'subjective' approach is the right opposite. The organisational reality according to this is namely not an external, in itself examinable something, but a social construction process, and

it is created through communication and interaction. The point is on the hidden meanings (symbolic, cultural, linguistic), on the common interpretations, these carry and form the organisational reality. This approach following the above is voluntaristic; the people create their own reality. The researcher is also part of this reality formation, and he is fully aware of it, and he undertakes it, so his research also does not aim the value neutrality, it is declared to be not valueless. The purpose of the researcher is accordingly the understanding of these meanings: what does what mean, and why? The main tools of the researcher are deep interviews and participating observation.

Beside the science philosophical position it is also important to make clear the social theoretical point of view of the researcher. If he believes in the compatibility of social interests, if he does not aim to change the current status quo, he takes only the description and explanation in hand, he wants to understand what is now happening and why, then the researcher represents the so-called 'regulation' trend. On the other hand if he is concerned by how it is possible to judge and through this to make the balance between social items better; if he thinks that the (in organisations appearing) social order is full of oppositions, which can be brought in an apparently stable situation with manipulation and oppression, then the researcher considers himself as a representative of 'radical change' trend.

Based on this two dimensions there is a matrix to be drawn:

Table 12 - Organisation theory paradigms in the system of Burell and Morgan (1979)

		Radical change sociology	
Subjective	Radical humanism	Radical structuralism	Objective
	Interpretative sociology	Functionalist sociology	
		Regulation sociology	

The main message of the matrix is that different paradigms are possible to exist, and a paradigm stands behind every organisation theoretical analysis, theory and practice. Our research is going to be conducted using the functionalist approach according to the terms of Burell-Morgan (1979), using quantitative research methods. This approach is considered to be appropriate because of the following reasons:

- the research is not going to be explorative, it seeks to test the validity of pre-determined hypotheses regarding the relationship between independent and dependent variables;

- this approach has a long past in the field, the above mentioned research projects used the same approach when examining the organizational commitment and the work-family interface.

Regarding the quantitative research we have to underline that it may only be used when the research is based on the measurement of variables and it aims to examine the effects of these variables on various outputs. (Creswell, 2005). As our goal is to build models, define and test hypotheses, explore casual relationships and state generalized conclusions. So we consider the quantitative research method to be proper regarding the scientific paradigm, the research problem and the reseach question. This is going to be discussed in more detail in thea 3.3.1. Chapter.

3.2 Research questions

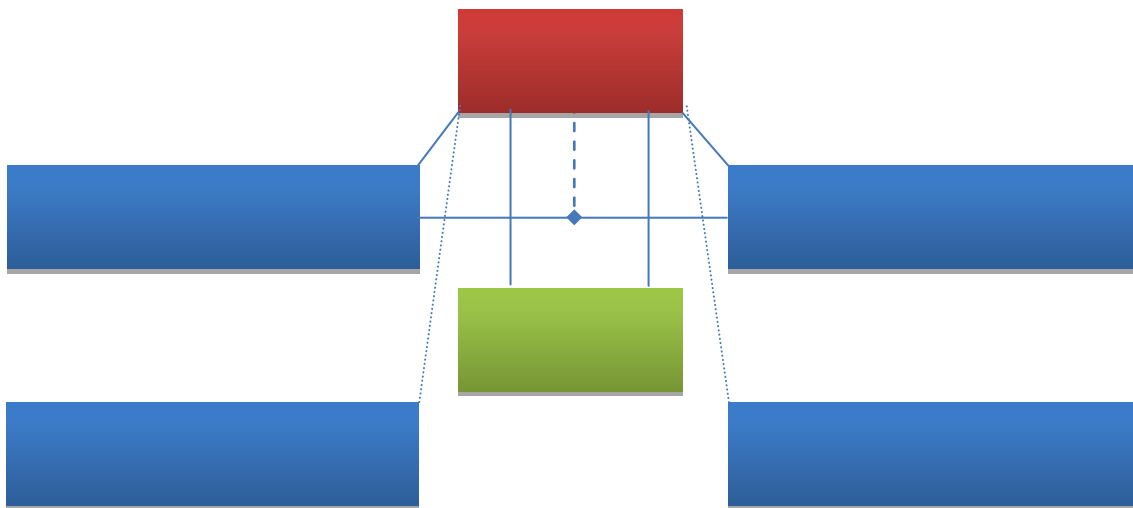
The main research question:

What is the relationship between organizational commitment and work-family conflict in customer support centers?

When operationalizing our main research question, we tap the concept of organizational commitment using Meyer-Allen's Three Component Model (1991), and the concept of work-family conflict with Michel et al's integrative model (2009).

This approach leads to our research model, which is detailed below.

Figure 16 – The research model



The following research questions emerge from our main research question:

- Can the three components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) be identified? (Chapter 4.1.3.1.)
 - Are there differences among the commitment components based some demographic variables (age, tenure, gender)? (Chapter 0.)
- What is the relationship between the commitment components and the variables of the work and family domain (Chapter 0.)?
 - Do the commitment components have moderating effect on the relationship between work antecedents and intention to quit? (Chapter 4.6.1.)
 - How do the three organizational commitment components influence each other and how does this interaction influence the intention to quit and the work-family interference? (Chapter 0.)

- Do the three components of commitment combine to create commitment profiles? (Chapter 0.)
 - Are there significant differences among the commitment profiles regarding work domain variables (Chapter 4.6.3.1.):
 - work social support
 - work role conflicts
 - work role ambiguity
 - work time demand
 - job satisfaction
 - intention to quit
 - Are there significant differences among the commitment profiles regarding family domain variables (Chapter 0.):
 - family social support
 - family role conflicts
 - family role ambiguity
 - family time demand
 - family satisfaction
 - Are there significant differences among the commitment profiles regarding the variables measuring work-family conflict (work-family interference, family-work interference, work-family balance) (Chapter 4.6.3.3.)?
- What is the relationship between work-family interference, family-work interference and the commitment profiles? (Chapter 4.6.4.)

We give a detailed explanation of the research model in Chapter 4.6. (page 129).

3.3 Data collection

3.3.1 Main considerations

In accordance with the commonly used methodology of the field, our data collection was based on a large sample, using self-report questionnaire. As Babbie points out, 'the questionnaire is the best method for those who want to collect original data in order to describe a population which is too big to be observed directly. (...) Questionnaires are a great way to measure attitudes or orientation of a huge population' (Babbie, 2001, p. 274).

Based on the above considerations, a questionnaire survey was carried out. The anonymity of the participants was guaranteed, the survey input process was Internet based. The advantages of web-based surveys were the constant survey availability, the decreased time required (Perkins, 2004) and lower costs.

3.3.2 Questionnaire

The questionnaire is presented in Annex 5.1.

3.3.3 Sample

The population consists of the employees of Hungarian customer support centers. Which is approximately 200 thousand people (Fillus, 2010). Neuman (2006) underlines that a sampling ratio of between 0.025 and 1% for a population of this size is required. This means a sample of 50-2000 people.

The target population means the members of a population the researcher can include in a study. This is the maximal sample size, as if everybody answers the questionnaire, the sample will be of this size. (Creswell, 2005). In our case the target population was 1200 employees of 41 organizational entities. The entities were defined based on the idea of Mastenbroek (1991), who argued that an organization is a network of interrelated groups (entities), which are connected through four layers. One of these layers are the socio-emotional layers. As Bakacsi (2010, p.: 189) summarizes, "People in organizations are linked through emotional ties: sympathy or antipathy manifested in personal relationships, a sense of belonging, sense of identity. The joint activities develop group affiliation and commitment – this is the „nest model” of organizations. The social-emotional relationships may include competitive and cooperative elements: the former is the identity of the individual (or group identity), the latter is the sense of belonging, identification with the organizational collective values)"

This approach to the organizational reality reveals that when examining commitment and its related variables it is important to focus on these entities. When defining the entities, the main factor was not legal personality, but the factors that form the basis of group identity in an

organizational setting (different city, different supervisor, different task etc). Therefore we could tap the perceived organizational commitment the way it is formed by these important factors.

The number of returned questionnaires was 727, this means that the response rate is adequate and the sample size is appropriate for our study.

The questionnaire was completed by people working for Hungarian companies various industries. The respondents are of different sex, education, marital status, tenure etc.

3.3.4 Research variables

The questionnaires were found during the literature review, these surveys are appropriate for the measurement of the variables, and the validation – of their English version - has been made by their authors. It was therefore not necessary to use self-developed questionnaires.

The research variables may only tap a certain amount of the diversity of everyday life. Neither the domain of work, nor the domain of family life can be fully explained with these variables. When defining the scope of the study (and choosing the included variables) our principle was to use less variables with good reliability and validity, instead of using a lot of variables that are unreliable and of a dubious validity.

All of the scales described below were responded to on a 5-point Likert type scale. The anchor are strongly agree (5) and strongly disagree (1).

3.3.4.1 Work Social Support

We use the questionnaire of Etzion (1984) to measure the Work Social Support. This consists of 8 questions which reflect whether certain phenomena that are in connection with the social support are present in the individual's life (for example: appreciation), and 3 questions that refer to the relationship between the individual and some other people or groups (f. e: superordinates)

3.3.4.2 Job Satisfaction

We decided to apply the commonly used questionnaire of Babin-Boles (1998). This has six questions (e.g, 'I find real enjoyment in my work.')

3.3.4.3 Work Role Conflict

We measure Work Role Conflict with eight questions (e.g., 'I have to do things that should be done differently.'). The questionnaire was developed by Rizzo, House and Litzman (1970).

3.3.4.4 Work Role Ambiguity

The six items relating Work Role Ambiguity was created by Rizzo, House and Litzman (1970) as well. An example: 'I know exactly what is expected of me' (reversely coded question).

3.3.4.5 Work Time Demand

Based on the idea of Carlson-Perrewé (1999) we collect data regarding an individual's level of perceived role overload in order to measure Work Time Demand. The items were adapted from the questionnaire of Beehr, Walsh, & Taber (1976), which has three items (e.g., 'It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.').

3.3.4.6 Family Social Support

To tap Family Social Support, we use the scale of Etzion (1984), which is similar to the Work Social Support scale. The main differences are in the last three questions, which in this questionnaire refer to the relationship of the individual with families, friends and spouses (e.g., 'Please indicate the quality of the relationship you have with the following person or groups of persons: Spouse.').

3.3.4.7 Family Satisfaction

The items are based on the scale of Staines-Pleck (1983), which was used by several authors (Rice, Frone, & McFarlin, 1992). The scale consists of three items., e.g., 'I am happy with my family life.'

3.3.4.8 Family Role Conflict

Family-related role conflict items were adapted from the work role conflict scale by Rizzo, House and Litzman (1970). Carlson and Perrewé (1999) used the same approach, which makes it possible 'to measure equivalent role conflict aspects of the family domain ((1999)p. 522). All questions for the family domain matched the questions for the work domain as closely as possible, e.g., 'I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.'

3.3.4.9 Family Time Demand

We measure Family Time Demand by tapping the respondent's level of perceived role overload. This is measured with the adapted version of the work role overload scale developed by Beehr, Walsh, and Taber (1976) – as it was done by Carlson-Perrewé (1999): each item used for the family domain paralleled the questions for the work domain as closely as possible. This scale has three items, e.g., 'It often seems like I have too much work at home for one person to do.'

3.3.4.10 Family Role Ambiguity

The questionnaire for the measurement of Family Role Ambiguity uses an adapted version of the Work Role Ambiguity items developed by Rizzo, House and Litzman (1970). Each item paralleled the questions for the work domain as closely as possible. An example: 'I know that I have divided my time properly at home' (reversely coded question).

3.3.4.11 Affective Commitment

We use the eight items of Meyer és Allen (1991) to measure affective commitment, e.g., 'I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization' (reversely coded question).

3.3.4.12 Continuance Commitment

To tap continuance commitment we adapted the Powell-Meyer (2004) version of the Meyer-Allen (1991) items. This scale consists of nine questions, and has two subscales, measuring the high-sacrifice (HiSac) and the low alternatives (LoAlt) dimension of continuance commitment, e.g., 'For me personally, the costs of leaving this organization would be far greater than the benefits.'

3.3.4.13 Normative Commitment

We rely on the eight items of Meyer and Allen (1991) to measure normative commitment, e.g., 'I think that people these days move from company to company too often.'

3.3.4.14 FIW and WIF

The measurement of FIW and WIF is conducted based on the scale of Carlson et. al. (2000). This scale has 18 items, 9 for FIW, 9 for WIF, and has three subscales for each (time based, strain based, behavior based). An example for an item regarding time based FIW: 'I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.'

3.3.4.15 WFB

To tap Work-Family Balance (WFB) we adapted the items of Carlson, Grzywacz and Zivnuska (2009). This scale consists of six items, e.g., 'It is clear to me, based on feedback from co-workers and family members, that I am accomplishing both my work and family responsibilities.'

3.3.4.16 Intention to Quit

We use the scale of Colarelli (1984) to measure the intention.

3.3.4.17 Background variables

Chapter 4.1.3.4 discusses the sample's distribution regarding the background variables.

3.4 Data analysis

3.4.1 Assumptions

The research is based on a self-report questionnaire, the application of this tool is based on several assumptions.

3.4.1.1 *Validity and reliability*

The most basic assumption is that we can get valid and reliable research results using our questionnaires. The questionnaires used have already been validated internationally, this may support our belief. Of course we are going to do some important analysis on our data (Cronbach-alfa reliability test, factor analysis, Principal Component Analysis etc.)

Another assumption regarding validity is that the respondents have a sort of consciousness about the examined variables, and they are able to express these thoughts using questionnaires that consist of pre-defined questions and answers. As several researchers used these questionnaires to examine these variables, we have no reason to have doubts.

In order to get valid research results we carefully considered the criteria of Parker (1993). The author distinguishes between internal and external validity. Internal validity „refers to the extent to which extraneous variables (that is, sources of error variance) are controlled” (Parker, 1993, p.: 131). External validity „refers to the degree to which research findings can be generalized across persons, times, and settings” (Parker, 1993, p.: 134).

Parker (1993) identifies several threats to the internal and external validity. Table 13. indicates these and the steps we have taken in order to eliminate these.

Table 13 – Validity threats and steps taken in order to eliminate these

<i>Validity Threat</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Steps to eliminate the threat</i>
Internal validity		
History	Refers to an extraneous event that correlates with the dependent variable and occurs during the study.	The respondents needed approximately 60 minutes to answer the questionnaire. This threat is not relevant. The respondents were given 5-7 days to fill out the questionnaire, during these periods no organisational changes occurred. The research was not a longitudinal one, minimizing this threat.
Maturation	Refers to uncontrolled, naturally occurring, developmental changes in research participants that affect their performance on the outcome variable.	Given the fact that the respondents needed approximately 60 minutes to answer the questionnaire, this threat is not relevant.
Testing	Pretesting may sensitize participants in ways that affect posttest scores. For example, students may remember their pretest responses and answer more items correctly at posttest	There were no pretestings, so this threat was not relevant.
Instrumentation	This refers to deterioration or changes in the accuracy of instruments, devices, or observers used to measure the dependent (outcome) variable	The online questionnaire was developed carefully to minimize this threat.
Statistical regression	Grouping participants on the basis of extreme scores may result in inaccurate categorizations, because extreme scorers tend to regress toward the group mean on repeated testing.	We did not group the participants, eliminating this threat.
Selection	This threat occurs when participants volunteer for a treatment or are assigned to treatment and control groups based on their preferences	There were no control groups or treatment groups.
Mortality	Refers to the loss of participants and their data during the course of a study due to illness, forgetfulness, death, or other causes.	Given the already mentioned fact that the respondents needed approximately 60 minutes to answer the questionnaire, this threat is not relevant.
Interactions with selection	Many of the foregoing threats to internal validity may interact with selection to produce effects that may be erroneously attributed to the treatment	The selection was based on the membership of the organizational entity – this threat was not relevant.
Ambiguity	Ambiguity about the	The hypotheses were rooted in the literature,

about the direction of causal influence	direction of causal influence	helping to recude this threat. But as our research was not longitudinal, this threat is relevant, and we had to be careful when interpreting the results.
External validity		
Interaction of treatments with treatments	When multiple treatments are administered to the same participants, the effects may be cumulative.	The were no organisational interventions during our research.
Interaction of testing with treatment	The pretest may increase or decrease the respondents' responsiveness or sensitivity to the treatment.	There were no pretestings, so this threat was not relevant.
Interaction of selection with treatment	This threat occurs when research participants are volunteers, that is, individuals who are prone to seek out research.	It is possible that those who decided to answer the questionnaire had polarised opinions compared to those who didn't answer. This threat could not be eliminated, and will always be present when the response is voluntary.
Interaction of setting with treatment	Treatments demonstrated in one environment, for example, the laboratory, may not work in other settings.	There were no treatments during the research.
Interaction of history with treatment	The effects observed in a study may be due to special circumstances, for instance	We have no information of any special event that may had an effect on the answers.

3.4.1.2 Reliability

Reliability means that „other things being equal, a person should get the same score on a questionnaire if they complete it at two different points in time, (...) and two people who are the same in terms of the construct being measured, should get the same score” (Field, 2005, p666-667). The scales' reliability is commonly measured by the Cronbach's alpha. We calculated these as well (Chapter 4.1.1.)

3.4.1.3 Time and opportunity cost

The questionnaire requires considerable amount of time from the respondents, which means an opportunity cost as well. We assumed that the respondents have enough time to fill out the questionnaire, and they are willing to do so. As the questionnaire was to be filled out via the Internet, and may be interrupted and continued later, we had high hopes. The response rate was adequate, so this assumption was met.

3.4.1.4 Comprehensibility

It is very important that the respondents understand the questions, preferably the same way as the researcher intended them to be meant. As the questionnaires were originally developed in

English, we had to adapt them to the Hungarian language. In order to do so, we used the method suggested by Geisinger (1994).

The questionnaires were developed in English, the Hungarian translation was made by the researchers of the Department of Organizational Behaviour of the Corvinus University of Budapest. These researchers (including the author of this Thesis Draft) made their translation proposals independently then they compiled these together into one version. This was translated back to English by an independent translator, and this English version was compared to the original one. When there were notable differences, the Hungarian translation was modified.

Another aspect of comprehensibility is that the questions should not be too complicated and hard to understand. These questionnaires consist of simple statements or questions, avoiding rare words or terms. We assume that an average respondent will understand the questions, independently from his profession or age.

3.4.1.5 Candour

When interpreting and analysing the data gained from the research we assume that the respondents answered the questions honestly, they channelled in their true feelings, emotions and thoughts. In order to achieve this, it is very important that the respondents have tranquility when answering the questions, and they feel that there is no pressure on them, and their anonymity is secured. On the first page of the questionnaire we declare that we respect the anonymity of the respondents.

3.4.1.6 Voluntary nature

During our research we suppose that the respondents participate because of their own will. Of course we seek to have support from the senior management and from the superordinates, but this shall not mean any sort of explicit or implicit pressure. The intrinsic motivation to participate will serve as the foundation of honest answers. .

3.4.1.7 Attention

When analysing the results we presume that the respondents dedicate the same attention to the first question as to the last one – the level of their concentration does not deteriorate. Therefore the order of the variables in the questionnaire does not have an influence on the results. We didn't change the order of the questions in the questionnaires.

3.4.1.8 Demographic variables

We assume that there is a higher probability of answering the variables regarding personal data if these questions are asked at the end of the questionnaire.

3.4.1.9 Measurement scale

The questionnaire was responded to on a 5-point Likert type scale. The Likert-scale uses ordinal variables, which means that those mathematical-statistical tools may not be used to analyse these data which require at least interval variables. But the international research practice commonly assumes that a Likert-scale is quasi-interval, so this scale-transformation is not unprecedented (Barna & Székelyi, 2002).

3.4.2 Main data analysis methods and their main criteria

3.4.2.1 Data preparation

„Data is collected, entered, cleaned, and a statistician is told it is ready for analysis” – underlines Waller (2010). We prepared our data according to these warnings. The respondents filled out the questionnaire via Internet, the software created an Excel-file (with more than 130.000 cells filled). Then we cleaned the data, and exported it to SPSS, which allowed more advanced analyses.

We created latent variables out of the manifest variables, then we checked their reliability and the amount of information lost. After this we calculated the descriptive statistics, and checked the assumptions regarding the more sophisticated, parametric tests we intended to run.

3.4.2.2 Data analysis methods

3.4.2.2.1 Descriptive statistics and reliability analysis

First we calculated the Cronbach's alpha for every latent variable. (Refer to Field (2005) for details on the method).

As Lehmann et al. (2005) emphasize, if the Cronbach's alpha value is under 0,7, then the reliability is not adequate. Ideally the value is between 0,8-0,9, while a Cronbach's alpha higher than 0,9 is a sign of redundancy or too much questions regarding the same latent variable.

After the reliability analyses we calculated the descriptive statistics. However these don't allow us to see the differences between interesting sub-groups or to analyse the relationship between variables. This is why we conducted ANOVA's, and calculated correlations, ran cluster analyses and regression analyses.

3.4.2.2.2 Principal Component Analysis

We used Principal Component Analysis to aggregate the items of the questionnaire into their respective variables.

3.4.2.2.3 Factor Analysis

To analyse the latent structure of the multidimensional variables and to analyse divergent validity we use Factor Analysis. When interpreting a results, we kept in mind that 'a variable is said to belong to one and only one factor if (1) its factor weight exceeds 0.25 on a single factor or if (2) its factor weight on one factor is greater than twice its factor weight on any other factor' (Barna & Székelyi, 2002, p.: 48).

3.4.2.2.4 K-means Clustering

To create commitment profiles we use K-means Clustering. Based on the hypothesis of Meyer-Herscovitsch (2001) first we intend to find eight clusters – and if we can't find eight clusters,

we'll lower the number of clusters (see Wasti (2005)). When interpreting the clusters we use the method of Wasti (2005, p. 298).

3.4.2.2.5 ANOVA

In order to determine whether the commitment profiles differ significantly regarding the outcome variables, we conducted ANOVA.

3.4.2.2.6 Hierarchical regression analysis

To analyse the casual relationship between variables, we use hierarchical regression analysis.

In order to examine the effects of some variables on another variables, we conducted regression analyses. The regression models were theory-driven: they were built based on our research model.

There are different relationships between variables. If the value of variable Y is influenced by the value of variable X, we call variable Y as “dependent variable”, and variable X as “independent variable”. Sometimes the relationship between variable X and variable Y is influenced by other variables. This can basically have two forms: mediation and moderation.

„Mediation indicates that the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable is transmitted through a third variable, called a mediator variable.” Figure 17 illustrates that the effect of variable X on variable Y is transmitted through variable Z, this is called full mediation, while Figure 18 shows partial mediation, where we can identify direct effect of variable X on variable Y as well.

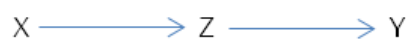


Figure 17 – Mediating effect

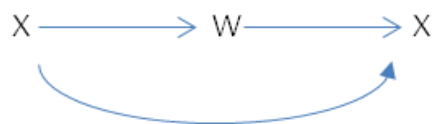


Figure 18 – Partial mediating effect

Mediation is tested among X, Y, and the mediator variable M as follows (Edwards & Lambert, 2007, p.: 3):

(a) Y is regressed on X,

(b) M is regressed on X,

(c) Y is regressed on both X and M.

These regression equations can be written as follows:

$$Y = b_{02} + b_{X2}X + e_{Y2}. (2)$$

$$M = a_{03} + a_{X3}X + e_{M3}. (3)$$

$$Y = b_{04} + b_{X4}X + b_{M4}M + e_{Y4}. (4)$$

Four conditions outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) must be met in order to have a mediating effect:

(a) X should relate to Y in Equation 2, such that b_{X2} is significant;

(b) X should relate to M in the Equation 3, such that a_{X3} is significant;

(c) M should relate to Y in Equation 4, such that b_{M4} is significant;

(d) the relationship between X and Y in Equation 4 (i.e., b_{X4}) should be nonsignificant or significantly smaller than the relationship between X and Y in Equation 2 (i.e., b_{X2}).

Assuming the first three conditions are satisfied, complete mediation is inferred if b_{X4} is not significant, whereas partial mediation is concluded if b_{X4} remains significant but is significantly smaller than b_{X2} .

Another important effect is moderating effect. „Moderation occurs when the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable varies according to the level of a third variable, termed a moderator variable, which interacts with the independent variable” (Edwards & Lambert, 2007, p.: 1) Figure 19 illustrates the moderating effect, where the effect of variable X on variable Y depends on the level of variable Z.

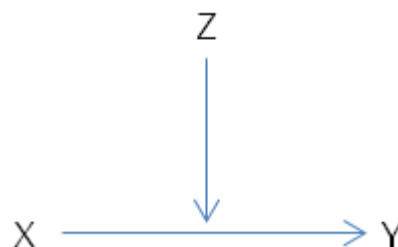


Figure 19 – Moderating effect

When testing moderation, dependent variable Y is regressed on the independent variable X, the moderator variable Z, and their product XZ (Edwards & Lambert, 2007):

$$Y = b_{01} + b_{X1}X + b_{Z1}Z + b_{XZ1}XZ + e_{Y1}. (1)$$

In Equation 1, the test of the coefficient on XZ (i.e., b_{XZ1}) is used to infer moderation.

3.4.2.3 Analysis of the assumptions for parametric tests

3.4.2.3.1 Normality

First we check the normality of every variable of our research.

As Field (2005) points out, significance tests of skew and kurtosis (for example Shapiro-Wilk, Kolmogorov-Smirnov) should be avoided in large samples. Instead the numerical values of skewness and kurtosis should be checked, keeping in mind that if these are between -1 and +1, then the distribution meets the assumption of normality (Chan, 2003).

Table 14 – Skewness, kurtosis and normality of our variables

	Skewness	Kurtosis	Normal distribution -1 +1
AC	-,581	,294	OK
CC	-,253	,202	OK
NC	-,029	-,121	OK
WFB	-,859	,920	OK
WRC	,484	-,412	OK
FRC	1,307	1,031	NOT OK
WTD	-,091	-,449	OK
FTD	,367	-,669	OK
FRA	-,840	,910	OK
WRA	-,617	,210	OK
JSAT	-,574	,256	OK
FSAT	-1,230	1,084	NOT OK
FSUPP	-1,005	1,685	NOT OK
WSUPP	-,231	,206	OK
QUIT	1,149	,513	NOT OK
WIF	,082	-,567	OK
FIW	,591	,113	OK

As we can see, most of our variables meet the assumption of normality..

3.4.2.3.2 Other assumptions regarding ANOVA

There are four assumptions of ANOVA¹¹ (Field, 2005; Huzsvai, 2011).

¹¹ And every parametric test.

Table 15 – Other assumptions of ANOVA

Criteria	Verdict
Normally distributed data	Table 63 shows that this assumption is true in most of the cases, but not always.
Homogeneity of variance	Table 63 indicates that this assumption is true in some cases, but not always.
Independence	This assumption is true, as the respondent were answering independently from each other – as far as we know.
Interval data	We collected our data using Likert-type scales. This is not classical interval data, but as Barna-Székelyi (2002) describes, social scientists consider it as interval data.

The groups that we intend to compare later are the commitment profiles. We define these later (Chapter 0.) But now we have to check whether the methods we use later are meeting the assumptions.

Several variables do not met the assumption of homogeneity of variances according to Levene's test. But when the sample size is big, the Levene's test may be significant even when group variances are not very different. In this case the variance ratio should be checked as well: if the largest group variance divided by the smallest group variance is smaller than two, we may consider the assumption to be met. (Field, 2005, p.: 98). In Table 16 we created a column, labelled „Variance ratio”

Table 16- Test of homogeneity of variances

	Levene's test	df1	df2	Sig.	Variancie ratio	Verdict
QUIT	18,917	7	717	,000	7,11	NOT OK
WFB	3,029	7	716	,004	3,17	NOT OK
WRC	2,304	7	715	,025	2,18	NOT OK
FRC	2,155	7	710	,036	1,52	OK
WTD	1,696	7	709	,107	1,56	OK
FTD	,834	7	710	,559	1,42	OK
FRA	1,851	7	711	,075	2,49	OK
WRA	3,337	7	713	,002	2,88	NOT OK
JSAT	2,624	7	715	,011	2,19	NOT OK
FSAT	5,662	7	667	,000	3,37	NOT OK
FSUPP	6,524	7	709	,000	3,53	NOT OK
WSUPP	,999	7	717	,431	1,49	OK
WIF	1,593	7	715	,134	1,65	OK
FIW	2,256	7	713	,028	2,01	OK

As Table 16 indicates, some variables meet the assumption of homogeneity of variances regarding the commitment profiles (FRC, WTD, FTC, FRA, WSUPP, WIF, FIW), while others do not (QUIT, WFB, WRC, WRA, JSAT, FSAT, FSUPP). Appendix 8.4. summarizes our calculations.

The question emerges whether our data are suitable for ANOVA-testing or not. Field (2005) underlines that „ANOVA can be robust to violations of its assumptions” (old.: 360), but emphasises that the assumption of independence is the most important. This is met in our research, so we don't have problems with this. Assumption of interval data is also met, the assumption of normality is met in several cases. But „the mathematical-statistical handbooks consider ANOVA to be robust and say that the dependent variable doesn't have to be normally distributed” (Huzsvai, 2011, p.: 7), the violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variances can be handled using the appropriate F-test (Field, 2005).

Therefore when the assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met, we use Welch's F, the post hoc test will be Games-Howell – according to the guidelines of Field (2005)¹².

¹² Games-Howell post hoc test is good when the assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met and the size of the groups are different. And this is our situation.

4 Results

This chapter is dedicated to findings from calculations we have performed to answer the major questions of our research objective, to be followed by an analysis of these findings. To begin with, estimations concerning the reliability of our data are presented, which is an essential step to take before any substantial scientific effort. Once our questionnaires are found to have appropriate psychometric properties, a summary of the major characteristics of our sample is made. After an overview of basically descriptive statistics for the variables involved in this study, the focus is shifted to correlations existing between the variables. An initial discussion of pairwise correlations is followed by componentwise analyses of variables used here to grasp our major concepts of interest (such as organizational commitment or work-family conflict) against relevant control variables. Finally, investigations into the relationships of commitment components with family-related variables are presented.

4.1 Reliability analyses

4.1.1 Examination for Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's alphas for the variables involved in the examination are shown in Table 17.

Table 17 - Cronbach-alfa values of the research variables

Cronbach-alfa	
AC	0,915
CC	0,782
NC	0,855
WFB	0,932
WRC	0,877
FRC	0,889
WTD	0,775
FTD	0,662
FRA	0,803
WRA	0,817
JSAT	0,898
FSAT	0,835
FSUPP	0,897
WSUPP	0,875
QUIT	0,909
WIF	0,914
FIW	0,873

Except for variable FTD, all Cronbach's alphas obtained as measures of internal consistency were found to exceed the threshold at 0.7, and hence acceptable. On account of a lower than desirable Cronbach's alpha obtained for FTD, the correlations linked with the latter variable are treated with caution in this study.

4.1.2 Principal Component Analysis

As explained in Section 3.4.2.2.2 above, principal component analysis was used to aggregate into a respective single variable the information contents of variables which had been assessed through multiple questions. Below follows an investigation into maximum percentage information contents of observed variables that can be aggregated into each related latent variable used in this study (refer to Barna & Székelyi, 2002).

Table 18 shows percentage variances as retained by principal components, or percentage information contents that may be retained if multiple manifest variables are aggregated into a respective single variable.

Table 18 – Retained maximal information of our variables

Latent variable	Number of manifest variables	Retained maximal information	Comment
AC	8	64,1%	Two dimensional variable: with the second principal component the retained information is 60,2%.
CC	9 (6+3)	39,3%	
NC	8	51,7%	
WFB	6	75,0%	
WRC	8	54,8%	
FRC	8	57,7%	
WTD	3	69,3%	
FTD	3	61,0%	
FRA	6	53,8%	
WRA	6	54,5%	
JSAT	6	67,7%	
FSAT	3	77,2%	
FSUPP	10	52,7%	
WSUPP	10	47,9%	
QUIT	3	85,1%	
WIF	9	59,4%	
FIW	9	50,8%	

A question arises: Where is the upper limit of tolerable information loss? As set forth by Barna & Székelyi (2002), 'a principal component will be acceptable if it retains at least half of the amount of all the information belonging to the variables. The lower is the number of assessed variables to be aggregated, the more strictly this rule must be adhered to' (p. 39). As clear from the table above, all the variables under review in this study except for one satisfy this criterion (including multidimensional variables each with a number of principal components equalling the number of its dimensions). The only exception is WSUPP, a variable but slightly below the 50-percent threshold. But considering that working with a single variable instead of 10, and still retaining as much as 47 % of information, this seems to be an acceptable trade-off.

The next question to raise is this: Does each manifest variable under review take a share in the information contents of a related latent variable? Does it duly contribute to the principal component? For this question to be answered, an examination of communalities is necessary. 'A variable will be regarded as constituent of any principal component if it has a communality of 0.25 or higher, that is to say, the closeness of relationship between the principal component and the original variable is described by a correlation at 0.5 or higher' (Barna & Székelyi, 2002; p. 30). For reasons of volume, actual communalities for all the assessed variables are not listed here. Instead, each assessed variable is simply asserted to have a communality exceeding the threshold of 0.25. Consequently, this study does not work with any 'problematic' manifest variable that would fail to contribute duly to the information contents of a related latent variable.

4.1.3 Analysis of the factor structures

4.1.3.1 Commitment components

The so-called Three-Component Model (TCM) defines organizational commitment as having three distinguishable components in affective, continuance, and normative terms, respectively. The questionnaire designed to assess TCM includes 8-9-8 respective questions directed at the three components. Accordingly, a factor analysis of these altogether 25 questions is expected to result in the very three factors, with each question loading on a corresponding factor. Otherwise, any conclusion as may be drawn from our data with respect to the three components would have limited validity. For this reason, the TCM questionnaire is subjected below to a factor analysis (by means of the unweighted least squares' method, seeking a three-factor solution, with varimax rotation) to find out whether the data presented here bears out the theoretical considerations which are essential for any meaningful interpretation of data.

As a matter of course, a KMO test and Bartlett's test are the first to perform to make sure that the theoretical criteria underlying the factor analysis are satisfied.

Table 19 – KMO and Bartlett's-test result of organizational commitment variables

KMO and Bartlett Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,927
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	9289,977
	df	300
	Sig.	,000

As shown in Table 19 above, the KMO indicator has a value very close to 1, a finding from which it is reasonably assumed that there is a latent structure lying behind our data, and our variables

are not characterized by any strong partial correlations. On the other hand, Bartlett's test proved that our variables are not independent pairwise, which is another hopeful sign.

The unweighted least squares' method was used to perform a factor analysis, with varimax rotation applied to the factors.

Table 20 – Rotated factor matrix of organizational commitment factors

Rotated factor matrix (Varimax method)				
		Factor		
		1	2	3
AC	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	,616	,390	,115
	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	,508	,152	,029
	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	,652	,230	,060
	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (R)	,631	,317	,136
	I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (R).	,820	,123	,028
	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R)	,856	,159	,106
	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	,888	,161	,097
	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R).	,869	,195	,120
CC	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	-,097	-,208	,495
	One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	-,103	-,181	,534
	What keeps me working at this company is the lack of opportunities elsewhere.	-,416	-,311	,342
	I have invested too much time in this organization to consider working elsewhere.	,106	,199	,493
	Leaving this organization now would require considerable personal sacrifice.	,207	,238	,610
	For me personally, the costs of leaving this organization would be far greater than the benefits.	,031	,236	,633
	I would not leave this organization because of what I would stand to lose.	,283	,365	,602
	If I decided to leave this organization, too much of my life would be disrupted.	,177	,325	,601
NC	I continue to work for this organization because I don't believe another organization could offer the benefits I have here.	,230	,338	,505
	I think that people these days move from company to company too often.	,042	,334	,034
	I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization (R).	,293	,599	,077
	Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me (R).	,196	,742	,126
	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	,355	,745	,138
	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.	,296	,678	,047
	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	,203	,731	,135
	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.	,070	,539	,181
NC	I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore.	,264	,489	,061

As evident from Table 20, there is a clear situation here, with the three factors being distinctly visible, and questions designed to grasp the same component loading on the same factor. Based on the two criteria used to decide about the factor structure (see Section 3.4.2.2.3), it can be stated as fact that there are no problematic questions, and the picture is clear. It implies that our questionnaire has passed the test, and we have managed to have a good grasp of, and can thus work with, each of the three components.

4.1.3.2 WIF

The questionnaire designed to assess Work Interference with Family uses three questions to grasp the three aspects of the factor each including Time-based WIF, Strain-based WIF, and Behaviour-based WIF. Consequently, these altogether nine questions are expected to load on three factors, with questions designed to grasp the same aspect of WIF expected to belong to the same respective factor. Verification is carried out below. The unweighted least squares' method was used for a factor analysis, with varimax rotation applied to the factors, and SPSS was prompted to generate three factors.

A KMO test and Bartlett's test proved that there is a latent structure lying behind the data in this study (Table 21).

Table 21 - KMO and Bartlett's-test result of WIF variables

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,880
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4805,753
	df	36
	Sig.	,000

The rotated factor matrix looks like just as is desired, with each question loading on the very factor it was expected to. For interpretation of the table, we again use the criteria outlined in Chapter 3.4.2.2.3. In our case, these requirements are satisfied almost without exception (see Table 22).

Table22 – Rotated factor matrix of WIFfactors

Rotated factor matrix

		Factor		
		1	2	3
Time based WIF	My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.	,771	,329	,263
	The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.	,834	,311	,231
	I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.	,806	,340	,198
Strain based WIF	When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.	,437	,776	,205
	I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.	,324	,841	,275
	Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.	,315	,713	,287
Behavior based WIF	The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.	,195	,259	,660
	Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.	,177	,124	,867
	The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.	,188	,227	,717

4.1.3.3 FIW

Family Interference with Work embraces three dimensions similar to those Work Interference with Family does. Here again, a KMO test and Bartlett's test brought promising results (see Table 23).

Table23 - KMO and Bartlett's-test result of FIW variables

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,833
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4210,649
	df	36
	Sig.	,000

Again, the factor structure obtained answers our expectations (Table 24). Each question loads on the very factor which has been meant therefor, and the factor weights meet the criteria, making sure that our questionnaire has psychometric properties that permit further analysis of any data as may be extracted therefrom.

Table 24 - Rotated factor matrix of WIF factors

Rotated factor matrix

		Factor		
		1	2	3
Time based FIW	The time I spend on family responsibilities often interfere with my work responsibilities.	,273	,250	,516
	The time I spend with my family often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.	,187	,152	,903
	I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities.	,394	,158	,646
Strain based FIW	Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work.	,773	,169	,263
	Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.	,903	,163	,244
	Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job.	,839	,156	,257
Behavior based FIW	The behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.	,148	,759	,201
	Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.	,141	,921	,125
	The problem-solving behavior that work for me at home does not seem to be as useful at work.	,165	,858	,177

4.1.3.4 Analysis of correlations regarding WIF and FIW

According to Michel's model (2009), WIF is expected to be most markedly correlated with antecedent variables relating to the work domain, while FIW is assumed to show a closer correlation with variables concerning family domain. For our research objectives, it is essential that these assumptions prove to be true.

Respective correlations are visualized in the table below.

Table 25 – Correlation between WIF/ FIW and the antecedent variables

	WIF	FIW
WIF	1	,558**
FIW	,558**	1
WSUPP	-,403**	-,259**
FSUPP	-,261**	-,310**
JSAT	-,460**	-,328**
FSAT	-,208**	-,245**
WRA	-,362**	-,341**
FRA	-,261**	-,338**
WRC	,491**	,425**
FRC	,315**	,448**

Either variable showing closer correlation with the direction of interference which has been meant therefor, the figures above are promising.

It seems to be worth making one more step on, looking into any combined effect as WIF and FIW may exert. To this end, respective regression analyses are applied to WIF and FIW for work antecedents and family antecedents separately. If our assumption is true, the predictor variable will have a higher value in the job-related independent-variable model than in the family-related independent-variable model for WIF, and vice versa.

Table 26 – Regression parameter estimates of the antecedent variables

	WIF	FIW	WIF	FIW
WSUPP	-,08	,11*		
FSUPP			-,18*	-,11*
JSAT	-,26**	-,11**		
FSAT			-,03	-,02
WRA	-,06	-,16**		
FRA			-,13*	-,12**
WRC	,34**	,25**		
FRC			,27**	,35**
Adjusted R ²	,30	,20	,12	,23

Indeed, as clear from Table 26, work antecedents account for more of WIF variance than family antecedents do, and vice versa, family antecedents account for more of FIW variance than work antecedents do.

Based on the tables used to summarize respective correlations and results from regression analyses, it is evident that our presupposition concerning the relations of WIF and FIW with such variables as work and family antecedents has been proved.

4.2 Sample

Sample characteristics are listed in Annex 8.2, and discussed in detail below.

4.2.1 Demographical characteristics

Our sample has an estimated average age of 30.06 years, and is divided into several age groups. The distribution of age groups is illustrated in Figure 20 which is indicative of a relatively young labour working in the customer service jobs sampled, with both the mean and median of our data being about 30. The age distribution of our sample is rather similar to data obtained from international and domestic labour surveys made at call centers (CfA, 2012; HEA, 2009).

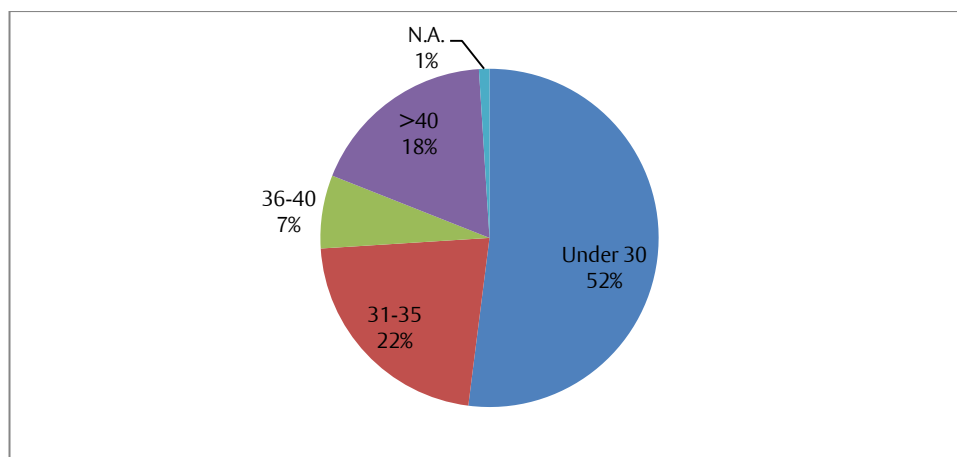


Figure 20 - Distribution of the sample by age

Out of all respondents, there were 186 men (26%), and 534 women (73%). Shown in Figure 21, these figures tally with the proportions of labour employed at domestic call centers¹³ (Ternovszky, 2006; p. 116).

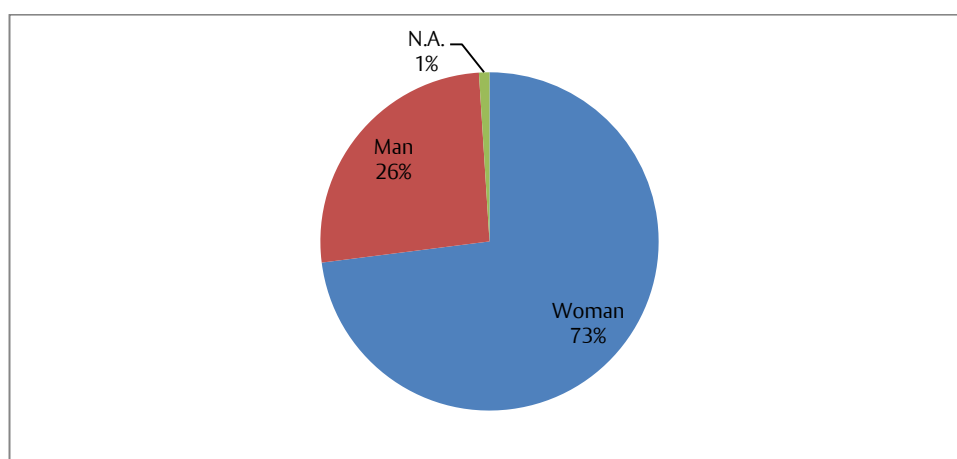


Figure 21 - Distribution of the sample by gender

The domicile distribution of our sample shows a heterogeneous pattern. A decisive majority of our respondents lived in towns, including one-third of them in a county seat. 16% of our respondents lived in a village, and every tenth respondent in the capital. The data is presented in Figure 22.

¹³ A corresponding total figure for domestic customer service labour was not found.

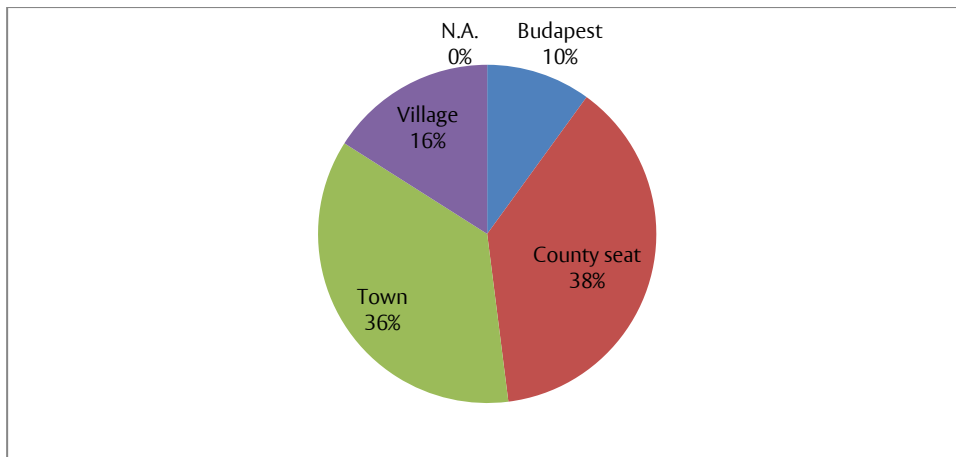


Figure 22 - Distribution of the sample by domicile

Visualized in Figure 23, the distribution of our sample by education relies on interesting data. As evident from the figure, half of our respondents were college graduates, with one-third of the individuals in the sample even having a collegiate or university degree. High-school graduation being a basic requirement for employment on a customer service job, all respondents had their respective high-school certificates. However, 46% of the respondents had either discontinued their studies after their final examinations or were still subjects of post-secondary training, and hence could not be listed among graduates. In this respect, our sample showed a pattern rather similar to the overall Hungarian situation (HEA, 2009).

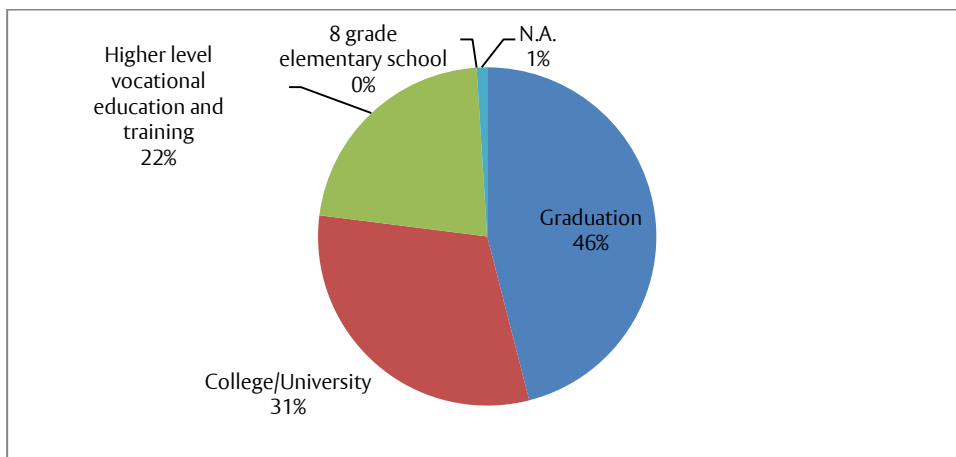


Figure 23 - Distribution of the sample by education

4.2.2 Work characteristics

A large majority (82%) of the employees involved in our sample were linked with their respective employers by an employment contract made for an indefinite period of time, while about one-tenth (12%) of the sampled employees had contracted for a pre-defined period of time, and 5% of them were employed on some basis not otherwise specified (see Figure 24).

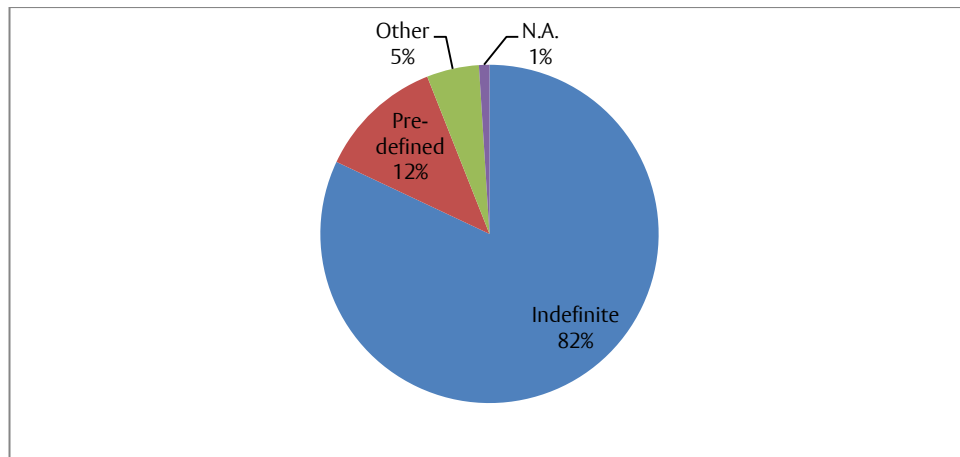


Figure 24 - Distribution of the sample by length of contract

As far as distribution of our sample by the customer service job type is concerned (see Figure 25), the pattern reflects a medley of call center employees, staff involved in physical customer encounters, and respondents providing back-office services. A majority of the total sample (56%) belonged to some call center staff, while about one-fifth of our respondents (18%) had been employed to provide customer service on a physical contact basis, and one-fourth (26%) were back-office personnel.

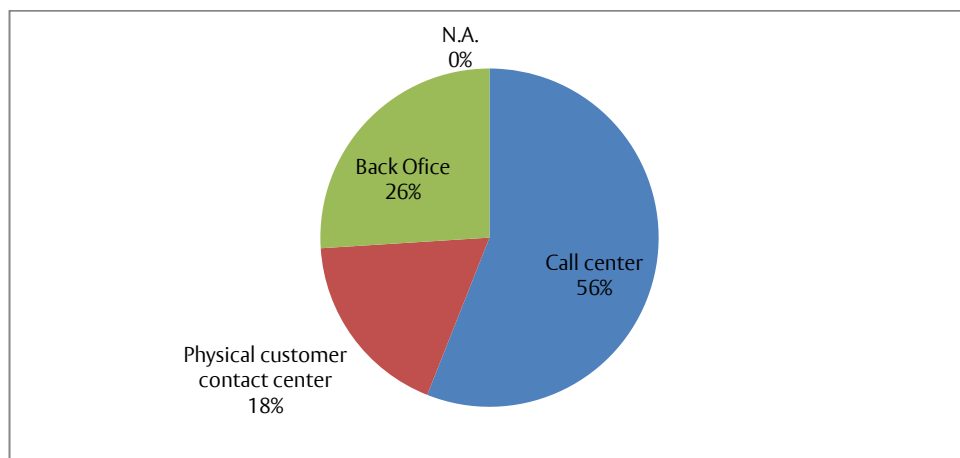


Figure 25 - Distribution of the sample by type of customer service center

If we take a look at the sampled employees' lengths of service on their respective jobs, we find that less than one-tenth of them (7%) could be counted as beginners, having been employed for less than a year, while 41% and 31% of them had been working for their employers for 1-4 and 5-8 years, respectively. Having spent more than 9 years on their jobs each, 'old sweats' added up to a fair 20% of the total sample.

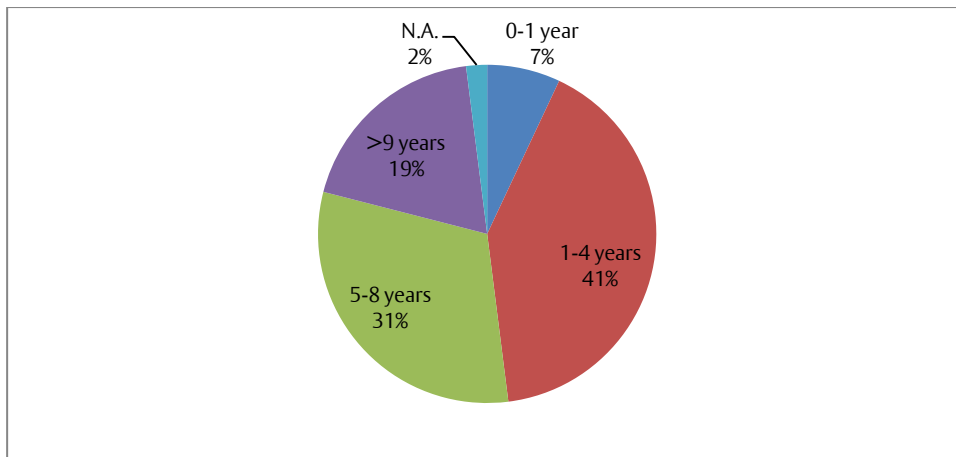


Figure 26 - Distribution of the sample by tenure

Answers to the question about the times our respondents spent at work on the average daily showed that daily worktimes averaged 8-9 hours with three-fourths (77%), 9-10 hours with 13%, 10-12 hours with 4%, and more than 12 hours with 1%, of all the respondents, while 4% reported an average daily worktime of less than 8 hours (see Figure 27).

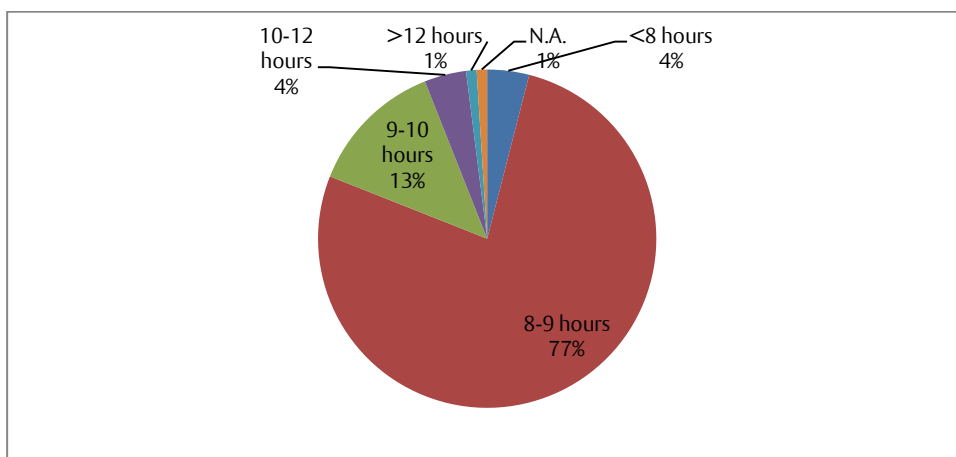


Figure 27 - Distribution of the sample by time spent in workplace

The estimated daily average durations of travel to work and home show a heterogeneous pattern (Figure 28). 8% of all the employees in the sample were found to spend 0-15 minutes, one-third 15-30 minutes, another one-third (36%) 31-60 minutes, and one-fourth (23%) even more than that, on commuting daily.

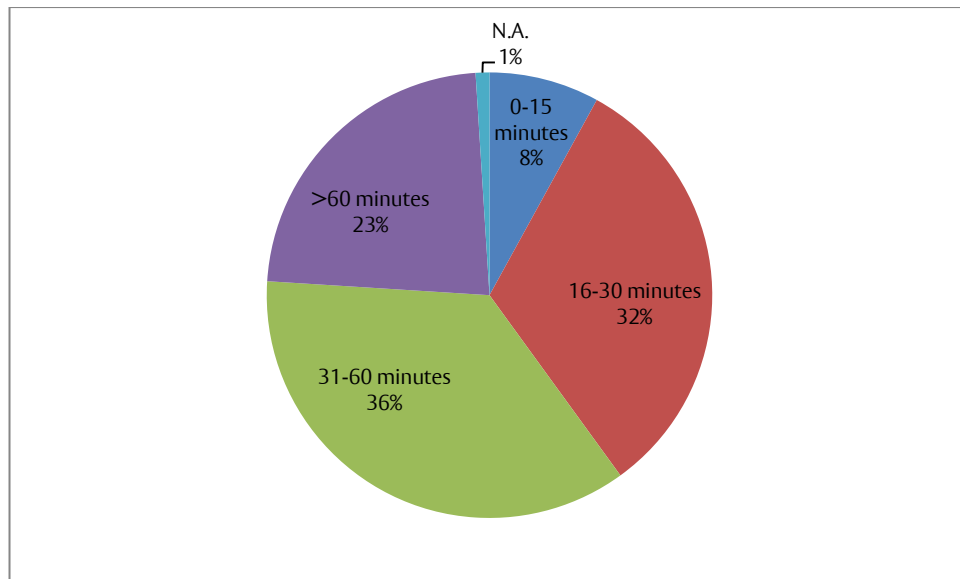


Figure 28 - Distribution of the sample by daily average durations of travel to work and home

4.2.3 Family characteristics

In terms of marital status, our sample showed a heterogeneous picture (Figure 29). Half (50%) of our respondents were married or lived in life-partnership, slightly more than one-fourth (27%) had a partner, and one-fifth (21%) were single.

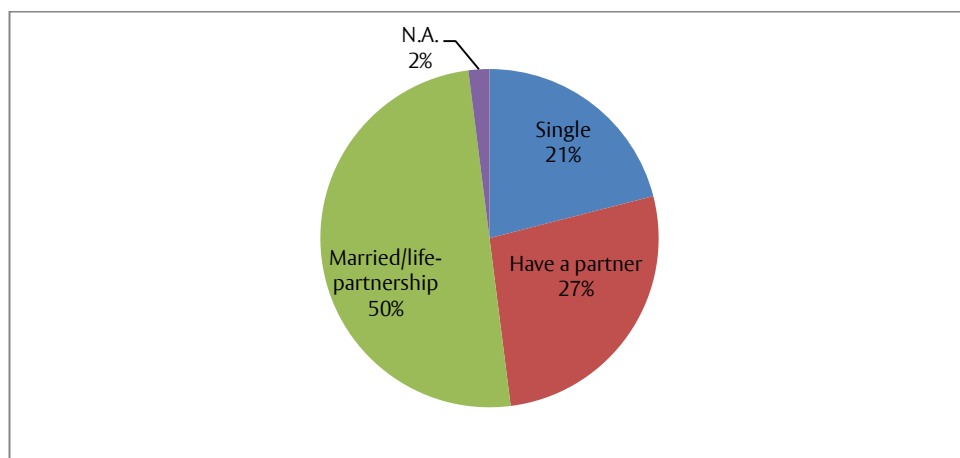


Figure29 - Distribution of the sample by marital status

In line with relevant literature (Bedeian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988), we asked our sample about parenthood in a rather sophisticated manner. It is clear at the first glance (Figure 30) that the majority (58%) of our respondents was childless, while 3% of the sample had child(ren) of collegiate age, 8% adult child(ren), 11% little child(ren), and 12% school-child(ren).

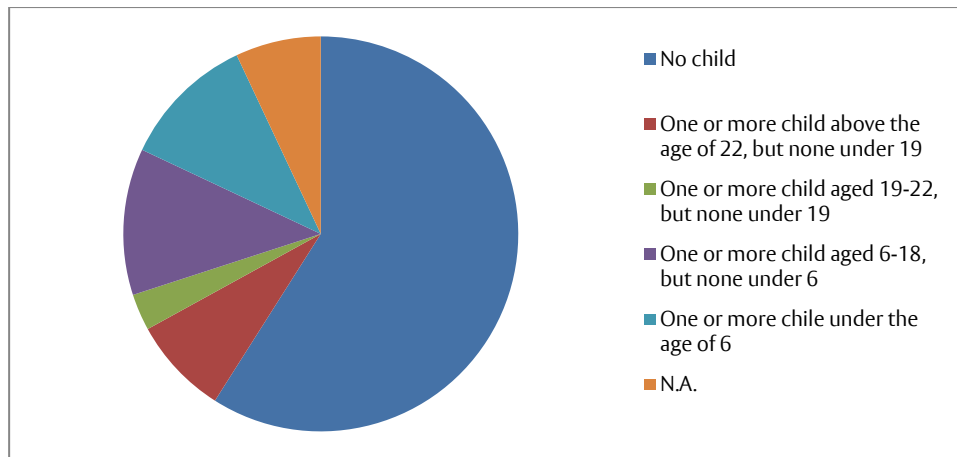


Figure 30 - Distribution of the sample by parenthood

4.3 Descriptive statistics

Table 27 shows descriptive statistics for the variables involved in this study.

Table 27 – Descriptive statistics

	Cronbach- alfa	N	Missing	Mean	Median	Std. dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
AC	0,915	727	0	3,4998	3,5714	,86022	-,581	,294
CC	0,782	726	1	3,1789	3,2222	,71179	-,253	,202
NC	0,855	726	1	2,9598	3,0000	,78595	-,029	-,121
WFB	0,932	725	2	4,0465	4,0000	,73833	-,859	,920
WRC	0,877	724	3	2,2778	2,2083	,87842	,484	-,412
FRC	0,889	718	9	1,5883	1,2500	,71226	1,307	1,031
WTD	0,775	718	9	3,0787	3,0000	,98038	-,091	-,449
FTD	0,662	719	8	2,1365	2,0000	,89048	,367	-,669
FRA	0,803	720	7	4,1689	4,1667	,68577	-,840	,910
WRA	0,817	722	5	4,0606	4,1667	,67667	-,617	,210
JSAT	0,898	724	3	3,5637	3,6667	,85538	-,574	,256
FSAT	0,835	675	52	4,2640	4,5000	,90753	-1,230	1,084
FSUPP	0,897	718	9	4,2259	4,3000	,61927	-1,005	1,685
WSUPP	0,875	726	1	3,6487	3,7000	,62349	-,231	,206
QUIT	0,909	726	1	1,9536	1,6667	1,12273	1,149	,513
WIF	0,914	724	3	2,6637	2,6667	,94983	,082	-,567
FIW	0,873	722	5	1,9400	1,8889	,70896	,591	,113

4.4 Correlations

Correlations between the variables involved in this study are given in Annex 8.4.

4.5 Background variables

In literature, organizational commitment is very often brought into connection with age, gender, and length of service (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). For this reason, below we take a brief look at the components of commitment against these variables.

4.5.1 A Comparative Analysis of Commitment Components Against Age

An age groupwise breakdown of commitment component means is illustrated in Figure 31.

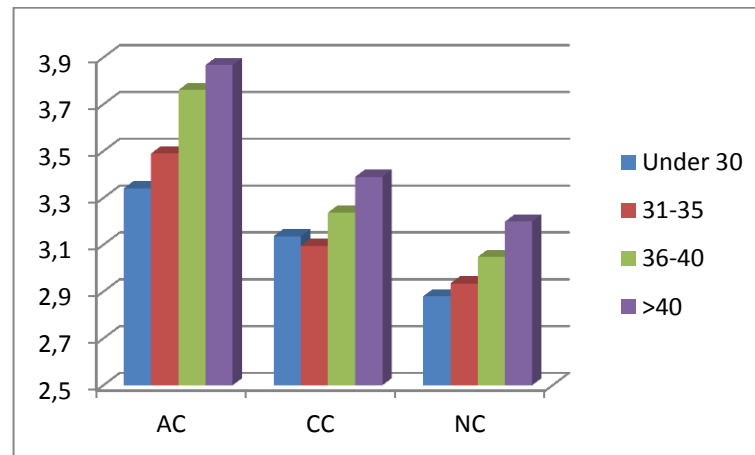


Figure 31 – Means of the commitment components by age groups

Evidently, the older the employees are, the higher their commitment grows with respect to each component. A *post hoc* analysis following ANOVA calculations was used to determine significance of differences. The youngest two age groups were found not to be different from each other for any component, and the same was found to apply to the oldest two age groups. However, a significantly higher mean was detectable with respondents above 35 for each component as compared with respondents below 35.

Our findings agree with results from previous researches (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Angle & Perry, 1981). Firstly, an increase in continuance commitment may be attributable to, and is foreshadowed by, the narrowing of an individual's job alternatives with age. Secondly, a likely explanation for the increase in affective commitment is that several of the employees at older ages may have been working for their respective employers for a long time, having already accustomed or become attached to them, and the very fact that they have not quitted over a period of time as long as that renders is probable that they have accepted the values of, and are willing to make efforts for, their employer. Thirdly, an increased level of normative commitment may be explained by the fact that the Generation X has adopted an attitude towards career different from that of the Generation Y (note that the 'fault-line' of age here coincides with the very border line between said generations) (Bokor, Szöts-Kováts, Csillag, Bácsi & Szilas, 2007).

4.5.2 A Comparative Analysis of Commitment Components Against Gender

A genderwise breakdown of commitment component means is illustrated in Figure 32. As clear from the figure, women are characterized by a higher value with respect to any of the affective, continuance, and normative components of commitment than men are. Based on

respective t-tests, the difference proved to be significant in each of the three cases (AC: $t(718) = -2.906$, $p = .004$; CC: $t(717) = -2.559$, $p = .011$; NC: $t(289) = -2.501$, $p = .013$). Accordingly, we can claim that women showed higher levels of organizational commitment in the research.

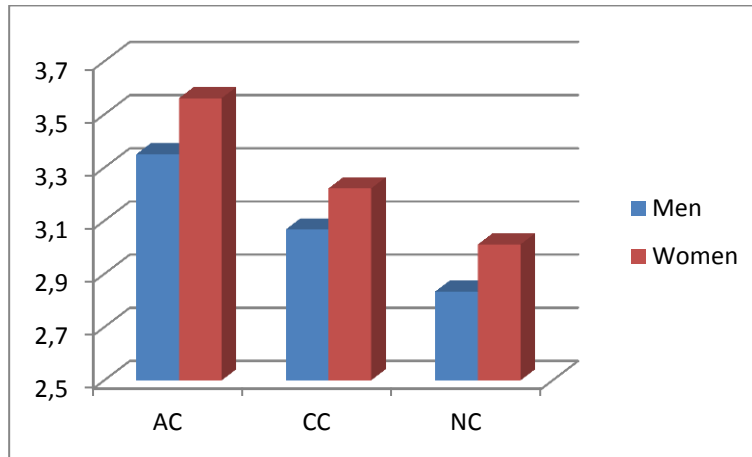


Figure 32 - Means of the commitment components by gender

Earlier investigations produced inconsistent results in this matter. Some researchers found no relation whatsoever between organizational commitment and gender (Bruning & Snyder, 1983), while others claimed that women had lower organizational commitment because traditionally, they, as opposed to men, found family more important than work (Loscocco, 1990). Moreover, data suggesting that women are more committed to their employing organizations can also be found in literature (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). In brief, the picture is obscure.

In our sample, women were found to show higher levels of commitment for each of its three components. Our finding for affective commitment may be attributable to the fact that customer service work is, in some ways, a caring profession and as such generally more attractive to women than to men (Frieze & Man, 2010). On the other hand, our finding for continuance commitment may be explained by a lower availability of job alternatives to women in general.

4.5.3 A Comparative Analysis of Commitment Components Against Tenure

As already mentioned above, several researches detected relation between organizational commitment and length of time spent in particular organizational ties. Our findings are visualized in Figure 33.

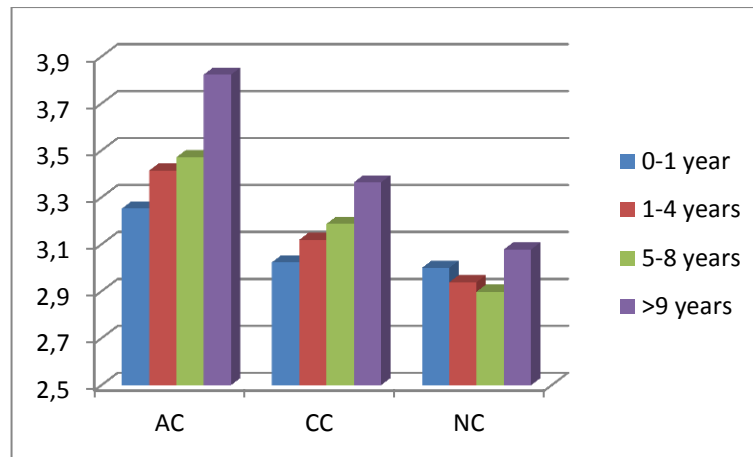


Figure 33 - Means of the commitment components by tenure

At first sight already, it is evident that concerning normative commitment, there is no difference between employees with differing lengths of service on their respective jobs (a finding corroborated by ANOVA: $F=1.649$, $p=.177$). It is not surprising in so far as normative commitment rests more upon the family with its narrow bounds as social environment than upon the social environment at work.

In this respect, the other two components are very much different, a fact corroborated by our data. For affective commitment, a trend of monotonous rising is seen in the function of the length of time spent on the job, though a significant difference is found only between the group of employees with more than 9 years of service and all the rest of respondents. A very similar finding applies to continuance commitment.

These similar findings may, however, be linked with rather different explanations. Any of such circumstances as a gradually growing attachment, development of a comfort zone, the force of habit, or a 'beggars can't be choosers' attitude may lie behind the increase of affective commitment, while a HiSac aspect is supposed to underlie an increasing continuance commitment. That is to say, the longer you have had membership in an organization, the more such investments as may be specific to your organization you will have made (metaphorically speaking), or the more organization specific knowledge (of the locality, for instance), not easily transferable to another organization, and would thus be lost upon quitting, you will have accumulated. That is why continuance commitment may increase with the length of time one spends with an organization.

4.5.4 Development of Components in WIF and FIW in Relation to Estimated Daily Average Durations of Travel to Work and Home

The duration of travel to work and home is a segment of time 'cut out' of an employee's day that cannot be devoted to either work or family life. The longer this duration is, the more it

is likely to act to the detriment of alignment between the life domain of work and that of family. That is why we have looked at the development of three components in WIF and FIW each against the daily time demand of commuting (Figure 34).

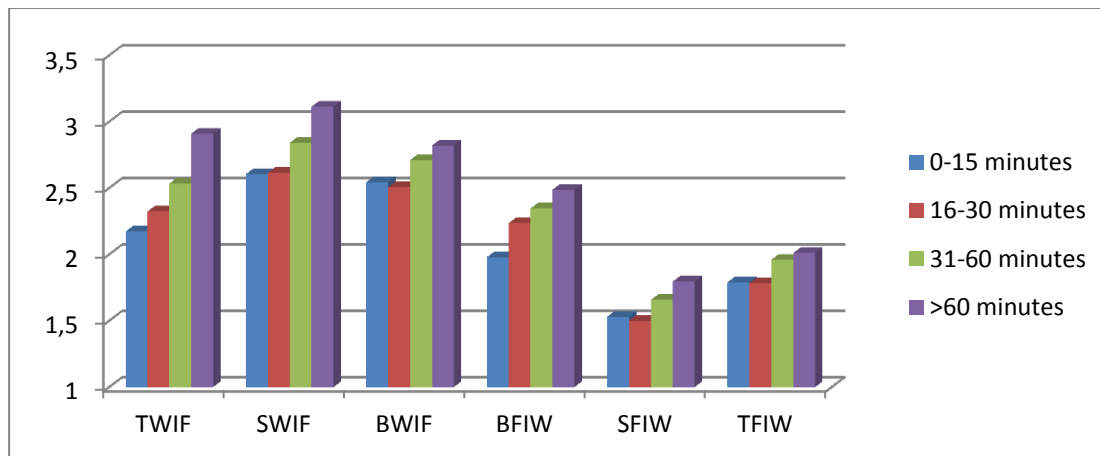


Figure 34 – Means of WIF/FIW components by daily average durations of travel to work and home

The figure above suggests that our initial presupposition is true. The longer time you spend on commuting, the higher tension you will suffer between the two life domains of yours. In particular, the more time one life domain will draw from the other (TWIF/TFIW), and the more pronouncedly stress will be transferred from one life domain to the other (SWIF/SFIW), and the less the behavioral patterns from one life domain will work in the other life domain (BWIF/BFIW). For exact values, ANOVA was performed to find out if differences detectable within any one component were significant or not. Based on our calculations, each component is associated with at least one group of respondents with a mean significantly different from that of another group (TWIF: $F=9.785$; $p<.000$ | SWIF: $F=6.396$; $p<.000$ | BWIF: $F=10.925$; $p<.008$ | BFIW: $F=4.361$; $p<.005$ | SFIW: $F=4.692$; $p<.003$ | TFIW: $F=3.157$; $p<.024$).

If we look at TWIF, it is respondents commuting longer than 60 minutes daily that produced a mean significantly higher than that produced by respondents commuting less than that. This 1-hour period seems to create a psychological boundary: the time demand of working will begin to interfere with the family perceptibly at the moment when the total time spent on commuting exceeds 60 minutes a day.

For SWIF, the mean obtained for respondents commuting longer than 60 minutes daily was significantly higher than that obtained for those commuting less than half an hour. It implies that the emergence of said 1-hour psychological boundary is attributable to a concomitant strain as well as the objective time demand of commuting. Our data shows that travelling

for one hour or more every day is a source of psychic strain as well, increasing the negative interference of work-related stress with family life.

The figures reflecting BWIF are most interesting. The mean obtained for 16 to 30 minutes of commuting is lower, though not significantly, than that obtained for 0 to 15 minutes of commuting. However, the former is low enough to be significantly lower than the mean BWIF obtained for respondents commuting 60 minutes or more a day, while the mean obtained for respondents with 0 to 15 minutes of commuting is not significantly lower than the same. If you live at a location too close to your workplace, you will get home from work so quickly that you will probably find it mentally difficult to switch over to a different set of role expectations and behavioral patterns associated therewith, and have a most bitter experience that behavioral patterns which have proved good at work may not work as well as that at home. On the other hand, similarly high levels of BWIF were reported by respondents commuting for quite a long time (more than an hour). This effect may result from the time demand of and strain concomitant to travelling – a tiresome long travel will not facilitate a mental switch-over to family life either. In other words, the other two components of WIF, if scoring high, may influence perception here indirectly.

None of the data obtained for BFIW is surprising. The mean BFIW for respondents commuting less than 15 minutes a day is significantly lower than that obtained for respondents commuting more than an hour daily. It suggests a symmetry of negative behavioral interference between the two life domains with respect to commuting, and supports the conclusions formulated in the previous paragraph: if travel to work and home consumes a long time every day, this will also make it difficult for the employee to switch over from family-related behavioral patterns to those required at work. Consequently, prolonged commuting may drain both life domains.

A very similar conclusion is suggested by mean SFIW's obtained. Also with stress-based family interference with work, a statistically significant difference was found between respondents commuting less than 15 minutes and those commuting more than an hour daily. Again for stress-based interference, the psychological boundary lies at one hour. Note, however, that the values of SFIW are considerably lower than those of SWIF, resulting in a less conspicuous symmetry here. Lengthy travelling calls forth interference of work-related stress with family life rather than interference of family life with work. In other words, employees perceive (the time requirement of) travel to work and home as something linked with work rather than neutral in terms of life domain.

The figures obtained on TFIW reflects a similar peculiarity: the increase they show is not monotonous with an increase in the time demand of travel to work and home. This is why a significant difference is detectable only between respondents commuting 16 to 30 minutes and those commuting more than an hour daily. So again, said psychological boundary at the one-hour period of time manifests itself in the negative interference of family life with work: so much travel will affect work because it is to the detriment of work that time will be spent on the family. Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that TFIW is much lower than TWIF, a finding that supports an explanation in the previous paragraph to the effect that commuting is an act mentally associated with work.

From an employer's point of view, the significance of findings presented in this section is like this: Even if an employee is willing to take lengthy commuting, it will be most likely to bring high WIF and FIW values about which may, in their turn, have negative effects on both work and family. These effects are discussed in sections to follow later.

4.5.5 Development of Components in WIF and FIW in Relation to Marital Status

Neither work interference with family nor family interference with work is independent of the challenges that family life sets to an individual, a finding which may have relation to marital status. To find out, ANOVA calculations were performed. According to the results, the time-based and strain-based components of both WIF and FIW are associated with at least one group of respondents each with a mean significantly different from that of another group (TWIF: $F=5.420$; $p<.005$ | SWIF: $F=4.176$; $p<.016$ | SFIW: $F=11.043$; $p<.000$ | TFIW: $F=4.098$; $p<.017$), while there is no such group within the behavioral component of either WIF or FIW (BWIF: $F=.935$; $p=ns$ | BFIW: $F=1.331$; $p=ns$). Componentwise group means are illustrated in Figure 35.

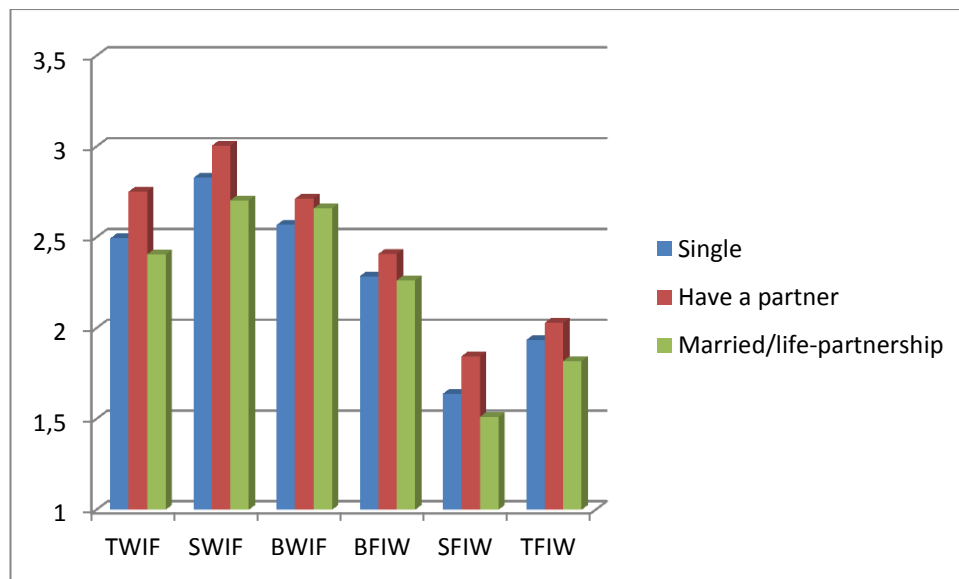


Figure 35 - Means of WIF/FIW components by marital status

As well as our *post hoc* ANOVA calculations, the figure shows that for all components, the highest levels of WIF and FIW were reported by respondents having a partner. In both directions of time-based and strain-based interferences, these levels were significantly higher than those with respondents who were married or lived in life-partnership. According to our data, it is loose partnerships that is the most drained by the time demand of and strain concomitant to work and vice versa, it is the time demand of and strain concomitant to loose partnerships that interfere with the life domain of work to the highest degree. Cohabitation may significantly reduce interferences as experienced. This effect may result from such characteristics of life-partnership or marriage as depth and stability acting to reduce exposure of the relationship to difficulties as opposed to the case when one simply has a partner or 'is dating' with somebody.

Moreover, our data shows that lower levels of WIF and FIW were reported by respondents who were married or lived in life-partnership relative to single respondents as well, though the differences here are not significant. A possible explanation is that individuals with a partner for life standing by every day may find it easier to share the burdens of family life than those without a partner.

Remarkably, the means obtained for behavioral components did not show any significant difference in relation to marital status for either work interference with family or family interference with work. Consequently, marital status has nothing to do with the degree to which behavioral patterns from one life domain are applicable in the other life domain. It may be explained by the fact that any marital status has a few characteristic behavioral

patterns of its own that may come into conflict with job-related behavioral patterns and vice versa: it is certainly not true that there is more of such conflicts, or more intense of them, in marriage, while there is less of them, or less intense of them, in any loose partnership. On the other hand, time-based and strain-based interferences are dependent on marital status in both directions of interference.

4.5.6 Development of Components in WIF and FIW in Relation to Parenthood

The birth of a child, an event considered a milestone in family life, may have its effect on both work interference with family and family interference with work. t-tests were performed to find out whether there was really any difference between respondents with children and those without children as to the measure they experienced WIF and FIW and, if yes, for which components. Surprisingly at the first glance, those having children showed lower means for every component in WIF and FIW (Figure 36). The differences were found to be significant in case of TWIF, SWIF, BFIW, and SFIW (TWIF: $t=2.333$; $p<.020$ | SWIF: $t=2.680$; $p<.008$ | BWIF: $t=1.145$; $p<.253$ | BFIW: $t=2.513$; $p<.012$ | SFIW¹⁴: $t=3.494$; $p<.001$ | TFIW: $t=.742$; $p<.458$).



Figure 36 - Means of WIF/FIW components by parenthood

On the other hand, our results appear to be less surprising in the light of figures from the previous section, showing that respondents living in life-partnership or marriage reported lower levels of WIF and FIW, and of the finding that a large majority of respondents having children belonged to this very group.

¹⁴ Since Levene's test did not prove to be significant for this component, our calculations were based on the assumption that the homogeneity of variances criterion was not met.

Still, it may be worth stopping to reflect upon a possible explanation for this phenomenon. Though respondents with children gave answers to the same questions concerning WIF and FIW as those without children did, in their minds the former and the latter may have associated quite different meanings with the very same concepts. As long as you do not have any child, you will not have had an actual experience of increased expectations, an increased time demand, and an increasing range of tasks in the family domain. If an individual were confronted with his 'childless' answers after becoming a parent, he would probably give different answers even retroactively, saying, 'I thought I was having difficulties squaring my job with my family life, but only now that I have a child have I realized how hard it really is.'

According to another possible explanation, parenthood implies your increased involvement in family life, requiring additional resources of you. Drawing these additional resources from the life domain of your job, you will become less involved in the same, which will lead to a decrease in each component of WIF with you. Let us see an example. Assume that as long as childless, a call center employee used to be willing to undertake an extra duty even though it sometimes ran counter to his family life, preventing him from paying a visit to relatives in the countryside on Saturdays (TWIF). Now that he has a child, he will not undertake such extra duty any longer.

On the other hand, FIW has proved to have a lower value because as a consequence of the individual's reduced involvement in work, he will get rid of, or shake off, additional job-related duties that have so far been affected by his family life negatively. Now that he does not fulfil such duties any longer, his family life will have nothing to interfere with. For instance, he used to be willing to coach beginners in advanced techniques of customer service delivery at the end of workdays, even though he sometimes had no patience with it because of strains from his family life (SFIW). But now that he has a child, he does not care to coach beginners any more because he is more interested in his family, which will result in a decrease in FIW.

4.6 Analyses of the commitment components' relationship with the variables of the work and life domains

In accordance with the main research question of the present thesis, in this chapter we seek to find the relationship between organisational commitment and the variables determining work-family interface. We operationalise this task by tuning the main elements of Meyer and Allen's (1991) integrative operational commitment model (TCM) to Michel et al.'s (2009) integrative model related to work-family interface.

Michel et al. did not make a reference to organisational commitment in their integrative model. Our research, however, is predicated on the hypothesis that it should be done so. It would even be downright important to make such a reference to have a deeper comprehension of the topic. By analyzing our data we merely try to find a proper place for organisational commitment within the Michel model.

Figure 37 gives an outline of our research model predicated on the above-mentioned proposition. Continuous lines indicate presupposed relationships among variables, broken lines show presupposed moderating influence while the dotted line refers to a relationship we have examined but did not expect any statistically significant result. Lines that are not relevant to our present scope of interest have been omitted from the figure: instead of giving a fully detailed view of the whole system of relationships we simply present here a 'mind map' of our analysis.

Numbers beside the lines indicate in ascending order the analyses that have been made and presented in our thesis.

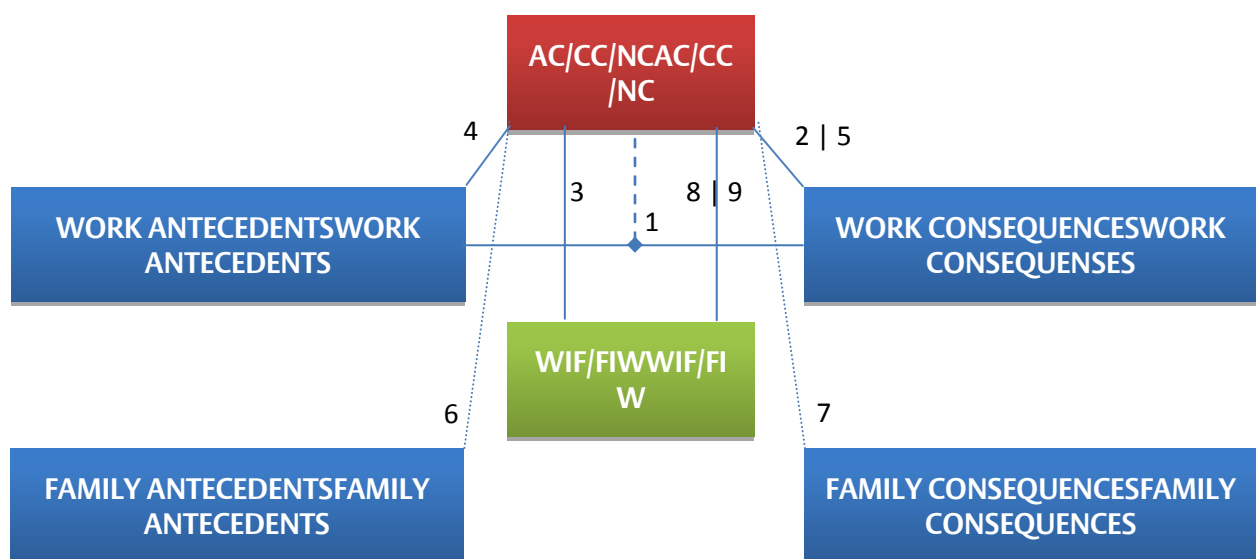


Figure 37 – The research model

First, (indicated by No.1) we would like to see how the three components of organisational commitment affects the influence of antecedent variables of work life domain on the most relevant consequence variable of work life domain, i.e. on the intention to quit. The underlying supposition is that the level and the degree of certain components of organisational commitment do have an influence on the presence or absence of the intention to quit - owing to the formulation of certain variables in the work domain. Statistically speaking, we attempt to analyse the moderating influence of organisational

commitment components separately. Then we focus on how the three commitment components affect one-another and how this affects the previously analyzed consequence variable, i.e. the intention to quit (indicated by No. 2) and also the other relevant consequence variable : the work-family interference (indicated by No. 3). What we would like to see is whether their unified influence has a characteristic feature that goes beyond the sum of each individual influence taken separately. Methodically, this means we analyze the mutually moderating influence of commitment components, which is not unprecedented in literature but certainly requires the application of a novel, less widespread methodology.

On the basis of the analysis of unified influences we have arrived at the conclusion that it would be worth defining commitment profiles. i.e. to find out which components are dominant for our individual respondents when they mention commitment and then include the respondents in one of the acquired commitment profiles. Subsequently, we examine the differences – if there are any – among commitment profiles with regard to antecedent and consequence variables of work and family life domains of the Michel model. This way we may have a deeper understanding of the mutual influence of commitment components and the relationship of consequent commitment profiles with the variables in work-family conflict (indicated by Nos. 4, 5, 6 and 7.)

After a thorough analysis of the influence commitment profiles exert on antecedent and consequence variables in the life domains of work and family we may take the last step , i.e. examine the relationship of commitment profiles with variables that measure both directions (work-family and family-work) in work-family conflict which is an indication of the breaking up of work-family balance. Consequently, the response we give to our research question concerning the relationship between organisational commitment and work-family conflict becomes even more grounded (indicated by Nos. 8 and 9).

To have a better overview of the chapter the following table shows the number of a given relationship and the number of the sub-chapter that discusses it.

Table 28 – The structure of the chapter

Number	Chapter
1	4.6.1
2	0
3	0
4	4.6.3.1
5	4.6.3.1.1
6	0
7	0
8	4.6.3.3
9	4.6.4

4.6.1 Analysis of the moderating effect of commitment components between work antecedent variables and intention to quit

In their three-component model of commitment (TCM) Meyer and Allen (1991) identified several workplace consequences of organisational commitment: quitting, job performance, absence and OCB (see chapter 2.1.2.3.4.1.). Present chapter examines the role commitment plays between one of the consequence variables and its antecedents. Of the four consequence variables in TCM we focus on the intention to quit while taking the other components of commitment as moderating variables. In the following paragraphs we give an explanation of why we focus on the intention to quit and consider commitment components in a moderating role.

The reason why we focus on the influence of commitment components on the intention to quit is because it has proved to be one of the most relevant consequence variable since the publication of Meyer and Allen's theory (Thatcher, Stepina, & Boyle, 2003; Kuean, Kaur, & Wong, 2010). Furthermore, the operationalisation and measuring of job performance at the surveyed organisations were also executed by constantly formulating and changing systems and methodologies – data collection was lacking in sufficiently valid and reliable methodologies. The data collection and processing of absence data referring to specific individuals would have incurred privacy policy precautions and it would also have gone against the anonymous nature of our research. Obviously, the issue of OCB has a certain relevance as a supplementary behaviour to commitment but in the present research it lies outside our focus.

In the following chapter we examine how commitment components as moderating variables can modify the relationship of variables referring to certain workplace or work-family life domains (independent variables) and the intention to quit (dependent variable). We have examined several workplace and family variables as independent variables whereas - as moderating variables - we have analysed the influence of the three components of organisational commitment separately. Certain researches have directed our attention to the fact that commitment can play a moderating role in the relationship between certain unfavourable antecedents and unwanted outcomes at the workplace. (King & Sethi, 1997; Thatcher, Stepina, & Boyle, 2003). In order to have a sharper picture of this influence we should examine the individual moderating effects of commitments components.

The circle of independent variables that have been included in the research was determined by two factors. On one hand we have taken into account the antecedent variables indicated

in Meyer and Allen's (1991) model of organisational commitment (see Fig. 4.), on the other hand we have adopted the considerations in Michel et al.'s (2009) integrative model concerning work-family relationship. (see Fig. 13) and also a number of other research results. On the basis of the above our independent variables include: work-family balance (WFB), work role ambiguity (WRA), work time demand (WTD), work role conflicts (WRC), job satisfaction (SAT) work social support (WSUPP).

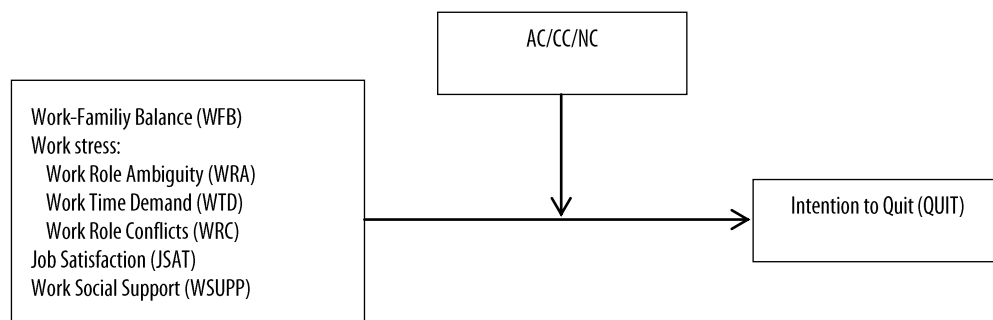


Figure 38 – The relationships between variables examined in this chapter

4.6.1.1 Work Family Balance

First, we analyse the relationship among work-family balance, commitment components, and the intention to quit. In this framework we examine both the direct and moderating influence of commitment components on the intention to quit.

Direct relationship between commitment and the intention to quit have been studied by several researches (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), the large majority of which pointed at a negative correlation. The following hypotheses are built on this finding:

- affective commitment is negatively correlated with intention to quit
- continuance commitment is negatively correlated with intention to quit
- normative commitment is negatively correlated with intention to quit

It may be supposed that commitment has a kind of 'buffering effect' on the above variables as well, i.e. the relationship between the presence or absence of work-family balance and the intention to quit is subject to the actual formulation of the individual components of commitment. For example, when affective commitment is high, the relationship between work-family balance and the intention to quit is less intense than when affective commitment is low. In other words, if there is a significant affective commitment, the breaking up of work-family balance does not increase the intention to quit in such great degree as if the affective component had been absent. The following hypotheses are predicated on the above concept:

If the individual has a higher degree of affective commitment, the relationship between work-family balance and the intention to quit is weaker.

If the individual has a higher degree of continuance commitment, the relationship between work-family balance and the intention to quit is weaker.

If the individual has a higher degree of normative commitment, the relationship between work-family balance and the intention to quit is weaker.

Fig. 39 shows the logical model of the relationship among variables.

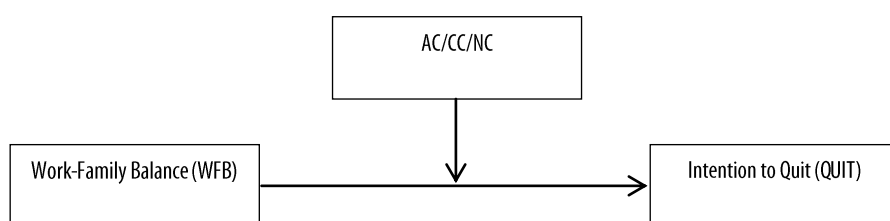


Figure 39 – The relationship between Work-Family Balance and Intention to Quit - moderated by the commitment components

Table 29 shows the results of regression analysis concerning affective commitment. Clearly, the model in the table has a remarkable fit ($\text{Adj. } R^2 = ,31$), furthermore, both work-family balance and affective commitment are in a significantly negative relationship with the intention to quit. In other words, the higher work-family balance is and the more marked affective commitment is, the lower the intention to quit is. Thus, our hypothesis concerning direct relationship has been confirmed.

The simplified philosophical principle of hedonism may serve as another credible explanation, i.e. people look for pleasure and try to avoid pain (Vecchio, 1995). In the light of this the result is not really surprising because if individuals can harmonise work and family and have positive attitudes towards their employer, it seems only logical that they are not so keen on quitting the organisation.

Table 29 – Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work-Family Balance and Affective Commitment as independent variables

		QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1	NEM	-.23**	-.24**
	GYEREK	-.04	-.04
	KOR	-.06	-.06
	WFB	-.14**	-.11*
	AC	-.73**	-.71**
	Adjusted R^2	.38	
Block 2	AC X WFB		.12**
	Adjusted R^2		.39

As for moderating influence, the interaction variable has proved to be significant, therefore, apparent. Moderating influence is indicated on the conventional figure (Fig. Figure 40). It can be clearly seen that when the level of affective commitment is high, the relationship between work-family balance and the intention to quit is rather weak, ($\beta = -.00$; $p = ns^{15}$) - statistically negligible. But when AC level is low, this relationship becomes stronger ($\beta = -.22$; $p < 0.01$) – as indicated by the rise of the relevant curve. Thus, our hypothesis has been confirmed.

All this means that for individuals with a dominant affective commitment the lack of work-family balance does not increase the intention to quit - compared with those with a normal work-family balance. Affective commitment seems to have a buffering role that prevents the lack of work-family balance from exerting a negative influence on the intention to quit. For those, however, with low affective commitment the breaking up of work-family balance leads to a significantly greater degree of intention to quit. This result underlines the significance of affective commitment.

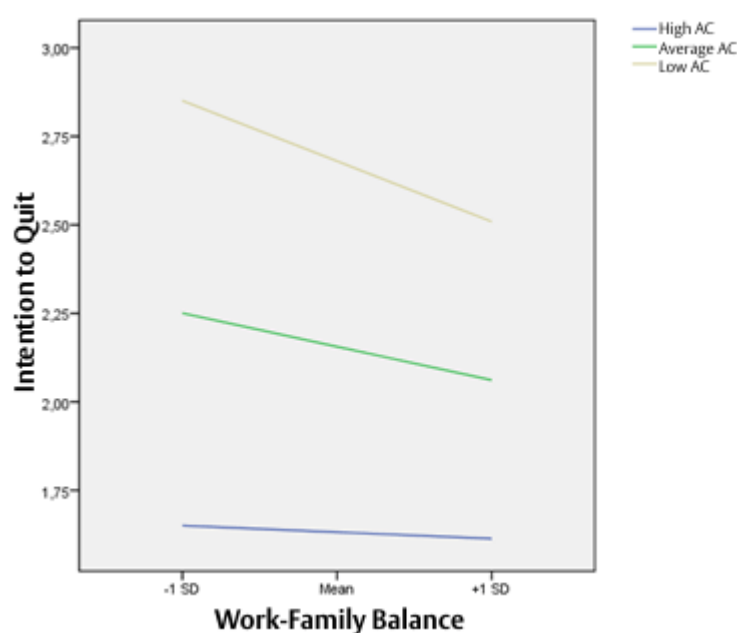


Figure 40 – The moderating effect of Affective Commiement on the relationship between Work-Family Balance and Intention to Quit

Regression calculation concerning continuance commitment has been done. Results are illustrated by Table 30. The direct influence of idependent variables is also significant here,

¹⁵ In a case like this two regression models are run on the same pattern, therefore one refers to high commitment component and the other refers to a low one. Thus, two hypotheses are tested on the same pattern. Because of this, we need to apply Bonferroni's correction to compensate for the probability of making Type I error. Therefore, the alpha value used for the determination of significane level will be $0.05/2 = 0.025$.

i.e. both work-family balance and continuance commitment are in a negative relationship with the intention to quit, which confirms our hypothesis.

The explanation might be somewhat different here than in the case of affective commitment. The presence of continuance commitment, however, does not refer to positive attitudes but rather to a kind of entrapped situation. Consequently, the absence of continuance commitment may lead to the intention to quit either because quitting would not mean too much sacrifice for the individual or he/ has some alternatives for a new employment. If there is no entrapment situation, it is generally easier for the individual to consider quitting.

On the other hand, the interaction variable examining the moderating influence has not proved to be significant, thus, our hypothesis concerning the moderating influence of continuance commitment on work-family balance and the intention to quit has not been confirmed. As a remarkable finding we must mention that unlike affective commitment, continuance commitment has not proved to be so strong as to be able to counterbalance the increase in the intention to quit once work-family balance has been broken. It seems that regardless of the feeling of entrapment the wavering of work-family balance increases the frequency of thoughts about quitting the organisation.

Table 30 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work-Family Balance and Continuance Commitment as independent variable

		QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1	NEM	-,29**	-,29**
	GYEREK	-,10	-,10
	KOR	-,17	-,17
	WFB	-,39**	-,40**
	CC	-,34**	-,34**
	Adjusted R ²	,17	
Block 2	CC X WFB		-,06
	Adjusted R ²		,17

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

Table 31 sums up SPSS running results concerning the model of normative commitment. The fit of this model is comparatively high considering the low number of independent variables (Adj. R² = ,31) As we can see coefficients show a strong, statistically significant relationship concerning work-family balance and the direct influence of normative commitment, which confirms our hypothesis. Also, there might be another, rather practical explanation as well: individuals who simply think it is 'just not done' to quit an organisation will probably consider it less frequently.

Table 31 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work-Family Balance and Normative Commitment as independent variables

		QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1	NEM	-,24**	,24**
	GYEREK	-,21*	-,20*
	KOR	-,07	-,07
	WFB	-,24**	-,22**
	NC	-,65**	-,65**
	Adjusted R ²	,31	
Block 2	NC X WFB		,11*
	Adjusted R ²		,31

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

The interaction variable that had been involved in the second step of regression calculation in order to indicate the moderating influence has proved to be significant. This shows that the relationship between work-family balance and the intention to quit depends on the level of normative commitment as well. Figure 41 shows this kind of moderating relationship. As we can see when normative commitment is low, the relationship between work-family balance and the intention to quit is stronger ($\beta = -.36$; $p < 0,01$) than when it is high ($\beta = -.14$; $p = ns$), since the rising angle of the line representing low NC is sharper than the line representing high NC.

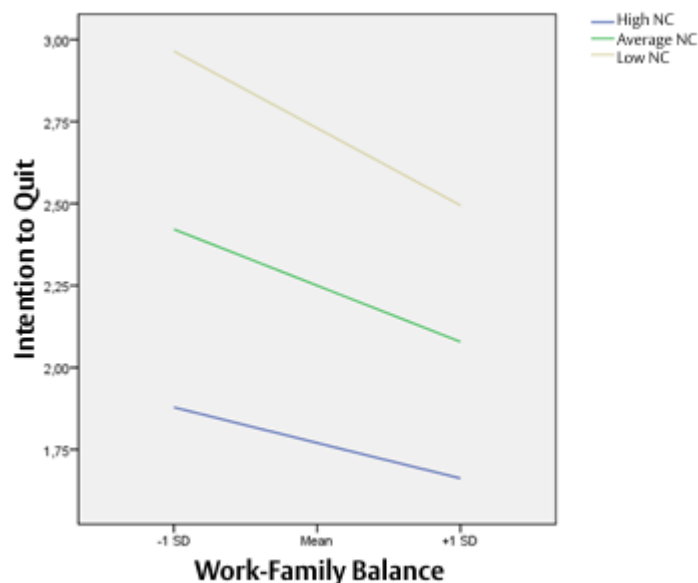


Figure 41 - The moderating effect of Normative Commiement on the relationship between Work-Family Balance and Intention to Quit

This result could be explained by the fact that the beliefs and values behind normative commitment may have an extremely strong influence on the individual's views and way of thinking. Consequently, the presence of normative commitment can determine how the lack of work-family balance may lead to the intention to quit. Thus, to borrow a term from

physics - it functions as a kind of 'resistance' factor. To put it simply: individuals with high normative commitment - even if there is a lack of work-family balance - will think less of quitting than those with low normative commitment. This last notion is important because compared with one-another the lines have different levels, therefore individuals with high normative commitment speak of lower intention to quit at each work-family balance level than those with lower normative commitment. What really matters here is the rising angle of the lines which we have thus tried to demonstrate.

4.6.1.2 Work Role Ambiguity

When setting up the regression model we wanted to see how work role ambiguity and commitment components affect the intention to quit. Similarly to the previous sub-chapter, here we examined both the direct and moderating influence of commitment components.

Earlier researches had come to the conclusion that role stressors at the workplace such as work role ambiguity may lead to certain unwanted outcomes e.g. the intention to quit. (Jaramillo, Mulki, & Solomon, 2006) The more intense these outcomes are, the stronger the intention to quit becomes. The following hypotheses are predicated on this notion:

- Work role ambiguity is in a positive relationship with the intention to quit. Organisational commitment may have a moderating role in checking unfavourable consequences (King & Sethi, 1997), i.e. with a high level of a given commitment component work role ambiguity has less influence on the intention to quit - it serves as a kind of 'shield' which does not let work role ambiguity induce intention to quit. The following hypotheses are predicated on this notion:
- If the individual has a high affective commitment, the relationship between work role ambiguity and the intention to quit is weaker.
- If the individual has a high continuance commitment, the relationship between work role ambiguity and the intention to quit is weaker.
- If the individual has a high normative commitment, the relationship between work role ambiguity and the intention to quit is weaker.

Fig. 42 shows the logical model of moderated relationship among variables.

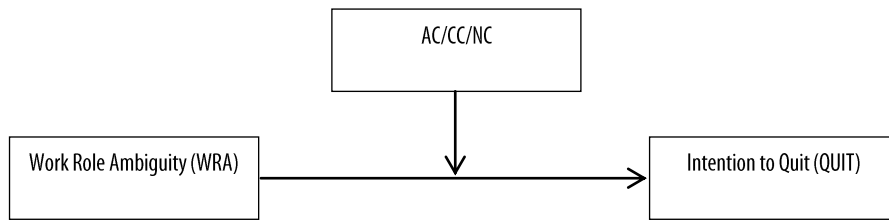


Figure 42 - The relationship between Work Role Ambiguity and Intention to Quit - moderated by the commitment components

Coefficients of the regression model including affective commitment can be seen in Table 32. The fitting of the model is promising ($\text{Adj. } R^2 = ,39$), especially if we note that once again only two independent variables have been involved. If we take a look at coefficients referring to direct influences in Block 1, it is obvious that both work role ambiguity and affective commitment are in a significant relationship with the intention to quit. The direction of relationship is as expected: work role ambiguity is in a positive, while affective commitment is in a negative relationship with the dependent variable. Our hypothesis concerning the direct relationship has been confirmed.

Table 32 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work Role Ambiguity and Affective Commitment as independent variables

		QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1	NEM	-,21**	-,21**
	GYEREK	-,02	-,02
	KOR	-,10	-,09
	WRA	,20**	,17**
	AC	-,70**	-,69**
	Adjusted R^2	,39	
Block 2	AC X WRA		-,09*
	Adjusted R^2		,39

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

In the second step, the interaction variable of independent variables were involved in the model to be able to analyse the moderating influence. As it can be seen in Table 32 the interaction variable has become significant. The moderating influence is illustrated in the usual figure which shows that in the case of individuals with a high affective commitment there is a weaker relationship between work role ambiguity and the intention to quit ($\beta = ,07$; $p = \text{ns}$) than in the case of individuals with low affective commitment ($\beta = ,29$; $p < 0,01$). Thus, our hypothesis has been confirmed.

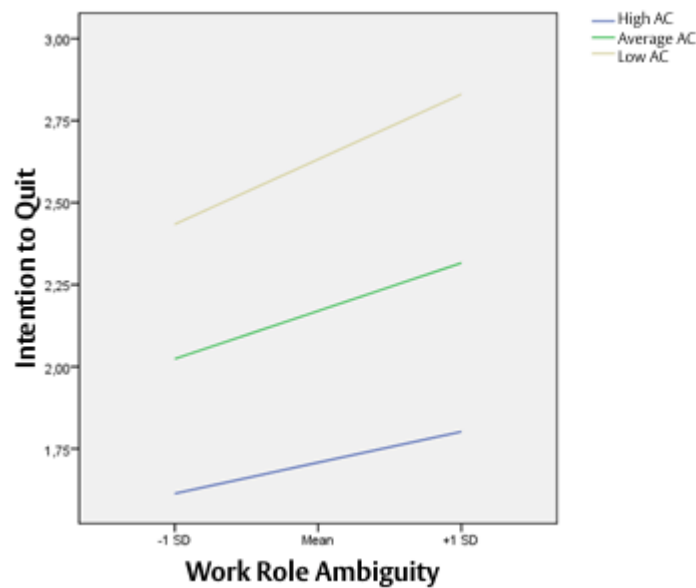


Figure 43 - The moderating effect of Affective Commiement on the relationship between Work Role Ambiguity and Intention to Quit

If we look for an explanation of these results it is worth starting off with the concept of work role ambiguity itself. This feeling appears primarily when individuals are not certain about their specific tasks and their actual scope of authority. Affective commitment, on the other hand, presupposes the knowledge and acceptance of the broad objectives of the organisation. Therefore, individuals with a high affective commitment tend to have a deeper understanding of long-term company goals and thus, even if there is a high level of work role ambiguity their general sense of uncertainty will probably be lower and will not lead to a frustration level which would eventually lay the ground for the intention to quit. This way, high affective commitment may play a buffering role in the relationship between work role ambiguity and the intention to quit.

Table 33 shows the coefficients of the regression model including continuance commitment. We can see that both work role ambiguity and continuance commitment are in a significantly negative, direct relationship with the intention to quit. Thus, our relevant hypothesis has been confirmed. The interaction variable that had been involved in the model in the second step has not proved to be significant. which means that our hypothesis concerning the moderating influence of continuance commitment must be given up. The level of continuance commitment does not affect the influence of work role ambiguity on the intention to quit.

Table 33 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work Role Ambiguity and Continuance Commitment as independent variables

		QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1	NEM	-,22*	-,22*
	GYEREK	-,07	-,07
	KOR	-,22*	-,22*
	WRA	,57**	,56**
	CC	-,36**	-,36**
	Adjusted R ²	,22	
Block 2	CC X WRA		-,02
	Adjusted R ²		,22

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

The coefficients of the regression model examining normative commitment can be seen in Table 34. As we can see both work role ambiguity and normative commitment significantly predict the intention to quit, which confirms our hypothesis. Yet the interaction variable is not significant, therefore, our hypothesis concerning the moderating influence of normative commitment has failed. The formulation of normative commitment does not affect the influence that work role ambiguity exerts on the intention to quit.

Table 34 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work Role Ambiguity and Normative Commitment as independent variables

		QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1	NEM	-,19*	-,18*
	GYEREK	-,17	-,17
	KOR	-,12	-,12
	WRA	,37**	,35**
	NC	-,61**	-,62**
	Adjusted R ²	,33	
Block 2	NC X WRA		-,11
	Adjusted R ²		,33

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

4.6.1.3 Work Time Demand

Our next model analyses the relationship among work time demand, commitment components and the intention to quit. As we have done before we shall deal with the direct and moderating influence of commitment components on the intention to quit. .

Researchers studying the relationship between work time demand and the intention to quit found a positive relationship in most cases (Valcour & Batt, 2003). On the basis of this we have set up the following hypotheses:

Work time demand is in a positive relationship with the intention to quit.

At the same time, we suppose that the level of specific commitment components do determine the degree of work time demand which may eventually lead to the intention to quit, i.e:

If the individual has a high affective commitment, the relationship between work time demand and the intention to quit is weaker.

If the individual has a high continuance commitment, the relationship between work time demand and the intention to quit is weaker

If the individual has a high normative commitment, the relationship between work time demand and the intention to quit is weaker.

Fig. 44 shows the logical model of moderated relationship among variables.

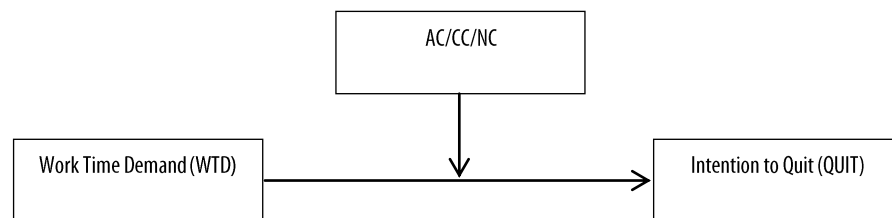


Figure 44 - The relationship between Work Time Demand and Intention to Quit - moderated by the commitment components

First, let us examine how affective commitment and work time demand affect the intention to quit. Fig. 35 shows the regression model. As we can see work time demand is in a significantly positive relationship with the intention to quit, which confirms our initial hypothesis. The fit of the model is sufficient (Adj. $R^2=,38$). The involvement of the interaction variable has not proved it to be significant and neither does it increases the fit of the model. Thus, there is no implication that affective commitment would affect the strength of the relationship between work time demand and the intention to quit.

Table 35 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work Time Demand and Affective Commitment as independent variables

	QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1		
NEM	-,22**	-,22**
GYEREK	-,03	-,03
KOR	-,08	-,09
WTD	,12**	,12**
AC	-,73**	-,72**
Adjusted R^2	,38	
Block 2		
AC X WTD		-,05
Adjusted R^2		,39

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

Table 36 shows the results of our calculations that we have done with the involvement of continuance commitment as well. The fit of the model containing the direct influence of work time demand and continuance commitment is not too strong ($\text{Adj. } R^2 = ,18$). The two independent variables, however, show a significant relationship with the dependent variable and the direction of the relationships is as expected. Thus, our hypothesis has been confirmed. The involvement of the interaction variable has not improved the fit of the model and has not proved significant either. Thus, contrary to our expectation, we have not found any moderating influence i.e. our data did not confirm that the intensity of the relationship between work time demand and the intention to quit would depend on the level of continuance commitment.

Table 36 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work Time Demand and Continuance Commitment as independent variables

		QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1	NEM	-,25**	-,24**
	GYEREK	-,08	-,08
	KOR	-,27**	-,27**
	WTD	,32**	,32**
	CC	-,40**	-,41**
	Adjusted R^2	,18	
Block 2	CC X WTD		-,07
	Adjusted R^2		,18

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

Fig. 37 shows the regression model which analyses the influence work time demand and normative commitment exert on the intention to quit. As we can see the fit of the model is sufficient ($\text{Adj. } R^2 = ,39$), the direction and intensity of independent variables follow the expectations in our hypotheses: work time demand has a significantly positive, while normative commitment has a significantly negative relationship with the intention to quit. This, again, confirms the expectations of our hypothesis.

Table 37 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work Time Demand and Normative Commitment as independent variables

		QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1	NEM	-,22**	-,21**
	GYEREK	-,20*	-,18*
	KOR	-,13	-,14
	WTD	,19**	,19**
	NC	-,66**	-,66**
	Adjusted R^2	,32	
Block 2	NC X WTD		-,12**
	Adjusted R^2		,32

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

As moderating influence is concerned, the interaction variable of normative commitment and the interaction variable of work time demand were involved in the regression equation in the second step. As Table 37 reveals this variable has become significant, thus moderation influence has become apparent. This influence is indicated in the usual figure (Fig. 45).

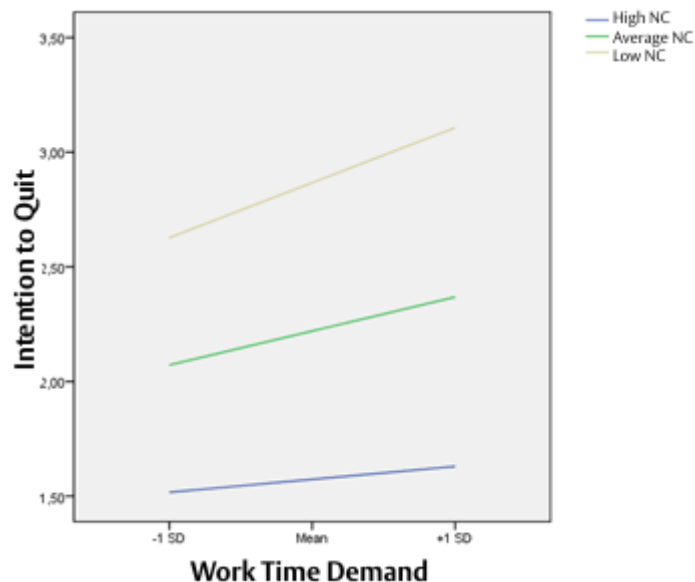


Figure 45 - The moderating effect of Normative Commitment on the relationship between Work Time Demand and Intention to Quit

As we can see, the slanting of the line representing the relationship between work time demand and the intention to quit has a different angle - depending on the level of normative commitment. By this indication we have made moderating influence apparent. The increase of work time demand has a much stronger influence on the intention to quit among those individuals who have low normative commitment ($\beta=,32$; $p<0,01$), than among those with high normative commitment. ($\beta=,09$; $p=ns$).

One possible explanation for this result might be the strength that lies behind normative commitment, i.e. once the individual believes that it is not right to quit the organisation, he/she will not consider it, even if work time demand increases. Another explanation might be that normative commitment is high because individuals feel that in a moral sense they are 'debtors' of the organisation. The increase of work time demand may be regarded as 'paying back' this kind of 'debt', therefore, it does not appear as a specific problem which would increase the intention to quit but rather as a situation which can be taken as reasonable and which conforms to the principle of reciprocity. In the light of this reasoning it is hardly surprising that for individuals with high normative commitment the line representing the relationship between work time demand and the intention to quit is

almost horizontal (the parameter indicating a rise shows no significant difference from 0), i.e. in this case the level of work time demand has hardly any influence on the intention to quit.

4.6.1.4 Work Role Conflicts

In this chapter we examine the relationship among work role conflict, commitment components and the intention to quit. As we generally do throughout the thesis, we now take a look at both the moderating and direct influence of commitment components on the intention to quit.

Researchers studying the relationship between work role conflict and the intention to quit have considered role conflicts as one of the factors in stress at the workplace. Consequently, in most cases they write about a positive relationship. Peterson (2009) gives a good summary of this issue. On the basis of the above we present the following hypotheses:

Work role conflicts are in a positive relationship with the intention to quit.

At the same time we suppose that the level of specific commitment components do determine the degree of work time demand that may eventually lead to the intention to quit, i.e.:

If the individual has a high affective commitment, the relationship between work role conflict and the intention to quit is weaker.

If the individual has a high continuance commitment, the relationship between work role conflict and the intention to quit is weaker

If the individual has a high normative commitment, the relationship between work role conflict and the intention to quit is weaker.

Fig. 46 shows the logical model of moderated relationship among variables.

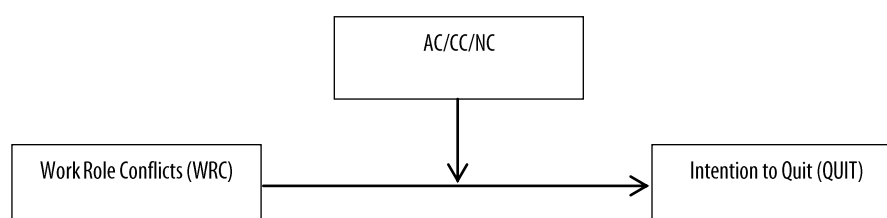


Figure 46 - The relationship between WorkRole Conflicts and Intention to Quit - moderated by the commitment components

First, let us examine the direct influence of the affective commitment component and work role conflict on the intention to quit. Table 38 sums up the regression model. As we can see

both work role conflict and affective commitment are in a significant relationship with the intention to quit, which confirms our initial hypothesis. The fit of the model is sufficient. (Adj. $R^2 = ,39$).

Table 38- Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work Role Conflict and Affective Commitment as independent variables

		QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1	NEM	-,18*	-,18*
	GYEREK	-,05	-,05
	KOR	-,08	-,09
	WRC	,18**	,16**
	AC	-,69**	-,66**
	Adjusted R^2	,39	
Block 2	AC X WRC		-,11**
	Adjusted R^2		,40

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

After the involvement of interaction variable in the model, it has proved to be significant and also, increased the fit of the model. Thus, in all probability, the strength of the relationship between work role conflict and the intention to quit may depend on the level of affective commitment. Fig. 47 shows this relationship.

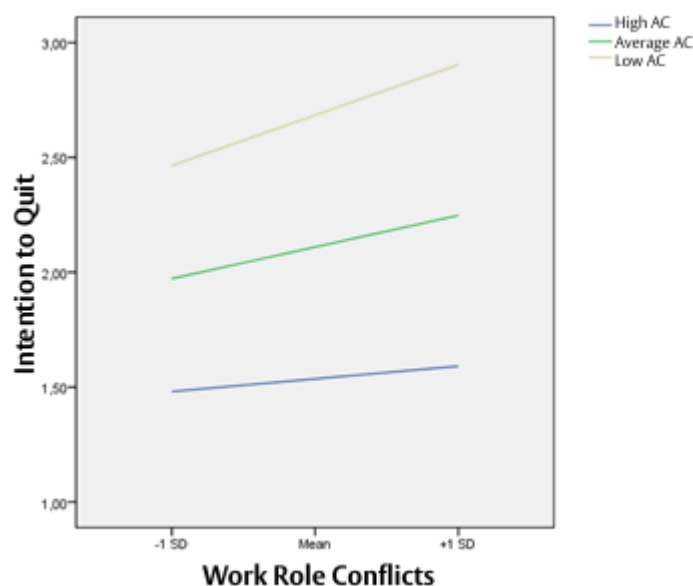


Figure 47- The moderating effect of Affective Commiement on the relationship between Work Role Conflicts and Intention to Quit

As we can see in the figure the level of each line has a remarkable difference. As for the moderating influence, the relevant factor here is the sharpness of the angle which is also rather different. For those who have a high affective commitment the low or high level of work role conflict has hardly any influence on the intention to quit (statistically speaking the line has no significant divergence from the horizontal : $\beta = 0,07$; $p = ns$). Those, however, with

low affective commitment more work role conflict also means an increased intention to quit ($\beta = .29$; $p < 0.01$). This confirms our earlier results, i.e. affective commitment plays a kind of buffering role: positive attitudes towards the organisation affect the individual's perception in a way that even if they encounter high role conflicts, they will not consider quitting the organisation. One explanation to this might be the common practice of solving conflicts, i.e. the acceptance of set goals (Bakacsi, 2010). Affective commitment, in essence, means that the individual accepts the goals of the organisation and is willing to work for them. By this, the individual is able to overcome the inconveniences and hardships of daily routine at work. According to another explanation of ours people with high affective commitment – exactly because they are willing to make considerable efforts for organisational goals – may also tend to adopt several extra roles at the workplace (e.g. a customer service attendant in his/her free time functions as a mentor to help novices solve difficult or complicated cases). This way they inevitably go through even more role conflicts but it does not lead to an intention to quit because they have adopted these roles exactly in the interest of the organisation.

Now, moving on to continuance commitment, regression runnings are summed up in Table 39. As we can see work role conflict and continuance commitment are also in a significant relationship with the intention to quit, which confirms our initial expectation. The fit of the model is not the strongest but acceptable ($\text{Adj. } R^2 = .23$). It should be noted that the regression coefficient in this model is much greater than in the model of affective commitment. This suggests that the buffering role in this case will not be present. Indeed, the interaction variable, also involved in our model, has not proved to be significant. Thus, our data suggest that the level of continuance commitment does not affect the strength of the relationship between work role conflict and the intention to quit.

Table 39 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work Role Conflict and Continuance Commitment as independent variables

	QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1		
NEM	-,12	-,12
GYEREK	-,10	-,10
KOR	-,22*	-,22
WRC	,46*	,46**
CC	-,38**	-,38**
Adjusted R^2	,23	
Block 2		
CC X WRC		-,06
Adjusted R^2		,23

*- $p < 0.05$; **- $p < 0.01$

Regression calculation results concerning the model including normative commitment is shown in Table 40. As we can see both work role conflict and normative commitment are in a significant relationship with the intention to quit, which confirms our initial hypothesis. The fit of the model is acceptable (Adj. $R^2 = ,34$).

Table 40 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work Role Conflict and Normative Commitment as independent variables

		QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1	NEM	-,13	-,12
	GYEREK	-,21*	-,21*
	KOR	-,11	-,10
	WRC	,31**	,29**
	NC	-,62**	-,61**
	Adjusted R^2	,34	
Block 2	NC X WRC		-,14**
	Adjusted R^2		,35

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

If the interaction variable is involved it becomes significant. This calculation result refers to the moderating influence. For the sake of easier interpretation this influence has been indicated in a figure (Fig. 48).

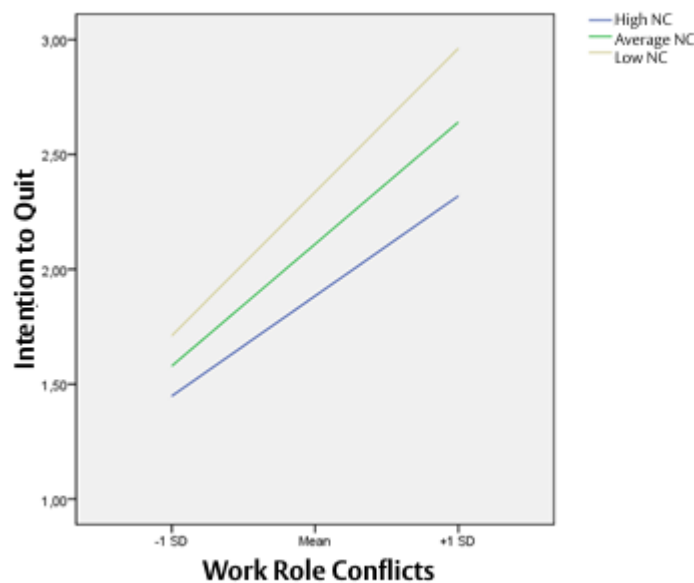


Figure 48 - The moderating effect of Normative Commiement on the relationship between Work Role Conflicts and Intention to Quit

This figure is quite interesting from several aspects. All the three lines rise rather sharply – compared with the figure of the moderating influence of affective commitment, the buffering role of the relevant commitment component is much less apparent here. In other words, in spite of the high level of normative commitment there is a strong relationship between the level of work role conflicts and the intention to quit ($\beta = ,20$; $p < 0,01$). Among

people with low normative commitment those with high work role conflict have a considerably higher intention to quit ($\beta=.46$; $p<0,01$). Therefore, the acquired data seem to confirm that normative commitment – although not in such a great degree as affective commitment – has a certain tempering effect on the relationship between work role conflict and the intention to quit. As we have implied before the reason for high normative commitment could be that the organisation may have made certain allotments and favours to the individuals which they feel should be returned. One form of this kind of compensation is when the individual adopts several roles which then get into conflict with one-another. To take an example, the individual's suggestion to improve the work organisation at customer service has been accepted. Now, in return, he/she undertakes more work to implement it successfully, which leads to role conflicts but there is still no consideration for quitting. Therefore, in this case, the high level of normative commitment has tempered the influence of work role conflict on the intention to quit.

4.6.1.5 Job Satisfaction

Our next regression model examines the relationship among job satisfaction, commitment components and the intention to quit. Again, we have looked at both the direct and moderating influence of commitment components on the intention to quit.

The relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit is an issue that has been studied for quite a long time. Researchers generally report a significantly negative relationship (Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981; Hellman, 1997). On the basis of this we have set up the following hypothesis:

- job satisfaction is in a negative relationship with the intention to quit

The role of organisational commitment, however, is not negligible in this context. (Shore & Martin, 1989). According to our hypothesis, the level of specific commitment components determines how much job satisfaction may lead to the intention to quit, i.e.:

If the individual has a high affective commitment, the relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit is weaker.

If the individual has a high continuance commitment, the relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit is weaker

If the individual has a high normative commitment, the relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit is weaker.

Fig. 49 shows the logical model of moderated relationship among variables.

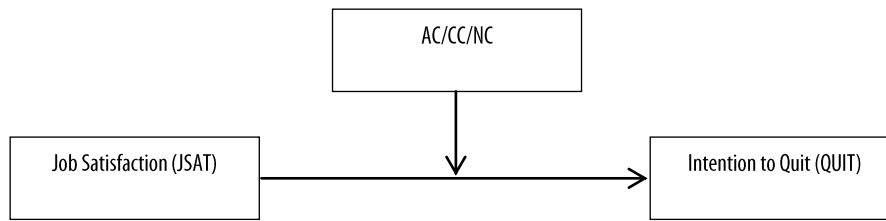


Figure 49 - The relationship between Job Satisfaction and Intention to Quit - moderated by the commitment components

Of the three commitment components the model including affective commitment has and excellent fit ($\text{Adj. } R^2 = ,45$), which is quite agreeable since there are two variables. Table 41 shoes that both variables have relationships in line with the expected direction and strength: both job satisfaction and affective commitment are in a significantly negative relationship with the intention to quit. As for direct relationship, our hypothesis has been confirmed.

Table 41- Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment as independent variables

		QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1	NEM	-,14*	-,14*
	GYEREK	-,08	-,09
	KOR	-,05	-,03
	JSAT	-,49**	-,45**
	AC	-,43**	-,39**
	Adjusted R^2	,45	
Block 2	AC X JSAT		,15**
	Adjusted R^2		,46

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

Moving on to the analysis of the moderating influence in the second step we have involved the interaction variable of job satisfaction and affective commitment in the regression model. As we can see in Table 41 this variable is significant, thus, moderating influence is apparent. When we look at the differences in angles (with high AC $\beta = -,32$; $p < 0,01$ | with low AC $\beta = -,59$; $p < 0,01$) and the significant divergence of coefficients from 0, it becomes obvious that the relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit is less strong with highly committed persons. To allow better interpretation Fig. 50 is presented with the indication of the moderating influence. Again, the buffering effect of commitment is apparent, thus the relevant hypothesis has been confirmed.

One probable explanation for these results might be that job satisfaction, as a volatile attitude, may change quite suddenly, as opposed to affective commitment which is predicated on the solid acceptance of company goals and values. It can be especially true for people working in customer service. At the end of a hard day full of difficult clients job

satisfaction can be definitely low, while at the end of an other day with successfully solved, complicated cases it can be unusually high. The presence of affective commitment is able to 'soothe' the momentary absence of job satisfaction which would then lead to such behavioural consequences as quitting, or before that, the intention to quit. But if there is no considerable affective commitment, the absence of job satisfaction may easily induce or strengthen the intention to quit.

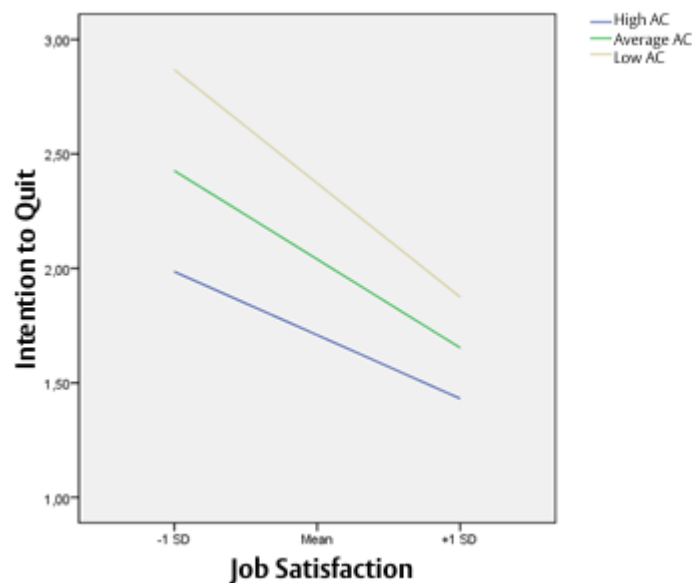


Figure 50 - The moderating effect of Affective Commiement on the relationship between Job Satisfaction and Intention to Quit

Table 42 shows the model with the continuance commitment component. Independent variables explain 45% o of the deviation of the dependent variable ($\text{Adj. } R^2 = ,45$), which can be taken as quite a good fitting. Regarding direction and strength, the relationship of the two independent variable with the dependent variable is as expected, i.e. both job satisfaction and continuance commitment show a strong, negative correlation with the intention to quit. As for the direct relationship our hypothesis has been confirmed.

Table 42 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Job Satisfaction and Continuance Commitment as independent variables

	QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1		
NEM	-,09	-,09
GYEREK	-,13	-,13
KOR	-,08	-,07
JSAT	-,77**	-,75**
CC	-,29**	-,30**
Adjusted R ²	,43	
Block 2		
CC X JSAT		,11*
Adjusted R ²		,43

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

To examine the moderating influence, in the second step the interaction variable of the two independent variables have been involved in the regression calculation. As it has proved to be significant, the presence of the moderating influence has been confirmed. To make interpretation easier we illustrate moderation in the usual figure, Fig. 51. As we can see the relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit is somewhat stronger ($\beta = -.86$; $p < 0,01$) among people with low continuance commitment, while the same relationship is weaker among people with high continuance commitment ($\beta = -.69$; $p < 0,01$). Thus, the hypothesis concerning the presence of moderating influence has been confirmed.

The result is hardly surprising and there is a practical explanation at hand. People with high continuance commitment are compelled to keep up their membership in the organisation either because quitting would mean considerable sacrifice or they see no alternative for other employment. In this situation even if they have low satisfaction with their job, it cannot lead to a marked intention to quit – as suggested by the flatter angle. For those, however, without a dominant continuance commitment, the absence of job satisfaction may considerably lay the ground for the intention to quit.

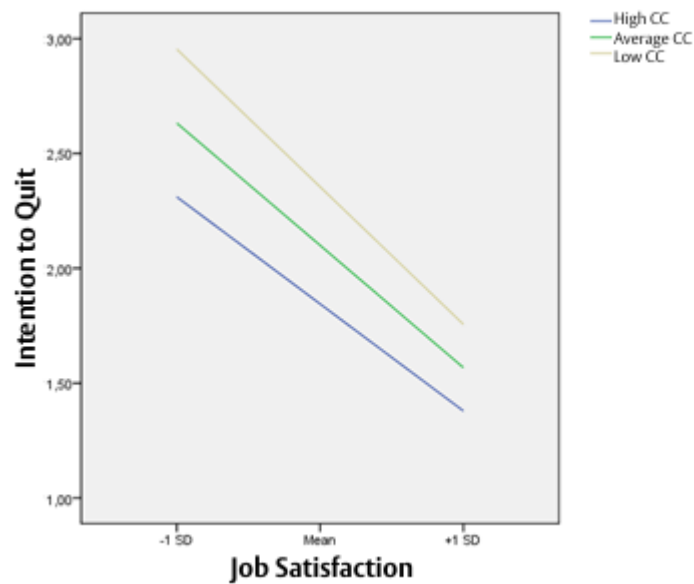


Figure 51 - The moderating effect of Continuance Commiement on the relationship between Job Satisfaction and Intention to Quit

Table 43 shows the results of regression runnings concerning the role of normative commitment. The fit of the model is sufficient (Adj. $R^2 = ,46$). Independent variables are formed according to our hypotheses, i.e. both of them are in a strong, significantly negative relationship with the intention to quit. Thus, the hypothesis concerning direct relationship has been confirmed.

Table 43 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Job Satisfaction and Normative Commitment as independent variables

		QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1	NEM	-,11	-,08
	GYEREK	-,19*	-,19*
	KOR	-,04	-,02
	JSAT	-,62**	-,56**
	NC	-,40**	-,41**
	Adjusted R^2	,46	
Block 2	NC X JSAT		,22**
	Adjusted R^2		,48

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

To be able to axamine moderating influence the interaction variable of normative commitent and job staisfaction variables have been involved. As Table 43 shows the interaction variable is significant, thus moderating influence is apparent. The character of it is illustrated by Fig. 52.

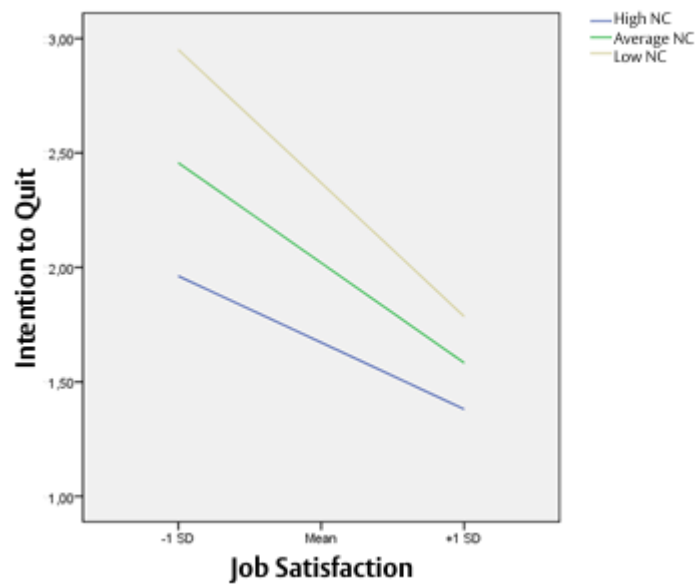


Figure 52 - The moderating effect of Normative Commitment on the relationship between Job Satisfaction and Intention to Quit

As we can see, among people with low normative commitment the relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit is much stronger ($\beta = -.78$; $p < 0.01$) than among those with high normative commitment ($\beta = -.40$; $p < 0.01$). Thus, the relevant hypothesis has been confirmed. The differences in angles of the three commitment components should be noted. It reveals that the moderating influence is the strongest in the case of the normative component.

This result underlines the importance of normative commitment. The importance of normative commitment is generally underestimated in literature in favour of e.g. affective commitment. We make an attempt to explain the strong influence of normative commitment. If the high level of normative commitment can be put down to organisational 'investments' in the individual, then – as Meyer-Allen suggests – the individual may feel exposed to a certain pressure to return it. In other words, in spite of their dissatisfaction with their job they feel 'indebted' towards the organisation and do not consider quitting. Thus, even if there is an absence of job satisfaction people with high normative commitment will have a low intention to quit.

4.6.1.6 Work Social Support

The regression model below shows the relationship among work social support, commitment components and the intention to quit. Following our earlier practice we also deal with the direct and moderating influence that commitment components exert on the intention to quit.

The role social support plays in the formulation of the intention to quit has been studied by several researches which found a significantly negative relationship (Mustapha, Ahmad, Uli, & Idris, 2010). The following hypothesis is predicated on this proposition:

- Work social support is in a negative relationship with the intention to quit.

Organisational commitment, however, remains an important variable regarding the relationship between work social support and the intention to quit. (Firth, Mellor, Moore, & Loquet, 2004). There is good reason to suppose that the influence of work social support on the intention to quit does not have the same effect in each case. Certain effects may strengthen it while other factors may be counteractive. These influences are called moderating factors. Our present research focuses primarily on commitment components. According to our expectation the the strength of the relationship between work social support and the intention to quit will be different among people with different levels of commitment components. In other words it is the level of individual commitment components that determine whether the absence of work social support actually leads to the intention to quit, i.e.:

If the individual has a high affective commitment, the relationship between work social support and the intention to quit is weaker.

If the individual has a high continuance commitment, the relationship between work social support the intention to quit is weaker

If the individual has a high normative commitment, the relationship between work social support and the intention to quit is weaker

Fig. 53 shows the logical model of moderated relationships among variables.

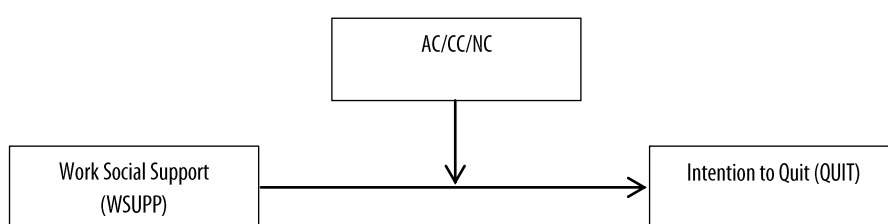


Figure53 - The relationship between Work Social Support and Intention to Quit - moderated by the commitment components

First, let us have a look at the role of affective commitment. The fit of the model is good (Adj. $R^2 = .39$), which is quite promising. Table 44 shows the results of regression calculations. It is clear that both work social support and affective commitment follow the presupposed (negative) direction and strength in their relationship with the dependent

variable, i.e. with the intention to quit. Thus, the relevant hypothesis concerning the direct influence has been confirmed.

Table 44- Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work Social Support and Affective Commitment as independent variables

	QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1		
NEM	-,21**	-,20**
GYEREK	-,06	-,05
KOR	-,08	-,09
WSUPP	-,26**	-,24**
AC	-,66**	-,63**
Adjusted R ²	,39	
Block 2		
AC X WSUPP		,16**
Adjusted R ²		,40

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

To be able to examine moderating influence we have made an interaction variable from the two dependent variables. This variable became involved in the equation in the second step of the regression calculation . As Table 44 shows the interaction variable has become significant, thus, our hypothesis concerning the moderating influence has been confirmed. The usual figure illustrates moderation: the line of low affective commitment rise in clearly sharper angle ($\beta = -0,40$; $p < 0,01$) than that of the higher ($\beta = -0,08$; $p = ns$). Also, the line of high affective commitment has no significant divergence from 0, as opposed to the one with low affective commitment. This means that the presence of affective commitment is able to reduce the intention to quit even if the absence of work social support would strengthen it. Thus, our hypothesis has been confirmed.

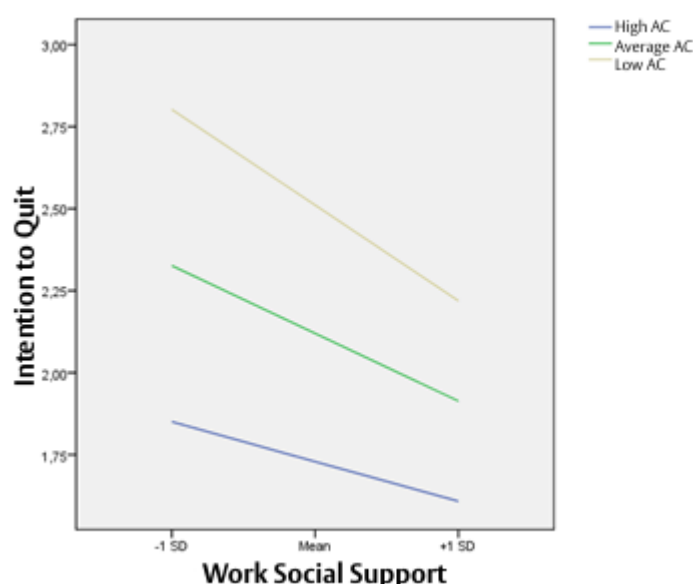


Figure 54 – The moderating effect of Affective Commiement on the relationship between Work Social Support and Intention to Quit

Table 45 shows the results of regression runnings that we have done with the involvement of continuance commitment. As we can see the fit of the model is medium (Adj. $R^2 = ,27$), independent variables are each in a significantly negative relationship with the dependant variable. What is more, the influence of work social support on the intention to quit is rather high ($\beta = -,74$). Thus, our hypothesis has been confirmed.

However, the interaction variable used for the indication of the moderating influence has not proved to be significant, neither has it improved the fit of the model. Consequently, our hypothesis concerning the moderating effect of continuance commitment on the relationship between work social support and the intention to quit must be given up.

Table 45- Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work Social Support and Continuance Commitment as independent variables

	QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1		
NEM	-,19*	-,19*
GYEREK	-,14	-,14
KOR	-,21**	-,20*
WSUPP	-,74**	-,73**
CC	-,35**	-,35**
Adjusted R^2	,27	
Block 2		
CC X WSUPP		,19
Adjusted R^2		,27

*- $p < 0.05$; **- $p < 0.01$

Normative commitment has also been involved as an independent variable of the regression model. Calculation results are shown in Table 46. We can see that the fit of the model is good (Adj. $R^2 = ,27$), and both work social support and normative commitment are significant predicting factors of the intention to quit. As it had been expected, the direction of the relationship is negative. Thus, the relevant hypothesis has been confirmed .

Table 46 - Regression parameter estimates regarding the model with Intention to Quit as dependent variable and Work Social Support and Normative Commitment as independent variables

	QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1		
NEM	-,18*	-,15*
GYEREK	-,22*	-,20*
KOR	-,11	-,11
WSUPP	-,51**	-,48**
NC	-,57**	-,56**
Adjusted R^2	,36	
Block 2		
NC X WSUPP		,23**
Adjusted R^2		,36

*- $p < 0.05$; **- $p < 0.01$

To make moderating influence apparent we have also involved the interaction variable of demonstrative variables in the model. As we can see in Table 46 the coefficient has become significant, thus, the presence of moderating influence has been proved. See Figure 55.

Among people with high normative commitment the (absence) of work social support has a less intensive effect on the intention to quit than among people with average or low normative commitment. The line of low normative commitment rises more sharply ($\beta = -.73$; $p < 0,01$), than that of the high one ($\beta = -.28$; $p < 0,01$), and the sharpness of both lines diverge significantly from 0. Thus, we have found the buffering effect, and this way, the relevant hypothesis has been confirmed.

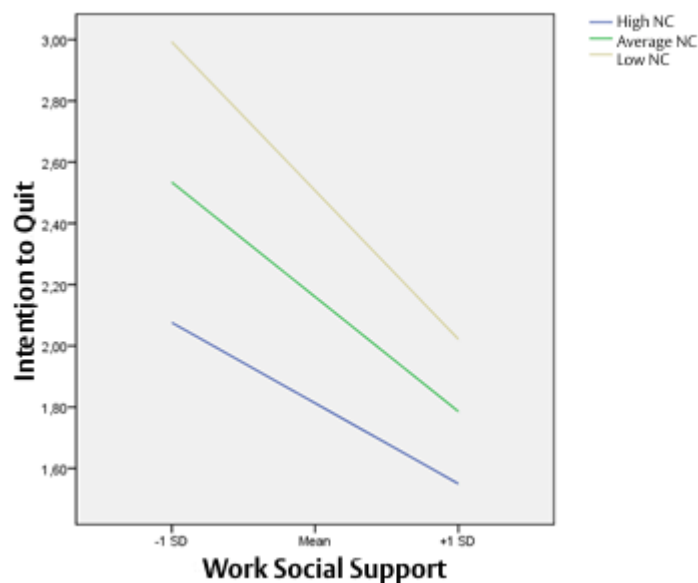


Figure 55 – The moderating effect of Normative Commiement on the relationship between Work Social Support and Intention to Quit

The figure shows clearly the extremely important role work social support plays because the lower normative commitment is, the stronger work social support reduces the intention to quit. Similarly, the sharpness of these lines calls our attention to the importance of work social support in reducing the intention to quit in customer service jobs.

4.6.2 Analysis of the direct and interaction effects of commitment components with regard to the intention to quit and work-family interference

According to Meyer and Allen's (1991) theoretical framework commitment components each have a separate influence on the formulation of these consequence variables, yet they also proposed the study of their unified influence as an important field for future research. Present chapter is an attempt to analyse this unified influence.

In this chapter we examine the separated and unified influence of organisational commitment components on two consequence variables at work, i.e. the intention to quit and work-family interference.

Our choice of exactly these two variables needs a bit of explanation. As we have shown earlier the original model of TCM defines two main consequence variables at work: quitting and behaviour at work – the latter is broken down into job performance, absence and OCB (see Chapter . 2.1.2.3.4.1). Of these factors quitting can be well operationalised with the intention to quit (see Chapter . 0.) but the others can not. For this reason we have opted for the intention to quit. Work-family interference as a consequence variable got into focus because according to our presupposition a higher level of organisational commitment may do harm to family life when too much involvement has a negative influence on certain aspects of family life.

As the applied methodology is concerned, Somers (1995), for example, used it for the analysis of organisational commitment, while in their recent publication Greenhaus-Ziegert-Allen (2012), also used it in the context of work-family interface, therefore, we had no doubts about its applicability. In essence, the influence of commitment components on the examined variables is analysed with the help of multi-variable regression calculation. According to the instructions of Cohen and Cohen (1983) we follow a hierarchical procedure, i.e. independent variables are involved in the model in two steps. First, commitment components form the three independent variables in themselves, while the interaction members get involved in the second step. These have been achieved by the product of the values of relevant components. The significance of components in themselves and that of their interaction variables help us understand the working of influences. Where interaction variables are significant interaction is indicated in a figure following the principles of Aiken and West (1991) - in keeping with indication conventions.

May we comment that according to a suggestion by Aiken and West (1991) to reduce multi-collinearity independent variables in each model (AC, CC, NC) have been centered, while dependent ones have not.¹⁶ Following Field's (2005) instructions in several of his professional publications we have focused on three factors in the analysis of multicollinearity in the models:

the highest WIF should be below 10 ;

the average WIF should not be significantly higher than 1;

- tolerance value¹⁷ should be above 0,2

¹⁶ We need not worry about the correlation matrix among variables but it is better to be on the safe side.

¹⁷ I.e. the reciprocal value of WIF.

Detailed WIF and tolerance data have been omitted in the tables. When all the three conditions are fulfilled, the relevant reference is made in the text.

4.6.2.1 *Intention to Quit*

First, let us examine how the three commitment components affect the intention to quit together and separately. Table 47 shows the relevant regression calculation results. Regression runnings have been done in two steps: first we examined the direct influence of the three components separately while interaction variables have been involved in the second step.

Table 47- Regression analyses for Affective, Continuance, Normative Commitment and Intention to Quit

	QUIT β	QUIT β
Block 1		
AC	-0,620**	-0,553**
CC	-0,125**	-0,114*
NC	-0,337**	-0,348**
Adjusted R ²	0,428	
Block 2		
AC X CC		-0,014
AC X NC		0,203**
CC X NC		0,054
Adjusted R ²		0,448

*- $p < 0.05$; **- $p < 0.01$

Our model has proved to be quite good since the three commitment components demonstrate nearly 45% of the variance of the intention to quit and multicollinearity is no problem, either. In the case of the intention to quit (QUIT) results show a significant interaction between affective commitment (AC) and normative commitment (NC). (After the involvement of interaction variables in the model parameters have changed as follows: $\Delta R^2 = 0.022$; $F_{\text{change}} = 9,561$; $p < 0.01$).

Each of the three commitment components show a significant relationship with the intention to quit. The result confirms the theoretical framework of the TCM model. Earlier research results, however, could not show significant results with each components (Somers, 1995; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). If we compare the individual influence of each component on the intention to quit, we get a very similar picture to those of earlier studies in general, i.e. affective commitment has the strongest influence, then comes normative and finally continuance commitment. It seems our own sample has also confirmed that affective commitment has an outstanding importance in the intention to stay with the organisation. (Somers, 1995).

Of interaction variables only the one examining the unified influence of AC and NC has proved to be significant. It is hardly surprising if we consider that even in earlier researches

the significance of interaction variables was rather limited – see Somers (1995). In other words, certain components exert a unified influence on the intention to quit while others are only effective in themselves. Now let us concentrate on the analysis of the significant interaction with the help of the usual figure:

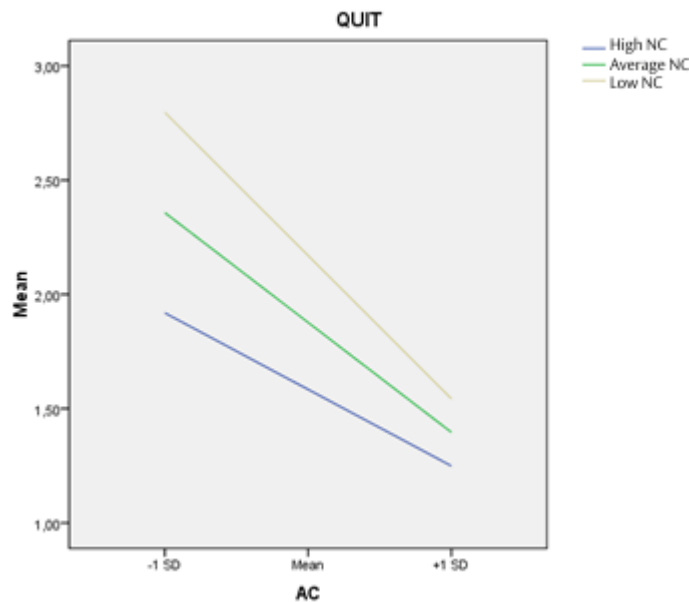


Figure 56 - The interaction between Affective and Normative Commitment regarding Intention to Quit

The pattern on the above line diagram shows clearly that normative commitment (NC) exerts an influence on the relationship between affective commitment (AC) and the intention to quit (QUIT) because the lines are distinctly not parallel (high NC: $\beta = -.39$; $p < 0.01$ | low NC: $\beta = -.72$; $p < 0.01$). All this means that there is a considerable interaction between the two variables. The high level of normative commitment tempers the intensity of the relationship between affective commitment and the intention to quit. A most probable explanation to these results is that normative pressures can be quite dominant. When individuals behave deviantly or break norms, they easily encounter the antipathy of the community, which makes it difficult or impossible to satisfy higher level needs e.g. social contacts or appreciation¹⁸. One may pay a high price for breaking norms. Those who reported high normative commitment believe that quitting the organisation is 'not done', it is contrary to community norms that are relevant to them. Therefore, even when there is a low affective commitment, they have less consideration for quitting than those with little regard for the opinion the community forms about them. Using a parallel, we can say that people for whom divorce is not acceptable will hardly ever talk about their intention to divorce even if their marriage is actually cooling off - as opposed to those individuals who

¹⁸ See details at Bakacsi (2010)

think that divorce is a natural thing. In our example norm plays a moderating role between affections and the intention to act.

4.6.2.2 Work-Family Interference

Let us focus now on how commitment components influence work-family interference. In this case we have also done a two-step regression calculation: first we have involved direct influences in the model, secondly interaction variables. Table 48 shows the results of the runnings:

Table 48 - Regression analyses for Affective, Continuance, Normative Commitment and WIF

		WIF β	WIF β
Block 1	AC	-0,338**	-0,345**
	CC	0,200**	0,221**
	NC	-0,066	-0,076
	Adjusted R ²	0,109	
Block 2	AC X CC		-0,162*
	AC X NC		0,038
	CC X NC		0,090
	Adjusted R ²		0,113

*- $p < 0.05$; ** - $p < 0.01$

The fit of our model is weak again (but it has no mentionable multicollinearity). The three commitment components demonstrate roughly one tenth of the variance of work-family interference (WIF). As we can also see in a later part of our thesis where we deal with the differences among commitment profiles (Chapter 0.), commitment profiles give little explanation for WIF deviation. But now the roots of this phenomenon has become obvious – it is enough to take a quick look at R².

Nevertheless, we have a lesson to learn from the analysis of coefficients. Normative commitment has not become significant – its coefficient is near 0. Therefore, we may conclude that the relationship between work-family interference and normative commitment is loose. Knowing the meaning of these two concepts it is hardly surprising: the pressure of social norms is an abstract thing which, of course, may entail serious practical consequences in certain situations and decisions. Yet, it seems it has a narrower scope of influence: it does not make itself felt in practical, everyday situations where work pressures and tasks penetrate into family life.

AC and CC, however, are in a significant relationship with WIF, which has the following indications:

(1) affective commitment and the positive attitudes towards the workplace can indeed temper the negative effect of work on family life (let us note the negative coefficient);

(2) the feeling of entrapment behind continuance commitment affects family life as the coefficient has a positive sign, i.e. the higher continuance commitment is, the greater work-family interference becomes. The two opposing signs suggests that, concerning WIF, significant interaction may be noted between affective (AC) and continuance components (CC), which is further supported by the significance of the relevant interaction variable ($\Delta R^2 = 0.004$; $F_{\text{change}} = 2,094$; $p < 0.1$);

(3) our presupposition that a higher affective commitment would lead to a greater involvement in the field of work life domain, which, in turn, would also result in a higher value of work-family interference – seems to be groundless.

To have a better understanding of the working of interaction let us have a look at the usual figure :

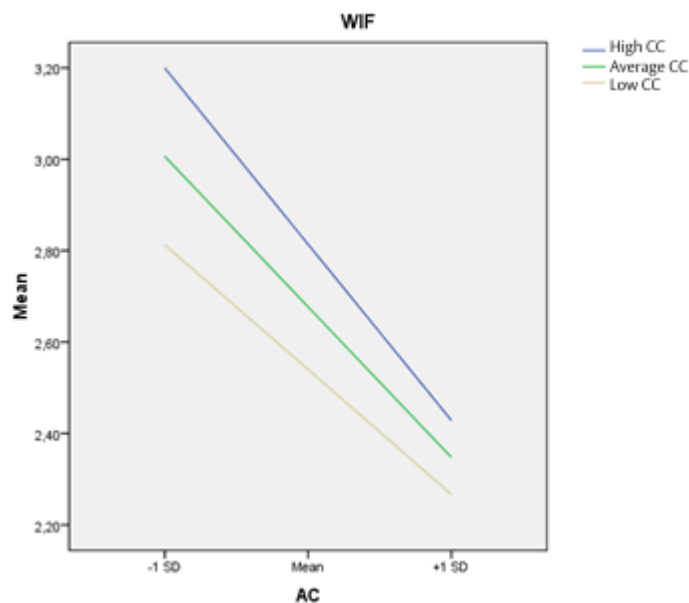


Figure 57 - The interaction between Affective and Normative Commitment regarding WIF

It can be clearly seen that not only the level but also the sharpness of these lines are different from one-another, i.e. the influence of affective commitment on WIF depends on the level of continuance commitment. People with low continuance commitment have a less intensive ($\beta = -.31$; $p < 0,01$) relationship between the level of affective commitment and work-life interference - compared with those with high continuance commitment ($\beta = -.44$; $p < 0,01$). To be more specific: the lines diverge in the absence of affective commitment, therefore, the presence of continuance commitment is harmful when the level of affective commitment is low.

Our findings can be interpreted as follows: for people with no positive attitudes to the customer service the life domain of work has a more negative influence on the life domain of family if they stay under pressure - compared with those who feel no such pressure. An explanation to this might be that the pressure to find new employment (along with continuance commitment owing to limited job vacancies or potential losses by quitting) may be more intensive for those people whose family life domain requires a strong material or other kind of involvement (e.g. nursing an elderly relative, child birth, building a house, etc.). Consequently, these people tend to experience higher WIF or take up employment at companies where they cannot identify with goals or do not feel a strong involvement (low affective commitment). This way low AC, high CC and high WIF can go together. And that is why the line is flatter in the case of low CC, since – in the lack of pressure - an incidentally lower level of AC increases WIF much less.

4.6.3 Analysis of commitment profiles

As we have referred to in Chapter 2.1.2.4 scientific interest in organisational commitment today has moved towards the analysis of commitment profiles originating in the three components of organisational commitment. We have also cited the most often mentioned publications. As an introduction to our present analysis and as a reminder we shall now sum up the most essential points.

Meyer and Herscovitsch (2001) put forth eight commitment profiles: high commitment (HC), dominant affective commitment (AC), dominant continuance commitment (CC), dominant normative commitment (NC), dominant AC–CC, dominant AC–NC, dominant CC–NC and low commitment (LC). Empirical researches have come up with mixed results: Somers (2009) found 5 commitment profiles in his sample: highly committed, affective-normative dominant, continuance-normative dominant, continuance dominant and low committed. Wasti (2005) on the other hand revealed six profiles which he called as follows: highly committed, low committed, affective dominant, continuance dominant, affective-normative dominant and neutral. Several of them e.g. Gelletly et al. (2006) and McNally-Irving (2010) produced profiles by median cut. From the point of view of our hypothesis at present their findings are irrelevant. Our research hypothesis predicated on the above notions is as follows:

- Eight commitment profiles can be identified: low commitment (LC), affective dominant (AC), continuance dominant (CC), normative dominant (NC), continuance-normative (CC-NC), affective-continuance dominant (AC-CC), affective-normative dominant (AC-NC) and highly committed (HC).

To create the commitment profiles we have applied cluster analysis (see Chapter. 3.4.2.2.4.). Table 50 shows cluster centers. Our primary task now is the interpretation of individual clusters.

Table 49 – Cluster centres

	Clusters							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
AC	4,31	2,65	3,98	4,32	3,10	3,28	1,59	3,71
CC	2,79	3,54	3,64	4,08	2,91	3,48	2,40	2,12
NC	3,55	2,12	2,63	3,96	2,85	3,50	1,78	2,36

Clusters should be interpreted with care: if we want to find out whether a cluster has a high or low value in relation to a given commitment component, we must not consider the relative sum of the three numerical values (i.e. we must not add up the three items in a column) Instead, we should consider the component average (i.e. looking at the numerical values horizontally) because each component has a different scope: the same numerical value may stand for high commitment with one component and low commitment with an other one.

For the above reason we have inserted the following table which shows the deviation of specific cluster centres from the given component average.

Table 50 – The deviation of cluster centres from the component average in individual clusters:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
AC	0,94	-0,71	0,62	0,95	-0,27	-0,09	-1,78	0,34
CC	-0,33	0,42	0,52	0,96	-0,21	0,36	-0,72	-1,00
NC	0,70	-0,73	-0,21	1,12	0,01	0,66	-1,06	-0,49

If we illustrate the above table with a figure (Fig. 58) commitment profiles become instantly visible. Applying Wasti's (2005) solution, clusters have been named and interpreted considering whether they are over or below the average in relation to a given profile. As we can see there is a group of factors which is significantly below the the component average with all the three components. This is called low commitent profile (LC). On the other hand, people with high commitments in all the three components got into the high commitment profile (HC). Between the two extremes we can identify six further profiles we call affective-normative dominant (AC-NC), affective-continuance dominant (AC-CC), normative-continuance dominant (CC-NC), continuance dominant (CC), affective (AC) and neutral (N).

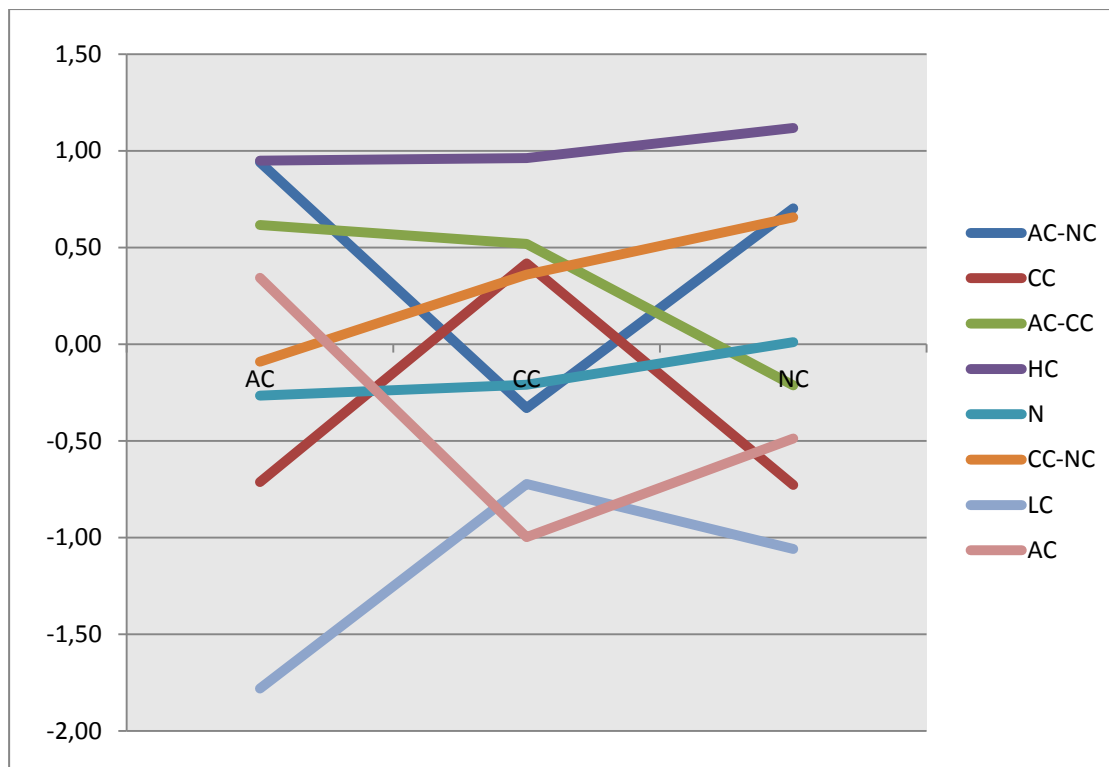


Figure 58 – The commitment profiles

Table 51 – The commitment profiles

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	AC-NC	CC	AC-CC	HC	N	CC-NC	LC	AC
AC	0,94	-0,71	0,62	0,95	-0,27	-0,09	-1,78	0,34
CC	-0,33	0,42	0,52	0,96	-0,21	0,36	-0,72	-1,00
NC	0,70	-0,73	-0,21	1,12	0,01	0,66	-1,06	-0,49

This way our hypothesis has been partly confirmed. Indeed, the eight 'a priori' commitment profiles described in literature have become discernible, but at one point the content of the profiles differ. The hypothesis included an exclusively normative dominant profile (NC), but it has not become conspicuous. Samples did not show any group of employees whose organisational commitment had been exclusively due to normative pressures: the appearance of normative commitment always presupposed the presence of either affective or continuance commitment. All this means that no considerable group of employees would stay with the organisation only because quitting is 'just not done'. Essentially, staying with the organisation is due to affective ties and external limitations (e.g. too much to lose, lack of alternatives – or some kind of combination of the two). Yet, there was one profile which was not included in the hypothesis: the neutral one (N). It refers to employees whose commitment level equals with the component average or is somewhat below it in all the three respects.

As we can see the different commitment profiles are clearly discernible. It is an interesting outcome in itself but there are several other remarkable things to consider. In our study of commitment profiles we may hope to acquire genuine results if profiles have different antecedents and consequences at work, and if they are each related differently to WIF variables. These work antecedents, almost without exception, are all within the influence sphere of top and medium-level managers or HRM professionals. Thus, their organisational plans and developments may induce a quite predictable change in commitment profiles, which, in turn, may result in a positive change in consequence variables. To give an example: if we find a commitment profile with measurably smaller intention to quit, we should also find out about the positive values of work antecedent variables (e.g. work social support) that go with this profile. Then we may have a better understanding of the kind of organisational planning and HRM solutions that would lead to more and more people belonging to this profile and to the reducing of the intention to quit at organisational level.

At this point, one may have some reasonable doubts about the analysis of cause and effect. Admittedly, the cross-section nature of our research allows a rather limited space for the identification of cause and effect relationships. When we deal with cause and effect relationships among variables we rely on current and accepted trends in literature and when we attempt to describe dynamic processes we do not go beyond the internationally accepted terminology.

To go methodically through our analysis first we focus on the life domain of work and examine the influence of certain antecedent variables of commitment profiles on the profiles and the influence of profiles on certain consequence variables. At the selection of variables involved in our study we started off from the model of Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, LeBreton and Baltes (2009). To have a better understanding of work-family interference this model can be put to good use because it is the most up-to-date, empirically well-supported model which, at the same time, synthesizes earlier research results. Since this framework is not concerned with organisational commitment its adaptation to our topic needs some explanation. Job satisfaction in the life domain of work is the consequence variable of the model (see Fig. Figure 1372.). It functions as a related variable to organisational commitment which is an attitude in itself and a good predictor of the intention to quit. We have good reason to suppose that variables that lay the ground for job satisfaction will also play a role in the grounding of organisational commitment (with special regard to its affective component). As for the relationship between the two variables of job satisfaction and organisational commitment - it is a rather sophisticated issue. In the previous chapter we demonstrated that organisational commitment functions as a moderating variable in

the relationship between job satisfaction and the intention to quit. For this reason it may be considered as a kind of consequence variable. On the basis of the adaptation of the above model we shall examine the following hypotheses:

- Each commitment profile is significantly different from one-another in respect of work antecedent variables, i.e. work role ambiguity, work time demand, work role conflict, job satisfaction, work social support (it is relationship No.4 of our research model).



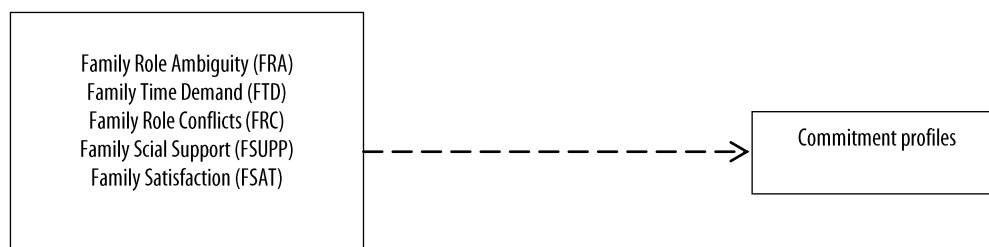
Somers (2009) studied the influence of certain commitment profiles on specific consequence variables. Among other factors, he focused on the intention to quit and the variables of work stress, whereas we concentrate on the intention to quit. On the basis of all this we shall analyse the following points:

- Do individual commitment profiles significantly differ from one-another in respect of work consequence variables, i.e. the intention to quit (relationship No.5 of our research model).

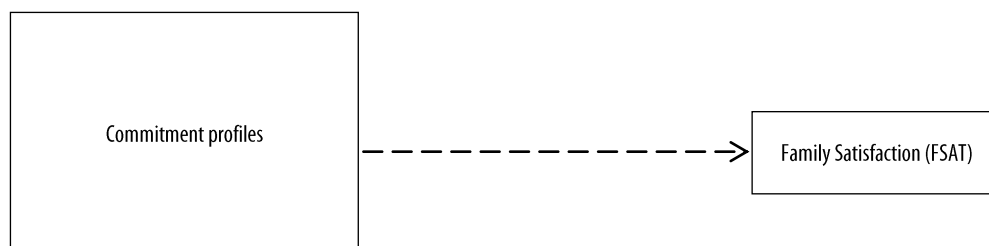


Michel et al. (2009) argue that family life variables exert their direct influence within the life domain of family life without directly affecting work variables e.g. job satisfaction and - in our research - organisational commitment. For this reason we put forth the following presupposition:

Individual commitment profiles do not significantly differ from one-another in respect of family life antecedent variables e.g family role ambiguity, family time demand, family role conflict, family social support . Since no relationship is expected here the lack of relationship is indicated by a broken line. (relationship No.6 of our research model).



Individual commitment profiles do not significantly differ from one-another in respect of family consequence variables, i.e. family life satisfaction. Since no relationship is expected here the lack of relationship is indicated by a broken line. (relationship No.7 of our research model).



Michel et al. (2009) indicate a direct relationship between the antecedent variables of family life and the variables of work-family life domains. for this reason we analyse the relationship between commitment profiles and work-family balance, work-family interference and family-work interference. On the basis of this we set up the following hypothesis:

Individual commitment profiles significantly differ from one-another in respect of work and family life domain: e.g, work-family balance, work-family interference, family-work interference, family social support (these relationships may be related to relationship No.8 of our research model).



On the basis of the above, this chapter's logical model is set up as follows (analysed influences are indicated by numbers):

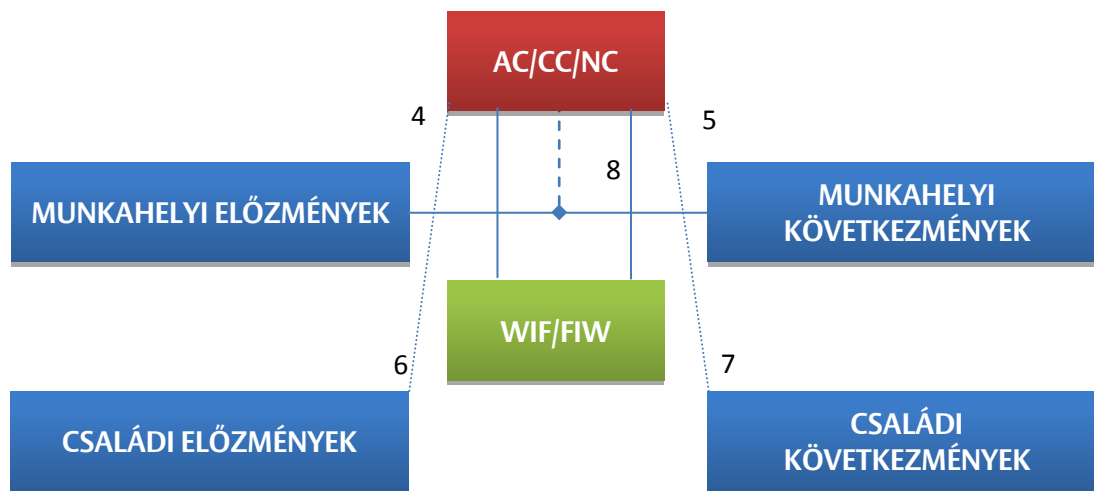


Figure 59 – The relationships between variables to be analysed in this chapter

MANOVA!!

4.6.3.1 Differences between commitment profiles regarding the work domain antecedent and consequence variables

4.6.3.1.1 Intention to Quit¹⁹

As we can see in Table Table 53 The lowest intention can be characterised by high commitment (HC) i.e. the one where affective, continuance and normative commitment are given higher than average values. The highest intention to quit, however, appears with low committed people for whom all the three commitments stay below average. It is remarkable that this cluster was given a significantly higher than average value than any other cluster. Affective commitment seems to have an outstanding role in staying with the organisation because AC-NC and AC-CC profiles can yield significantly smaller average value - similarly to the 'clean' AC profile in respect of CC and LC profiles.

¹⁹ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met, so we use Welch's F, and the Games-Howell post hoc test.

Continuance commitment in itself is able to temper the intention to quit because compared with the low commitment profile with no dominance (LC); nearly 1 scale value lower intention to quit belongs to the clearly continuance dominant profile (CC). At the same time, the average of clearly affective profile (AC) is by 0.8 lower, which suggests that affective commitment in itself is more suitable for tempering the intention to quit than continuance commitment. When we compare clearly affective dominant profile (AC) with affective-continuance dominant profile (AC-CC), in the case of the latter the average intention to quit will be lower by 0.5 scale value. But when we compare the average of clearly continuance dominant profile (CC) with affective-continuance dominant profile (AC-CC), we shall see a 1.3 drop in scale value.

As normative commitment component is concerned, when it joins affective commitment it has less tempering influence on the intention to quit (the average of AC-NC profile is 0.6 smaller than AC's) than when it joins continuance commitment (the average of CC-NC is 1. smaller than CC)²⁰.

The relationship of our results with earlier research findings:

In certain aspect our results agree with other research findings. McNally and Irving (2010) also proved the outstanding role of AC: profiles containing this profomponent showed the lowest average values. It was no different in our study. In their research clean AC profile had the lowest average value of all – in our case it was different. This is a remarkable difference because – in their view - if the affective component is joined by the normative one, it will increase the intention to quit but in our case it decreased it.

To all probability, this difference may also be rooted in national and cultural differences, which is further supported by the significant difference between CC-NC profiles. With them it had been given the worst value, while in our case it was far from it. According to their sample, taken among American university students, the sense of moral commitment and the pressure of external social norms are interpreted as a drag, while in Hungary the same factor appeared to have a positive content. The different functioning of the normative component may be explained by higher individualism and lower uncertainty avoidance in American society (Hofstede, 1980). This hypothesis is further supported by Wasti (2005)

²⁰ On the basis of Chapter 0. this result is somewhat contradictory to our expectations but there is an explanation. In those calculations interaction variables were involved in the model in one step, therefore their influences were made apparent 'homogenously' whereas at the comparison of average values of profiles all kinds of influences create average values.

who took samples in Turkey and found the lowest intention to quit at HC profile and AC-NC profile showed a lower value than the clean AC profile²¹.

4.6.3.1.2 Work Role Ambiguity²²

On the basis of data in Table 53, the forming of work role ambiguity is related to commitment profiles since we find significant differences among profiles with respect to WRA values. (It is important to remind ourselves that WRA average values were acquired by reversely scored questions, therefore, a higher numerical value means lower work role ambiguity.) The lowest work role ambiguity can be noted with profiles of dominant affective component (AC; AC-NC; AC-CC; HC), which, in nearly every case, show significantly better values than those where this component has a lower than average value. It is also remarkable that these four profiles do not significantly differ from one-another. Conclusively, the affective component has a stronger relationship with work role ambiguity than the other components.

One finds the worst average value with profiles where none of the commitment component is dominant (LC, N), or where continuance commitment is dominant but the affective one is not. (CC, CC-NC). The profile characterised by both dominant affective and dominant continuance commitments (AC-CC) were given almost the same average value as the clearly affectively dominant profile (AC). This suggests that in the presence of affective commitment the 'harmful' effect of continuance commitment is eliminated.

The relationship of our results with earlier research findings:

The negative relationship between work role ambiguity and organisational commitment - in a general sense - has been empirically proven for a long time (Brandt, Krawczyk, & Kalinowski, 1998).

If we break up organisational commitment to its components and focus on the affective component we must make it clear at the outset that in their publication introducing the three components Meyer and Allen refer to seven articles (written in the 1970's and 80's) in which they found a relationship between work role ambiguity and affective commitment. (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Of the most current results we must mention one that proved a strong negative relationship between work role ambiguity and affective commitment on an

²¹ Turkey is characterised by a rather similar uncertainty avoidance as Hungary, individualism is even lower (Hofstede, 1980). The Canadian sample is another example of how high AC – joined by high NC – is able to reduce the intention to quit while CC remains low (Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006). Canada has similar uncertainty avoidance as the USA but individualism is significantly lower (Hofstede, 1980).

²² The assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met, so we use Welch's F, and the Games-Howell post hoc test.

East European (Slovakian) sample (Brandt, Krawczyk, & Kalinowski, 1998), an another one which did the same on a Pakistani sample (Ali & Baloch, 2009).

There have also been researches that focused on all the three components. Apart from work role ambiguity and affective commitment Vijaya-Hemamalini (2012) in India analysed the other two components, albeit using a not too sophisticated methodology. Unfortunately, they dealt with the three commitment components separately, therefore, they did not build on the theory of commitment profiles. Nevertheless, their findings should be compared with ours. Vijaya-Hemamalini found that work role ambiguity has a strong negative correlation to affective and normative commitments but it positively correlates to continuance commitment. We have similar data, although in our case continuance commitment does not correlate neither positively nor negatively to WRA. All things considered, we may state that both in their and our research the affective component plays a clearly outstanding role.

4.6.3.1.3 Work Time Demand²³

Table Table 53 is promising as it clearly shows that work time demand is significantly different from other commitment profiles. With people reporting the significantly highest work time demand all the three commitment components were given values below the component average, i.e. in our conceptual approach they have the lowest commitment (LC profile). Affective-normative dominant profile (AC-NC) had a significantly lower work time demand value - except for the affective dominant profile (AC). The acquired data suggest that where there is a lower work time demand, affective commitment is above the component average.

Great work time demand does not have a positive effect on affective commitment, which is an important outcome for customer service management. If time allowed for a client is strictly regulated –which is quite common at customer service – one may expect a lower value of affective commitment especially with those people for whom time restrictions often lead to time demand (simply because it is them who have to deal with problematic clients or difficult cases).

The relationship of our results with earlier research findings:

The relationship between work time demand and organisational commitment is a scarcely researched area. Nonetheless, Coffey (1994) did a very remarkable research nearly two decades ago to present the importance of organisational time management in fostering

²³ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is met, so we don't have to use Welch's F, and the post hoc test can be Hochberg GT2 (as the groups' sizes are different).

organisational commitment. He also highlighted the role of time-related meaning-construction processes in a community which would eventually help socialisation processes and the organisational success of a new employee. Our data also suggest that time demand perceived within the organisation is not independent from organisational commitment. The picture of the cited research result may be made sharper by our own data when we state that by keeping work time demand low (i.e. avoiding the feeling of time-entrapment) one may primarily contribute to the grounding of affective commitment. Of course, the reality construction process at the organisation or individual perceptions may all determine the extent of actual time demand individuals feel when they are faced with hardpressed situations. This kind of inquiry, however, would go beyond the framework of our present study.

4.6.3.1.4 Work Role Conflicts²⁴

As expected, F-test has proved to be significant, thus, the average value of work role conflicts show a deviance in respect of at least one profile. Table 53 shows statistically significant differences among specific profiles. As the value of F-trial function also indicates it is work role conflict that indicates the most marked differences in respect of commitment profiles.

The picture is clear at first sight : people with low commitment profiles have the highest average value of work role conflict. With the exception of the clearly continuance dominant profile, this value is higher than any other profile's. Work role conflict, therefore, may especially undermine organisational commitment. This outcome may also be very instructive for managers and HRM professionals since work role conflict, as experienced by their subordinates, may be reduced mostly by implementing well-organised, professional and transparent work systems. (Bokor, Szóts-Kováts, Csillag, Bácsi, & Szilas, 2007).

When we look at the other extreme, we can see that the lowest role conflict was reported by people with high commitment (HC) and by those belonging to the affective-normative dominant profile (AC-NC). Conclusively, the presence or absence of continuance commitment does not affect work role conflict since these two profiles differ from each other in the dominant character of continuance commitment. This conjecture is also confirmed by the comparison of clearly affective dominant (AC) and the affective-continuance dominant profiles as there is a minimal (statistically negligible) difference between them. This result is hardly surprising since the factors in continuance commitment (lack of employment alternatives, too much to lose) are in no direct relationship with work

²⁴ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met, so we use Welch's F, and the Games-Howell post hoc test.

role conflict. Therefore, it is quite expectable that the presence or absence of continuance commitment does not affect the average value of work role conflicts. Affective commitment is a different case. Encountering work role conflicts is not a pleasant experience therefore no positive attitudes may be expected to join. Logically, the appearance of positive attitudes that belong to affective commitment can only be expected if the level of work role conflict remains low. And indeed, the four profiles with dominant affective commitment show the four lowest values in respect of work role conflict. It is remarkable that in each case the dominance of normative commitment goes along with a lower value of work role ambiguity – compared with profiles with no dominant normative commitment. The appearance of normative commitment, therefore, presupposes a lower level of work role conflict. The proper functioning of a work system (as a HR sub-system) may be interpreted as a kind of non-financial means of compensation (Bakacsi, Bokor, Császár, Gelei, Kovács, & Takács, 2004), which, in turn, may be taken as an 'investment' in the individual by the organisation. From this point on, normative commitment may appear on the basis of reciprocity norm if the individual perceives the proper functioning of HR sub-systems as a result of the low level of work role conflict.

4.6.3.1.5 Job Satisfaction²⁵

As it is indicated in Table 53 the average value of job satisfaction significantly differs from those of other commitment profiles. People who are satisfied with their job mostly belong to highly committed (HC) or affective-normative dominant profiles (AC-NC). Affective dominant profiles may be characterised by a significantly higher job satisfaction than those where this component is not dominant. This is hardly surprising because job satisfaction is a positive attitude in the life domain of work and it may be linked with other positive attitudes, e.g. affective commitment (which, as we have demonstrated before, stands on the theoretical ground of attitude-approaches of organisational commitment).

The presence of continuance commitment does not reduce much the value of job satisfaction provided that it is supported by either affective or normative commitment or perhaps - both. But when only the pressure of continuance commitment plays a decisive role (CC), job satisfaction is scarcely higher than in the case of low commitment (LC). It seems that limited job alternatives or the high perceived cost of quitting do not exclude job satisfaction, provided other positive attitudes support it as well.

In each case the dominance of normative commitment went along with a higher value of job satisfaction compared with those profiles where it was not dominant. Thus, compared

²⁵ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met, so we use Welch's F, and the Games-Howell post hoc test.

with the clearly affective dominant profile (AC) the affective-normative dominant profile (AC-NC) was given 0,4 better scale value average . Compared with the clearly continuance dominant profile (CC) continuance-normative dominant profile (CC-NC) was given 0,8 better scale value average . Compared with affective-continuance dominant profile (AC-CC) high commitment profile (HC) was given 0,3 higher scale value average. These differences are significant in each case. Normative commitment, therefore, plays an important role in relation with job satisfaction. These results may be explained in the following way: in the background of job satisfaction one may often find organisations making gestures or investments in individuals who – on the basis of reciprocity norm – feel they are expected to return it. Thus, on the basis of our initial concept, normative commitment appears.

The relationship of our results with earlier research findings:

The relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction is a very intensively researched area but generally the main focus is not given to their mutual relationship but to their relationship with other variables. Yet, the old paradox of the discipline remains: is job satisfaction the antecedent of commitment or perhaps vice versa; or there might be a two-way dependency between them - or no relationship at all. (Currivan, 1999; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992). All in all, there has been a consensus for a long time that both variables are predictors of the intention to quit. (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Our research methodology is not intended to explore causality relationships so we shall not elaborate on this issue. The laying down of the above principles is deemed necessary for the interpretation of our findings.

As we have referred to it in Chapter 2.1.2.4 there were certain attempts to analyse the relationship between commitment profiles and job satisfaction. Markovits, Davis and van Dick (2007) had very similar results to ours: they found that job satisfaction was the highest with affective dominant profiles and HC profile was on top.

4.6.3.1.6 Work Social Support²⁶

Our results show that the average value of work social support has a statistically significant difference in respect of commitment profiles. Furthermore, if we look at the F-test value, we can see that here we have the second highest trial function value.

What is conspicuous at first sight is the unusually low average of work social support in the case of the low commitment profile (LC). It seems, therefore, that when it comes to organisational commitment people working in customer service lay a great emphasis on

²⁶ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is met, so we don't have to use Welch's F, and the post hoc test can be Hochberg GT2 (as the groups' sizes are different).

collegial support, the knowledge that they can rely on one-another. Those who do not experience it do not report high values in any of the commitment components and if we look at the value of the intention to quit it is easy to see a strong consideration of quitting the organisation. This may be an important message for managers and HRM professionals as well, since it calls attention to the need to create a work environment where employees are able to give and receive social support. The other side of the coin also supports this proposition because if we look at profiles with high social support (HC, AC-NC, AC, AC-CC), affective commitment is dominant in each case. In other words, the high value of work social support go parallel with the high level of affective commitment. It is hardly surprising: individuals who experience that work social support satisfies their higher needs e.g. social contacts, appreciation, etc. it will be only natural to have positive attitudes towards the life domain that grants it.

As the other components are concerned: in the case of continuance commitment one would expect that through social support the individual accumulates more and more to lose (i.e. that certain accumulated loss of the affective type). Therefore, it may be supposed that if continuance commitment is joined by high affective commitment the profile will be characterised by a high average value of work social support (see AC-CC and HC profiles). And indeed, the above-mentioned two profiles have a very high average value of work social support. In the list of profiles these two profiles take the second and the third place.

Normative commitment plays an interesting role: when it appears next to continuance commitment we see a significantly higher average value of social support and the same holds true with affective commitment. Again, we may suspect the norm of reciprocity in the background: the individual feels it fit to return social support to the organisation and its members, which leads to the strengthening of normative commitment.

4.6.3.2 Differences between commitment profiles regarding the family domain antecedent and consequence variables

4.6.3.2.1 Family Satisfaction²⁷

As we can see in Table Table 5395% is just significant indicating that the levels of family role conflicts are not significantly different among profiles, which is also supported by the last column of the table.

²⁷ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is met, so we don't have to use Welch's F, and the post hoc test can be Hochberg GT2 (as the groups' sizes are different).

Although we cannot find significant differences but when we look at the averages in ascending order it is clear that family role conflict adopts the lowest values in those profiles where affective commitment is dominant.

Table 52 – Means of Family Role Conflict in each commitment profile

Profile	FRC
AC-NC	1,4653
HC	1,4835
AC	1,5371
AC-CC	1,5470
LC	1,5479
N	1,6727
CC-NC	1,6777
CC	1,7669

Yet, it might be only a jugglery with numbers since statistically these differences are not significant. Surprising it may sound but the lack of differences in the average values of family role conflict among the profiles is – on the whole - a favourable outcome in our research. Since family role conflict is a variable in the life domain of family, it is scarcely probable that it should affect in any way a work variable such as organisational commitment. A scientific study that deals with commitment profiles should be expected to show that a relevant variable 'deviates' profiles but if it does not deviate them, the profiles should not reflect it either. Laudably, this expectation of ours was fulfilled, i.e. interviewees had given carefully considered answers, which, in turn, supported the validity and reliability of our research findings.

4.6.3.2.2 Family Time Demand²⁸

Table Table 53 leaves no doubt that the values of family time demand are not significantly different in commitment profiles. This result – at first sight – may make the researcher unhappy again²⁹, but if we give a second look we may realise that it is an important and favourable outcome concerning the validity and reliability of our research. The variable of family time demand in itself affects the life domain of family. Of course, indirectly it may affect the life domain of work as well but it is done through FIW - a mediator variable. Therefore, a deviation of FIW may be expected along organisational commitment profiles and not that of FTD. This phenomenon is fully confirmed by our data.

²⁸ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is met, so we don't have to use Welch's F, and the post hoc test can be Hochberg GT2 (as the groups' sizes are different).

²⁹ We ought to keep in mind that the Cronbach-alpha value of FTD variable was lower than desirable so the used questionnaire may have been problematic. – This again may explain the weak relationship with commitment profiles.

The relationship of our results with earlier research findings:

When we gave an overall view of the relationship between the life domains of work and family in Chapter 2.2.3.1.2.3.4. we referred to the model set up by Michel et al. (2009) also suggesting that family time demand - as an antecedent of family life domain - has no direct relationship with work consequences, it has only an indirect cross influence through FIW. (Michel et al. primarily focused on job satisfaction.) Our data confirm the initial presupposition of the above theoretical model which suggests that there are no direct cross influences. We also found that there are no deviations in profiles with respect to either FRC or FTD.

4.6.3.2.3 Family Role Ambiguity³⁰

According to Table 53. there are profiles where the the average value of family role ambiguity is different from the others. But the F- test is very indicative: even though statistical significance may be present in certain cases, these differences are not really significant. (For the adequate interpretation of our data it is important to note that FRA average values were calculated on the basis of reversely scored questions, i.e. a higher numerical value indicates lower family role ambiguity.)

The relationship of our results with earlier research findings:

The relationship between family role ambiguity and organisational commitment has largely been left out of research focus. Concerning this variable our findings indicate a weak direct relationship with work life domain variables, e.g. organisational commitment. Again, we may refer back to the theoretical model of Michel et al. (2009) which also prognosticated this outcome. In this respect our data are in harmony with current theories. May we underline again that this is a favourable outcome regarding the validity and reliability of our research since we had not expected any deviation of this variable in respect of commitment profiles and we had not experienced any real indication of it either.

4.6.3.2.4 Family Social Support³¹

Family social support is expected to have a direct influence primarily on the life domain of family and relate only indirectly to the life domain of work. Therefore, we do not anticipate a significant deviation of average values among commitment profiles. Data listed in Table 48 confirm our initial hypothesis : each profile shows a high average value of family social support since none of the profiles was given a worse than 4 average value. The difference between profiles with the highest and the lowest average value is merely three subdecuples.

³⁰ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is met, so we don't have to use Welch's F, and the post hoc test can be Hochberg GT2 (as the groups' sizes are different).

³¹ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met, so we use Welch's F, and the Games-Howell post hoc test.

In spite of this, we have found a significant difference: the affective-normative dominant profile (AC-NC) and the highly committed profile (HC) have a higher average value than the clearly continuance dominant (CC), the neutral (N) and the low committed profiles (LC).

The relationship of our results with earlier research findings:

Few research findings are available concerning the positive influence of family social support on organisational commitment. Results, however, suggest that it may have a positive influence, even though it may not be direct, but rather, mediating and moderating ones. (Orthner & Pittman, 1986; Cohen A. , 1995).

4.6.3.2.5 Family Satisfaction³²

Family life satisfaction does not show any significant deviation in respect of commitment profiles, i.e. independently from the high or low level of family life satisfaction, the individual may belong to any commitment profile. This outcome agrees with our expectation and makes our initial hypothesis definite, i.e. family life variables do not have a direct influence on work variables. This outcome supports the segmentary approach of work-family interface.

One more thing should be mentioned here: people with high commitment profile (HC) have a significantly higher average value of family life satisfaction than those with a clearly continuance dominant or neutral profile. A possible reason might be that family life satisfaction 'radiates on' to work, signifying that the individual, on the whole, is satisfied with life and has affective ties with the workplace. Conclusively, he/she would lose a lot with quitting, and generally thinks it right not to change jobs. For this reason family life satisfaction with highly committed people (HC) reaches such a high extent that it shows significance against the lowest value profiles. One may only wonder why family life satisfaction is low with the clearly continuance profile (CC)?

Perhaps the feeling of entrapment has such a negative influence on the individuals' mood and spirits that it overshadows other areas of life, e.g. family life (we should have a quick look at the unusually low average value of job satisfaction and the high average value of burn-out in this profile. Those belonging to the neutral profile may be characterised by a kind of 'drifting', i.e. even when there are no affective, external or normative pressures to do so – they still stay with the organisation. Of course these explanations contradict the segmentary approaches of the two life domains and is predicated on 'radiation' logics

³² The assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met, so we use Welch's F, and the Games-Howell post hoc test.

underlining that we should be wary of extremes when approaching such sophisticated phenomena.

4.6.3.3 Differences between commitment profiles regarding the variables about the work and family interface

4.6.3.3.1 Work-Family Balance³³

The F-test has proved to be significant, thus, in respect of work-family balance there is a difference among profiles. See details in Table Table 53

Results show a rather similar picture to that of the intention to quit. The worst result belongs to the low commitment profile (LC) so the higher value of any of the commitment components will only improve the situation. It is interesting to note that the highest average values of AC-NC and HC profiles are in a tie and it may be generally ascertained that WFB is high in profiles with high AC.

If there is a high level of affective and normative commitment, continuance commitment does not affect the value of work-family balance (neither increases nor decreases it). Consequently, the strong affective ties and the pressure of social norms (or perhaps the feeling of certainty provided by these norms) – serves as a kind of shield against financial pressures of continuance commitment which have a negative influence on work-family balance.

As for normative commitment: its appearance improves average values in each case: AC-NC profile's is higher than that of clear AC (although not significantly), CC-NC profile's is higher than CC's, HC's is higher than AC-CC's (although not significantly, either).

The relationship of our results with earlier research findings:

As far as we know there has been no empirical study in literature on the theory of commitment profiles in their relationship with work-family balance. It does not mean, however, that there had been no focus on the relationship of organisational commitment with WFB – primarily the affective component. Balmforth and Gardner (2006) reported a strong, positive correlation between AC and work-family balance. Devi and Rani (2010) found a similarly positive relationship. In agreement with these findings our results also suggest that the highest WFB average values can be found with those profiles where AC appears (the only exception being CC-NC profile within statistical margins of error).

³³ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met, so we use Welch's F, and the Games-Howell post hoc test.

4.6.3.3.2 Work-Family Interference³⁴

As we can see in Table 53 People with low commitment reported the highest WIF which is a higher average value than any other profile with the exception of continuance dominant (CC) and neutral (N) profiles. Similarly, we can see a high WIF value with employees having a clearly continuance dominant profile (CC). The lowest WIF was measured among people with affective-normative profile (AC-NC) but the WIF value is not significantly higher with people having clearly affective dominant (AC), affective-continuance dominant (AC-CC) and highly committed (HC) profiles.

In profiles characterised by affective commitment WIF-value is lower - compared with those profiles where it is not dominant. However, it is not the case with continuance commitment – far from it. The clearly continuance dominant profile (CC) indicated one of the worst WIF-values – it also had a statistically significant tempering influence if it was joined by affective commitment (AC-CC), or normative commitment (CC-NC). So it seems that among people who have to do customer service jobs only because there is no other choice or quitting would mean too much sacrifice it is extremely difficult to save family life from the negative influences that come from the workplace. If, apart from these pressures, positive attitudes towards the organisation or certain internalised social norms appear, it will be easier for the individual to harmonise the life domains of work and family.

The relationship of our results with earlier research findings:

Lyness and Thompson's (1997) results suggest that WIF has a negative relationship with affective commitment but it has a positive relationship with continuance commitment and has no relationship with normative commitment. In some respect our data is somewhat contradictory: compared with the low commitment profile both the affective and the normative components had a tempering influence on WIF-value. When they stood next to any component, we experienced lower WIF than when they were not dominant. Continuance commitment, however, worsened WIF in each profile where it was dominant - compared with those where it was not. All things considered, our data also supports the conclusion of Dorio, Bryant and Allen (2008, p.160): "There is a different kind of relationship with each commitment component."

4.6.3.3.3 Family-Work Interference³⁵

As we can see in Table 48. commitment profiles give less explanation for the deviation of family-work interference than that of work-family interference. Nevertheless, there are

³⁴ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is met, so we don't have to use Welch's F, and the post hoc test can be Hochberg GT2 (as the groups' sizes are different).

³⁵ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is met, so we don't have to use Welch's F, and the post hoc test can be Hochberg GT2 (as the groups' sizes are different).

significant differences. It is also remarkable that with each profile FIW was given a lower value than WIF. This may lead to the conclusion that people working in customer service tend to 'take home' work-related matters rather than taking family-related problems to work.

Interestingly enough, we did not measure the highest family-work interference among people with low commitment profile (LC), but among those with clearly continuance dominant profile (CC). The picture becomes even sharper when we consider that even this average value is lower than the profile with the lowest WIF. Therefore, even in this profile the negative effect of family life on work does not pose a serious problem. With neutral (N), continuance-normative dominant (CC-NC) and low committed profiles (LC) we measured FIW above 2 (weak medium), while with profiles of dominant affective components (AC; AC-CC; AC-NC; HC), FIW remained below 2, i.e. it was not significant at all. As an interesting result we may note that the FIW average value of AC-CC and HC profiles is the same to the hundredth, i.e. when there is a simultaneous dominance of affective and normative commitment components, continuance commitment has almost no influence on FIW values.

The relationship of our results with earlier research findings:

The negative relationship between affective commitment and FIW has been pointed out by several researches (Dorio, Bryant, & Allen, 2008), but they have not found substantive relationships in respect of the other commitment components.

The negative relationship between affective commitment and FIW may have a number of reasons. On one hand people who are more willing to commit themselves affectively to work choose work when they have to decide between the relative priority of the life domain of work or family matters. Since these employees are characterised by a relatively low involvement in the life domain of family, there are few time-dependent, behaviour-dependent, or role-dependent factors which they could not manage to keep away from work and which would have a negative influence on work and make it more difficult for them. On the other hand, if the individual experiences that family problems threaten their work, the solving of these problems will demand extra energy sources in the life domain of family. Extra energy may be transferred from the life domain of work, therefore, owing to high FIW, organisational commitment decreases, which explains why affective commitment is not dominant in profiles with high FIW.

Table 53 - Differences among Commitment Profiles

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
		AC-NC	CC	AC-CC	HC	N	CC-NC	LC	AC	F	Post hoc
1	QUIT	1,39	2,82	1,55	1,17	2,26	1,66	3,77	2,05	54,9**	1<2,5,7,8; 2>3,4,5,6,8; 2<7; 5,7,8>3>4; 4<6<5<7; 7>8
2	WFB	4,31	3,66	4,2	4,32	3,9	4,08	3,55	3,99	12,4**	1>2,5,7; 2>3,4,6; 3,4>5,7; 6>7
3	WRC	1,83	2,83	2,07	1,98	2,41	2,35	3,13	2,12	19,0**	1<2,5,6,7; 2>3,4,5,6,8; 3,4<5,7; 5,6<7; 7>8
4	FRC	1,46	1,76	1,54	1,48	1,67	1,67	1,54	1,53	2,03*	-
5	WTD	2,67	3,39	3,07	2,92	3,13	3,11	3,88	2,88	10,05**	1<2,3,5,6,7; 2>4,8; 3,4,5,6,8<7
6	FTD	2,01	2,29	1,99	2,16	2,3	2,09	2,09	2,09	1,76	-
7	FRA	4,17	4,05	4,12	4,4	4,1	4,24	3,95	4,18	3,04**	2,5,7<4
8	WRA	4,34	3,65	4,22	4,37	3,83	4,08	3,42	4,25	20,59**	1>2,5,7; 2<3,4,6,8; 3>5,7; 4>5,6,7; 5,7<8; 6>7
9	JSAT	4,15	2,78	3,81	4,16	3,32	3,55	2,12	3,74	69,9**	1>2,3,5,6,7,8; 2<3,4,5,6,7,8; 5,7<3<4; 4>6,7,8; 7<5<8; 6>7
10	FSAT	4,31	3,97	4,35	4,55	4,12	4,18	4,23	4,38	3,69**	2,5<4
11	FSUPP	4,38	4,05	4,29	4,36	4,09	4,24	4,03	4,23	4,12**	1,4>2,5, 7
12	WSUPP	4	3,15	3,8	3,96	3,49	3,67	2,88	3,73	37,79**	1>2,5,6,7,8; 2<3,4,5,6,8; 3>5,7; 4>5,6,7; 5,6>7; 7<8
13	WIF	2,29	3,16	2,54	2,45	2,79	2,71	3,24	2,47	10,35**	1<2,5,6,7; 2>3,4,6,8; 3,4,6<7; 7>8
14	FIW	1,71	2,25	1,85	1,71	2,06	2,12	2,09	1,8	7,73**	1<2,5,6,7; 2>3,4,8; 4<5,6,7

4.6.4 The relationship of work-family interference (WIF) and family-work interference (FIW) with organisational commitment

The relationship of work and life domain conflicts with organisational commitment has become a very important issue in present day discussion. (Akintayo, 2010). In the theoretical summary chapter the theoretical basis of this relationship had been highlighted in detail – in this chapter the relevant results are presented.

In accordance with the accepted methodology of this discipline, in the first step work-family (WIF) and family-work interferences (FIW) are separated, then the formulation of the two variables are analysed on the basis of descriptive statistics and certain background variables. Thus an overall view of the formulation of the two variables may be acquired. Then both WIF and FIW are broken up to their components to see their relationship with the components of organisational commitment. This way we may have quite an exact understanding of the relationships among organisational commitment and work-family and family-work interferences.

4.6.4.1 Basic statistics of WIF and FIW

Descriptive statistics concerning variables were presented in Chapter 4.3. To have a better overview of WIF and FIW-related numbers the following table is inserted:

Table 54 – Descriptive statistics of WIF and FIW

	Cronbach- alfa	N	Missing	Mean	Median	Std. dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
WIF	0,914	724	3	2,6637	2,6667	,94983	,082	-,567
FIW	0,873	722	5	1,9400	1,8889	,70896	,591	,113

As we can see in Table 54 Cronbach-alpha values are very good (0,914; 0,873), thus our variables are suitable for further analysis. The number of interviewees who filled in the questionnaires incompletely or incorrectly is negligible so we have a sufficient number of sample elements at hand. As for average values, WIF's has proved to be higher than FIW's (2,66 vs. 1,94). This signifies that the negative influence of work on family life is more characteristic than vice versa. In other words, it is easier to keep family worries away from work than not to take work-related problems home.

It might be interesting to have a look at median values. In the case of WIF median value is almost the same as the average, i.e. half of the respondents reported over the average WIF, the other half under the average WIF. In the case of FIW, median and average values are also close but median is somewhat lower than average.

The distribution of WIF shows no considerable slanting (also supported by the small difference between median and average). FIW, on the other hand, has an asymmetric distribution to the left. As peaks are concerned the distributin of FIW is less peaky than that of WIF (see Figs. Figure 60 Figure 61).

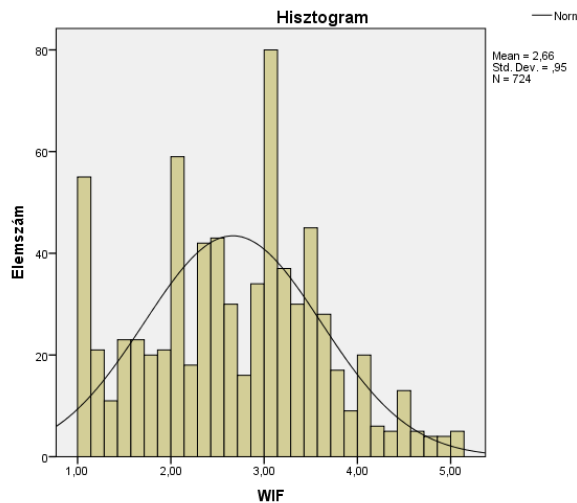


Figure 60 – Distribution of WIF

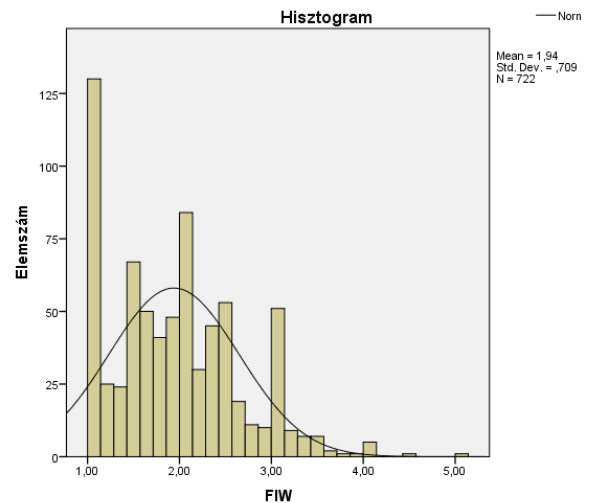


Figure 61- Distribution of FIW

According to literature, there are certain differences between women and men in respect of work-family conflict. Women have higher FIW, while men have higher WIF (Byron, 2005). Perhaps it might also be mentioned that certain current research findings do not support this kind of differentiation by gender. (Casper, Harris, Taylor-Bianco, & Wayne, 2011). Literature, however still maintains that this difference by gender is especially remarkable in cultures where there is a high inequality of sexes. (Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009). In Hungary inequality by gender is medium level ranking 34 on the world list. (United Nations Development Programme, 2010). On the basis of this, the following two hypotheses are put forth :

- women have a higher FIW than men
- men have a higher WIF than women

Our data have been submitted to F-test and to make interpretation easier averages are indicated on a diagram (Fig. 62).

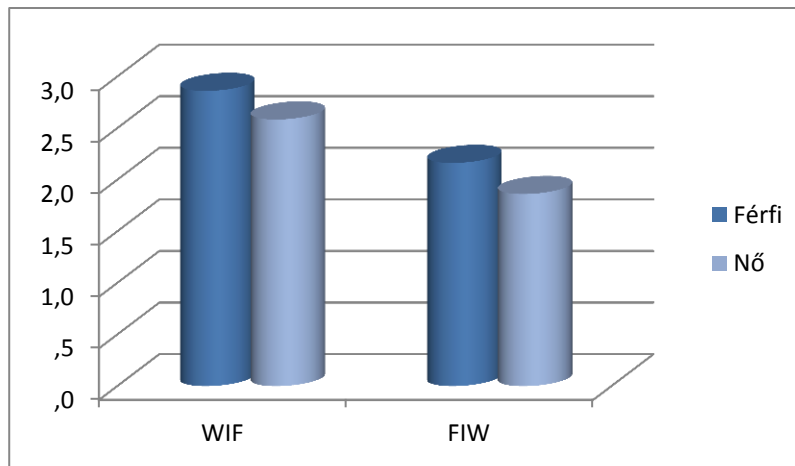


Figure 62 – Means of WIF/ FIW by gender

As for WIF, variance homogeneity may be supposed on the basis of Levene test, while t-test has proved to be significant ($t=3,454$; $p<,01$). Therefore, men have higher WIF than women. In respect of FIW, variances have also proved homogenous on the basis of Levene test, the same way as t-test ($t=5.052$; $p<,01$). Therefore, FIW is also higher among men than among women. Thus, our hypotheses have partly been confirmed. Indeed, men had higher WIF but FIW had also a higher average value with men. There is no easy explanation for this: perhaps women are able to separate the life domains of work and family better than we had expected.

It might seem logical that when work roles and responsibilities are confronted with family life (i.e. WIF level is high), the individual develops negative feelings towards the organisation. But concerning the relationship between WIF and affective commitment, earlier researches had come up with contradictory findings. Certain authors report a negative relationship (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), while others claim there is no substantive relationship at all. (Casper, Harris, Taylor-Bianco, & Wayne, 2011; Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, & Luk, 2001). Therefore, it is worth dealing with this issue by setting up the following hypothesis:

- There is a negative relationship between WIF and affective commitment.

The simplest way to answer the question is to examine the correlation between the two variables. According to the relevant calculation, the value of the correlation is $r=-,306$ ($p<,01$), i.e. there is a really significant, negative relationship. It appears that the negative influence of work on family life and affective commitment are incompatible.

If the individual experiences that work has a negative influence on family life, rationalisation might be one of the means to counteract it, i.e. they stay with the organisation because they simply have to do so. This suggests a positive relationship between WIF and continuance commitment (Casper, Harris, Taylor-Bianco, & Wayne, 2011). Some of the research findings

have confirmed this hypothesis and revealed a positive correlation between the two variables (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Casper, Harris, Taylor-Bianco, & Wayne, 2011). The following hypothesis is to be considered:

- There is a positive relationship between WIF and continuance commitment.

With a quick look at correlation ($r=,068$; $p=ns$) it can be seen that the hypothesis fails. Admittedly, there has been no negative relationship either, i.e. work-family interference is in no relationship with continuance commitment. Therefore, the presupposition concerning rationalisation has not been confirmed by empirical testing. The lack of relationship, however, is hardly surprising since continuance commitment is primarily based on limited alternative employment and too much personal sacrifice with quitting, which hardly has a direct influence on the negative effects of work on family life.

The set of values behind normative commitment is little exposed to momentary influences. As values in general, it also needs a longer period of time to change. (Bakacsi, 2004). Other researches on this issue have also confirmed this expectation (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, & Luk, 2001), therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- There is no significant correlation between WIF and normative commitment.

Since we have found a significantly negative relationship, the above hypothesis has failed. ($r=-0,17$; $p<,01$). This lower value of WIF may be explained by the organisation's investments in the individual, which contributes to a higher value of normative commitment (owing to the norm of reciprocity between the two parties).

Family is an important value in Hungary. Although there is a certain trend of modernisation, "In Hungarian public opinion not only the value of children and family but also role division by gender has been characterised by a basically traditional perspective for a long time." (Pongrácz, 2011, p.11). If family tasks and responsibilities get into conflict with work, the individual may tend to reduce involvement in work and transfer affective and other energies to family life. (Casper, Harris, Taylor-Bianco, & Wayne, 2011). Thus, the following hypothesis is to be considered:

- There is a negative relationship between FIW and affective commitment.

The correlation has confirmed the hypothesis ($r=-,224$; $p<,01$). Apparently, the negative influence of family life on work can really have a negative effect on affective commitment towards the organisation.

If family tasks are so overwhelming for the individual that they affect work (i.e. FIW appears), the individual may realise that keeping the job first is of critical importance if he or she wants to keep up the family. Also, when considerable energy has to be given to a family role, the direct and indirect costs of changing a job and fitting into a new work environment may be higher as well. These factors may compel the individual to stay with the organisation. (Casper, Harris, Taylor-Bianco, & Wayne, 2011). Those few researches that focused on this issue found either weak positive (Gibson & Tremble, 2006) or no correlation at all between the two variables (Casper, Martin, Buffardi, & Erdwins, 2002; Casper, Harris, Taylor-Bianco, & Wayne, 2011). Therefore, it may be ascertained:

- There is a positive relationship between FIW and continuance commitment.

The hypothesis has not been confirmed by our data since no substantive relationship has been found ($r=.03$; $p=ns$). It seems continuance commitment is not related to the value of FIW.

The value of normative commitment indicates that the individual feels it morally important to keep up membership in the organisation, i.e. to work for company goals. This kind of intrinsic motivation can be quite strong and may lead to considerable sacrifices of energy at work. Family tasks, at the same time, may limit this dedication and when these limitations become clear, FIW appears. Thus it may be presupposed:

- There is a positive relationship between FIW and normative commitment.

To all probability, FIW is not in the presupposed relationship with normative commitment ($r=-.144$; $p<.01$). On the basis of the significantly negative relationship we must say that a higher FIW value is joined by lower normative commitment. The explanation here may be similar to that of affective commitment: a higher FIW value may be associated with family-centeredness, which indicates a smaller relative value of the life domain of work.

4.6.4.2 The relationship between the commitment profiles and the components of WIF and FIW

As it has been demonstrated before, the average values of WIF and FIW may differ significantly according to commitment components and commitment profiles. However, as we referred to it in the theoretical summary chapter, neither WIF nor FIW is a single-dimensional concept; each may be interpreted with three components: behaviour-based (BWIF/BFIW), time-based (TWIF/TFIW) and stress-based (SWIF/SFIW) components. The question may arise: Are there any differences among commitment profiles in respect of how much each WIF and FIW components contribute to WIF and FIW values?

In order to find the answer, WIF and FIW components are interpreted as follows. Instead of getting the average from the three manifest variables measuring each component, the values of variables are added up but not divided by the number of variables. Thus, we get a well-functioning indicator number of the given component and it becomes possible to add up the indicator numbers of the three components and acquire an aggregated indicator number of WIF and FIW. In the case of individual commitment profiles, indicator numbers of each component and also the aggregated indicator numbers are examined.

4.6.4.2.1 The relationship between the commitment profiles and the components of WIF
Table Table 55WIF components in the case of commitment profiles (see also Fig. 63) At first glance we can see that commitment profiles differ in WIF values and the individual WIF components also contribute in a different way.

Table 55 – Means of WIF components in each commitment profile

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
	AC-NC	CC	AC-CC	HC	N	CC-NC	LC	AC	Post hoc
TWIF	6,27	9,31	7,25	7,07	7,98	7,56	9,75	6,55	1<2,5,7; 2>3,4,6,8; 3,4,6,8<7
SWIF	7,09	10,05	8,18	7,96	8,82	8,33	10,27	7,90	1<2,5,7; 2>3,4,6,8; 3,4,6,8<7
BWIF	7,26	9,08	7,45	7,05	8,35	8,20	9,23	8,00	1<2,5,7; 2>3,4,6,8; 3,4,8<7;

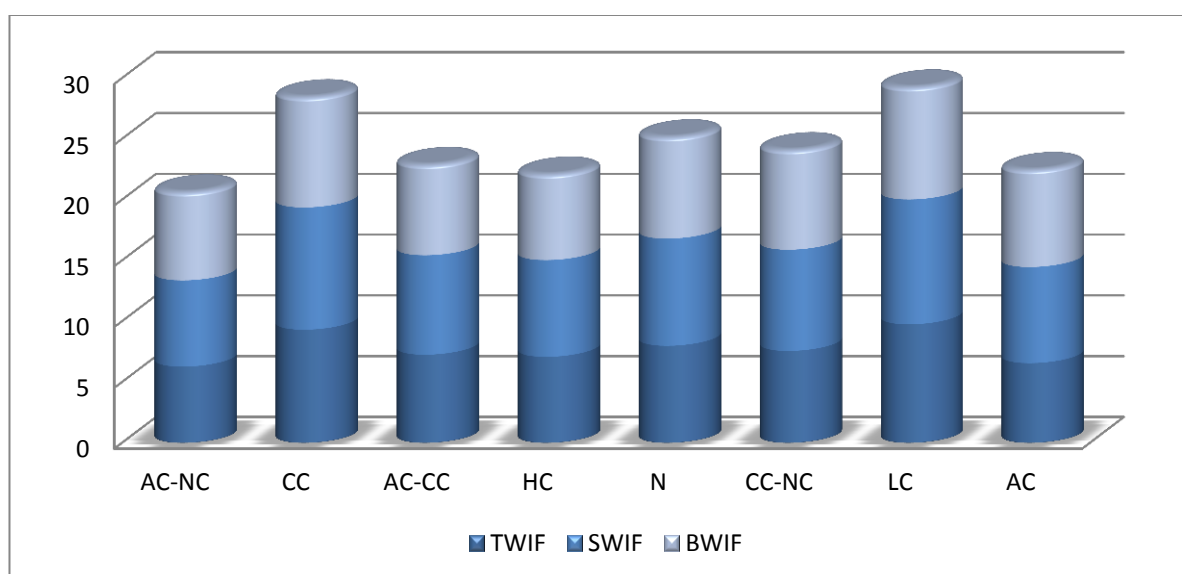


Figure 63 - Means of WIF components by commitment profiles

The above claim has been submitted to ANOVA-testing.³⁶ As a result it may be definitely stated that in respect of all the three WIF components commitment profiles show a significant deviation from one-another in the average values of components. These deviations are rather similar with all the three components. More specifically, in the case of the low commitment profile (LC) time-, stress- and behaviour-based WIF values are also the highest. In addition, with the exception of continuance dominant profile (CC) and neutral profile this value is significantly higher than any other profile's. The lowest value is given to the affective-normative dominant profile (AC-NC) with all the three WIF-components. This profile shows a significantly lower value compared with continuance dominant (CC), neutral (N) and low commitment (LC) profiles. Although statistically it has not got a significant difference compared with affective dominant (AC) profile, we see that it is given a lower numerical value with all the three components, which can hardly be due to mere coincidence.

Now let us focus on individual commitment components: in the case of affective dominant profiles if comparison is made with the clearly affective dominant profile (AC: 6,55;7,90;8,00) we get a lower WIF if affective commitment is joined by normative commitment (AC-NC: 6,27;7,09;7,26), whereas we get a higher WIF if it is joined by continuance commitment (AC-CC: 7,25;8,18;7,45). If it is joined by both continuance and normative (HC: 7,07;7,96;7,05), we get an average between AC-NC and AC-CC profile values. These findings hold true in nearly every case for all the three components of WIF.

In the case of continuance commitment the unified influence of commitment components regarding lower WIF is especially conspicuous. Compared with clear continuance dominant profile (CC: 9,31;10,05;7,26) the continuance-normative dominant profile (CC-NC: 7,56;8,33;8,20) shows a significantly lower WIF value – the same way as it does in the affective-continuance profile (AC-CC: 7,25;8,18;7,45). The profile characterised by the high values of all the three commitment components (HC: 7,07;7,96;7,05) shows an even lower WIF in all the three components of WIF.

In respect of normative commitment there is no clearly normative dominant profile, therefore results may not be analysed in this aspect. Nevertheless, it is easy to see that if normative commitment is joined by affective commitment (AC-NC: 6,27;7,09;7,26), (although not significantly) but nearly 20 % higher WIF is indicated in respect of all the three components of WIF - compared with the case when normative commitment is joined by continuance commitment. (CC-NC: 7,56; 8,33; 8,20). But when normative commitment is joined by both

³⁶ The assumption of homogeneity of variances is met, so we don't have to use Welch's F, and the post hoc test can be Hochberg GT2 (as the groups' sizes are different).

affective and continuance commitments (HC: 7,07, 7,96, 7,05), numerical values fall between AC-NC and CC-NC profiles.

Our results agree with the almost universally accepted opinion in literature that the presence of affective commitment is a favourable outcome for the organisation, while the presence of continuance commitment leads to unfavourable outcomes (Somers, 2009). At the same time, our numbers make the picture even sharper. The concept of WIF refers to the degree of conflict between work and family life. Consequently, one may expect that the more commitment components there are in one's commitment profile, the more committed a person is to work. Affective commitment reveals the acceptance of organisational goals and also the willingness to work for them. Continuance commitment shows the pressure to do high quality work since the individual cannot afford to risk his or her membership in the organisation. Normative commitment, on the other hand, includes the exemplary 'ambassador of the company' attitude.

In other words, in profiles with one or more dominant commitment components (especially where affective commitment is also dominant) the individual's involvement in work may be expected to reach an extent where it eventually interferes with family life. Consequently, the highest WIF value should appear in HC profile. This, however, is not the case at all. And the explanation is not obvious either. What we can definitely see is that when we compare two profiles which differ from each-other only in the dominance of continuance commitment (CC) (e.g. AC with AC-CC or AC-NC with HCl), - as a rule - the one with continuance dominance has the worse WIF-value. A probable explanation to this might be that when work has exactly the same negative influence on family life, doing work may seem even more negative if it is done under pressure, unwillingly, not supported by positive attitudes or intrinsic motivation. In this case the two life domains are not 'at war' with each-other, i.e. work does not 'devour' quality family life (owing to lack of time, too much stress or differing behavioural patterns) but rather: work actually makes life complete. This way, lack of time, stress or differing behavioural patterns are less apparent in the context of work-family relationship: the individual does not experience their influence in family life. It might also be possible that people with high affective and/or normative commitment - but without dominant continuance commitment - report lower WIF because otherwise they would have to face cognitive dissonance. Society has less tolerance for those who openly neglect family in the interest of work. Under a strong normative pressure individuals only admit work's negative influence on their family life - even to themselves - when they can owe it to external pressures (e.g. the ones behind continuance commitment).

It is also interesting to observe how the three components of WIF relate to one-another. Generally, stress-based WIF (SWIF) is highest, time-based (TWIF) and behaviour-based (BWIF) WIF is higher depending on the profile. This data may be explained by the relatively fixed working hours which - unless there are no emergency situations - can be well-planned. This way, the time schedules of work and family may be relatively well suited to each-other, i.e. family life is not often 'harmed' by work. Yet people belonging to low commitment profile (LC) reported considerable TWIF. For some reasons they would probably like to spend more time with family than is allowed by work. Furthermore, they cannot refer to external (material or normative) pressures when they should give reasons for staying with the organisation. Difficulties with time schedules may eventually be due to their own choice, therefore, they try to ease cognitive dissonance by putting the blame on the organisation. Thus attitudes towards the organisation become negative, affective commitment is low and that is why these people belong to the low committed group. If we look at average values of job satisfaction at each commitment profile in Table 53, it becomes obvious how low this value is with people belonging to the LC profile, which gives further support to the above reasoning.

Stress-based average values of WIF is generally the highest among the three WIF components in respect of nearly all the profiles. It seems, therefore, that the negative influence of work on family life is primarily due to the fact that customer service employees take work stress home. It comes as no surprise when one thinks of the highly stressful nature of the job. Owing to the limited compass of the present study it is not possible here to deal with the relationship between commitment profiles and stress which had been analysed in an earlier publication of ours (Kiss & Szilas, 2012). In our perspective the main focus is on coping mechanisms, i.e. to what extent can a community (work and family social support) reduce WIF and how this relates to organisational commitment.

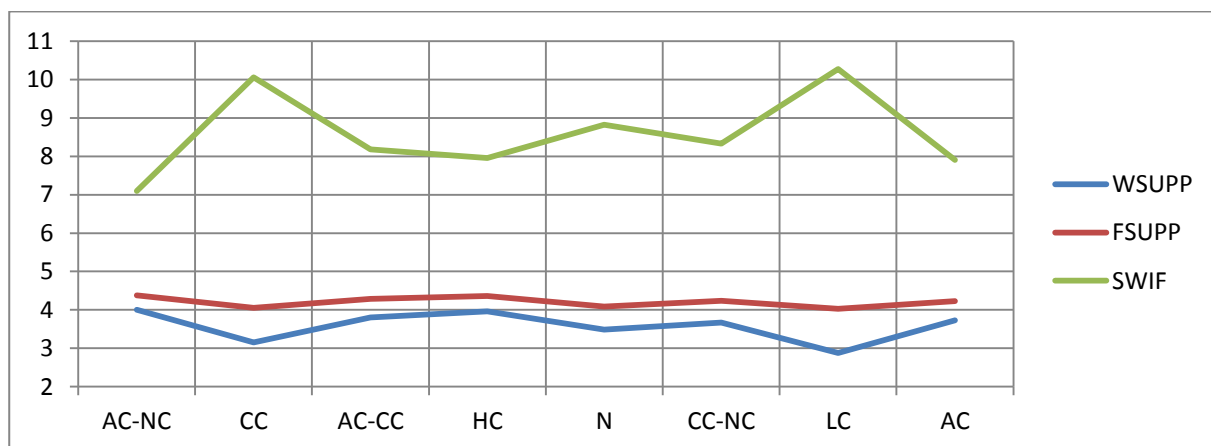


Figure 64 – The relationship between Work Social Support, Family Social Support and SWIF

As we can see the three lines move remarkably together: profiles with lower work and family social support have higher WIF value, while profiles with higher work and family social support have lower WIF value. This thesis has also been tested by a simple regression calculation the results of which are indicated in Table Table 56.

Table 56 – Regression analysis for Work Social Support, Family Social Support and Strain Based WIF

		SWIF β
Block 1	NEM	-,09
	GYEREK	-,16
	KOR	-,73*
	WSUPP	-1,8**
	FSUPP	-,68**
	Adjusted R ²	,16

Both work and family social support coefficients have proved to be significant and our model explains 16% of SWIF variance. Considering that two variables have been involved in the model 16% is an excellent value. The formulation of stress-based WIF may depend on a number of factors either at work or in the family. The fact that we have found two variables which together explain the formulation of SWIF so significantly is a very remarkable outcome. Drawing dynamic conclusions cautiously, it may be stated that apparently work and family social support may substantively reduce stress-based WIF. Lower SWIF, on the other hand, is typical of profiles associated with favourable outcomes at work. From a practical aspect it means that employers should pay more attention to work organisational solutions, allow employees to discuss difficult cases and give support to one-another. This concept had already been proposed by Meyer-Allen at the construction of TCM (i.e. they described the structural characteristics of the organisation as an antecedent of affective commitment). It has now been supported by empirical data as well.

4.6.4.2.2 The relationship between the commitment profiles and the components of WIF and FIW

Table Table 57 FIW broken down according to each commitment profile. For a better overview it is also indicated in Fig. Figure 65. As it can be seen in respect of FIW values, commitment profiles differ from one-another and FIW components also contribute to these differences in varying degrees.

Table 57 - Means of FIW components in each commitment profile

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
	AC-NC	CC	AC-CC	HC	N	CC-NC	LC	AC	Post hoc

TFIW	5,07	6,57	5,40	5,14	6,00	6,30	6,29	5,13	1<2,6; 2>4,8;
SFIW	4,30	5,64	4,67	4,38	5,43	5,13	5,08	4,43	1<2,5; 2,5>4,8;
BFIW	6,13	8,13	6,62	6,03	7,18	7,70	7,52	6,76	1<2,6; 2>3,4;

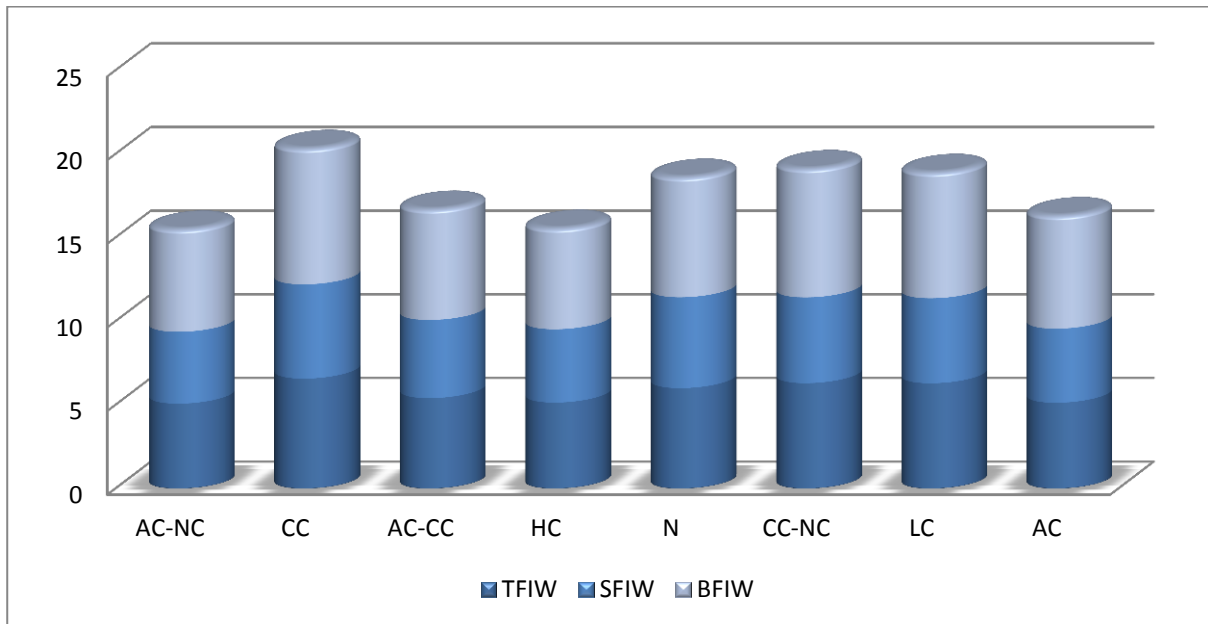


Figure 65 - Means of FIW components by commitment profiles

In order to conduct a more detailed analysis, an ANOVA test has been carried out – similarly to WIF in the previous chapter. The condition of variance homogeneity in the cases of TFIW and BFIW is fulfilled while in the case of SFIW it is not. Because of this, in the latter case the ANOVA test was performed with Welch's F-value, whereas the post-hoc test was carried out by the Games-Howell methodology. With the variables of TFIW and BFIW the application of Welch's F-value was not necessary and Hochberg GT2 could be used as post-hoc test (as the size of the groups were different).

The results of ANOVA undoubtedly confirm that there is a remarkable – in certain cases statistically significant – difference among commitment components in respect of average values of each FIW component. It counts as a very interesting and somewhat surprising result that it is not the low commitment profile (LC) that has the highest time-, stress- and behaviour-based FIW. Instead, the highest average values can be found at continuance dominant profile (CC) in respect of all the three FIW components. With regard to statistical significance it is only higher than affective-normative dominant (AC-NC), affective-continuance-normative dominant (HC) and affective dominant (AC) profiles in respect of all the three FIW components. To reach the highest average value in three cases may be the work of coincidence

but it is hardly probable. As for the lowest values, affective-normative dominant (AC-NC) and affective-continuance-normative dominant (HC) are almost in a tie at all the three FIW components. They are significantly lower than continuance dominant (CC) at all the three FIW components and continuance-normative dominant (CC-NC), in the case of time-based (TFIW) and behaviour-based (BFIW) family-work interference. Interestingly, at stress-based FIW this profile (CC-NC) is in the middle range.

Focusing on the analysis of individual commitment components it may be stated that - compared with exclusively affective dominant profile (AC: 5,13;4,43;6,76) - FIW decreases minimally when normative commitment is joined by affective commitment (AC-NC: 5,07;4,30;6,13), but it does not reach a statistically significant extent. At the profile where affective commitment is joined by continuance commitment (AC-CC: 5,40;4,67;6,62), the average values of time- and stress-based FIW are higher than those of the clearly affective dominant profile. By contrast, the average value of behaviour-based FIW is lower. This latter outcome is very interesting. At the same time, it should be noted that these differences are not significant statistically. The profile characterised by above-the-average commitment values (HC: 5,15;4,38;6,03) is at a tie with the clearly affective dominant profile (AC) with regards to time- and stress-based FIW. Yet it shows a lower average value concerning behaviour-based FIW - but not significantly.

Compared with the clearly continuance dominant profile (CC: 6,57;5,64;8,13) continuance-normative dominant profile (CC-NC: 6,30;5,13;7,70) has lower FIW average values with all the three FIW components - although not significantly. The affective-continuance profile (AC-CC: 5,40;4,67;6,62), on the other hand, is able to reach a significantly lower average with behaviour-based FIW but the other two FIW components are also remarkably lower - even compared with the relevant values of the CC-NC profile. The profile with high values of all the three commitment components (HC: 5,14; 4,38; 6,03) has significantly lower averages than the CC profile in the case of all three FIW components.

A clearly normative dominant profile (NC) has not been identified but there is a palpable difference if it is joined by affective commitment (AC-NC) or continuance commitment (CC-NC). The affective-normative dominant profile (AC-NC: 5,07; 4,30; 6,13) has a lower FIW average value in the cases of time-based (TFIW) and behaviour-based FIW (BFIW) than the continuance-normative dominant profile (CC-NC: 6,30; 5,13; 7,70). When both continuance and affective commitments join normative commitment (HC: 5,14; 4,38; 6,03), FIW values are also significantly lower in all the three FIW components than with the exclusively continuance dominant profile (CC).

After getting to know the data let us move on to interpretation. FIW is an indicator of how much family time demand (TFIW), stress (SFIW) and behavioural characteristics (BWIF) leave their mark on the individual's work performance. The question may promptly arise: How does all this relate to organisational commitment? The workplace or the organisation can hardly be blamed for the influence of family life on work. Family duties that consume time from work or cause stress that is hard to get rid of at work essentially fall outside of the organisation's sphere of influence and have little direct influence on affective, continuance or normative commitments. What may really affect organisational commitment is the attitude the 'boss', colleagues or the organisation on the whole actually have towards the infiltration of family problems, i.e. whether they adopt an understanding, supportive attitude or no. If individuals experience that the organisation stands by them and helps to solve family problems, it may help them establish several components of commitment. The most obvious reference may be made to normative commitment since moral, spiritual or perhaps material support from the organisation may be taken as the organisation's investment in the individual which, according to the initial TCM model, strengthens normative commitment. (see Chapter 2.1.2.3.4.1).

If we take a look at the relationship of work and family social support with the whole FIW (all the three components together) using a regression model (Table Table 58), this reasoning seems to be confirmed: both independent variables are significant and the model demonstrates 15% - although FIW variance was approached by two demonstrative variables.

Table 58 - Regression analysis for Work Social Support, Family Social Support and FIW

	FIW β
Block 1	
NEM	-,23**
GYEREK	-,14*
KOR	,01
WSUPP	-,17**
FSUPP	-,28**
Adjusted R ²	,15

The low FIW values of normative dominant profiles are not surprising at all. Similarly, in the case of normative dominant profile, without continuance commitment (AC-NC) time-based (TFIW) and stress-based FIW (SFIW) they show the lowest average values. In respect of behaviour-based FIW (BFIW) this is not the case but the difference is merely one-tenth.

It is interesting to note that the highest average values of all the three WIF components do not belong to (LC) profile (characterised by low values of all the three commitment components) – but to the clearly continuance dominant profile (CC). An explanation to this might be that people belonging to this profile (CC) feel the most 'entrapped' and although only external

pressures make them stay, they do not change their job – even if this situation is largely incompatible with their family life. While people belonging to other profiles may quit the company in the case of high FIW – those belonging to the CC profile cannot do this. This kind of ‘counter-selection’ may be reflected in our data. Another reason might be that people with high FIW – temporarily or permanently - think family life is an important value: it gives them a lot to do and consumes a considerable amount of their energy. Obviously, it is rather difficult to find an alternative job vacancy that is compatible with a situation like this and this, essentially, supports the dominance of continuance commitment.

Looking at the data it is remarkable that if profiles are listed according to the average values of FIW, the four profiles with affective dominant components (AC, AC-NC, AC-CC, and HC) show the four lowest average values with all the three FIW-components. Although we ought to be cautious with cause and effect-type explanations, all things considered, it seems that affective commitment and a high FIW value are not compatible. One possible reason might be that high FIW tends to ‘wear out’ affective commitment: those individuals whose family life requires such a high level of involvement that it affects their work can hardly identify with organisational goals and make extra efforts to reach them. On the other hand, it might also be possible that it is actually low affective commitment that gives way to more attention to family life, which then, in turn, affects work and leads to high FIW values.

When the values of the three FIW-components are compared with one-another it can be seen that – unlike in the case of WIF components – the highest average value was not given to stress-based but to the behaviour-based component. Stress-based FIW indicates an expressly low value: this component has the lowest average in each commitment profile. Therefore, it seems that customer service employees are relatively good at excluding family problems from work. This finding supports the segmentation approach to work-family interface. Actually how much affective involvement should be presupposed here is an other question, i.e. is there a real absence of stress-based FIW or do people suppress it? This issue falls outside our present observations. There was some very intriguing research done on the relationship between commitment profiles and affective involvement (Lazányi, 2010), which undoubtedly requires further research.

Apart from relationships with commitment components it is interesting to note the different formulations of the three components of WIF and FIW in Fig. 66. While in the case of WIF stress-based WIF was given the highest average value, in respect of FIW the same component had the lowest average value. At WIF behaviour-based component had the second highest average

while at FIW it had the highest average value. All the three components of FIW got a lower average value than the respective WIF-component.

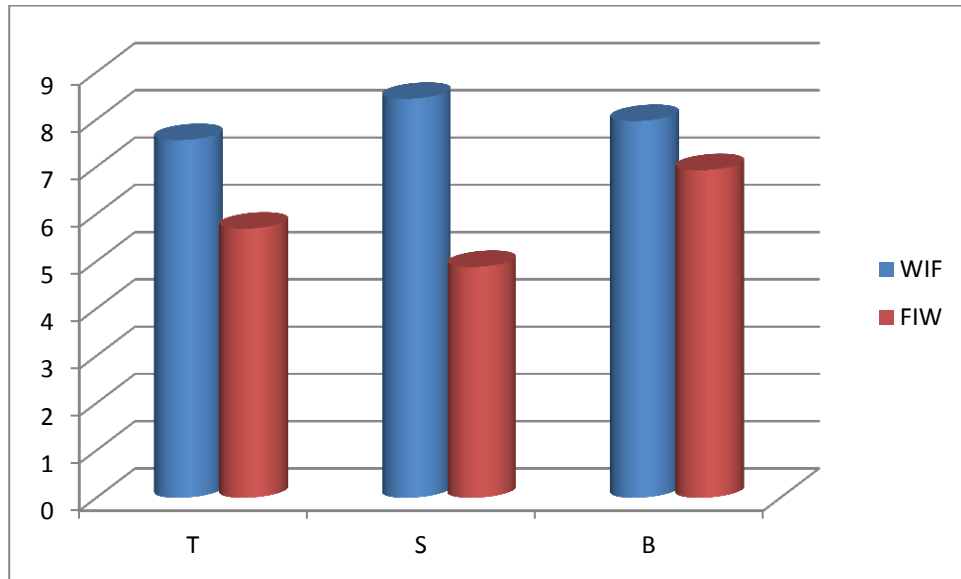


Figure 66 - Means of WIF/FIW components

Our data suggest that for people working in customer service the negative influence of work on family life is a more serious problem than vice versa. Reasons may include job characteristics such as high stress level (see the high level of SWIF value) or those specific behaviour patterns (e.g. affective involvement) which cannot or should not be practiced in family life.

There are several lessons to learn for 'hands-on' HRM professionals. If they substantively want to enhance work-family balance for customer service staff (which might be desirable as it is favourable for a number of consequence variables at the organisation) they should primarily focus on reducing work stress and on supporting behavioural patterns that help work performance in a customer service environment.

5 Summary

The main research question of the dissertation was how organizational commitment and work-family conflict are related in customer service positions. To answer the question, commitment was operationalized by the Three Component Model of Meyer and Allen (1991), and work-family conflict was operationalized by the integrative model of Michel et al (2009). Our research model was based on these two theoretical frameworks. The progress and focus of the empirical analysis was built upon our research model. This means that the research questions stemmed from our research model, which gave focus to the statistical analysis. These research questions and the results of relevant empirical investigations are summarized in the table below.

Table 59 – Main empirical findings

Research questions	Results of the empirical investigations			
<i>How do the three components of organizational commitment influence the effect of the work antecedent variables on the work consequence variable (intention to quit)?</i>	INTENTION TO QUIT	Moderating effect		
		AC	CC	NC
	WFB	YES	NO	YES
	WRA	YES	NO	NO
	WTD	NO	NO	YES
	WRC	YES	NO	YES
	JSAT	YES	YES	YES
	WSUPP	YES	NO	YES

<i>How do the three organizational commitment components influence each other and how does this interaction influence the intention to quit?</i>	INTENTION TO QUIT	Interaction effect		
		AC	CC	NC
	AC		NO	YES
	CC			NO
	NC			

	WIF	Interaction effect		
<i>How do the three organizational commitment components influence each other and how does this interaction influence the work interference with family?</i>		AC	CC	NC
	AC		YES	NO
	CC			NO
	NC			

<i>Are there different commitment profiles to be found based on the dominance of the commitment components?</i>	We managed to find eight clusters regarding organizational commitment. We named these clusters as Low Commitment (LC), High Commitment (HC), Affective-Normative Dominant (AC-NC), Affective-Continuance Dominant (AC-CC), Continuance-Normative Dominant (CC-NC), Continuance Dominant (CC), Affective Dominant (AC) and Neutral (N) profiles.
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<i>What are the differences between the commitment profiles regarding the work and family antecedent and consequence variables?</i>	Most of the commitment profiles did significantly differ regarding the work domain consequence variables: work roce conflict, work role ambiguity, work time demand, work social support, job satisfaction.
	Most of the commitment profiles did significantly differ regarding the work domain consequence variable: intention to quit.
	Most of the commitment profiles did not significantly differ regarding the family domain antecedent variables: family role ambiguity, family time demand, family role conflict, family social support.
	Most of the commitment profiles did not significantly differ regarding the family domain consequence variable: family satisfaction.
	Most of the commitment profiles did significantly differ regarding the work-family conflict variables: work-family balance, work-family interference, family-work interference.

	CORRELATION			
<i>How do the commitment components correlate with WIF and FIW?</i>		AC	CC	NC
	WIF	NEGATIVE	-	NEGATIVE

	FIW	NEGATIVE	-	NEGATIVE	
<i>What is the relationship between the commitment profiles and the work-family conflict variables?</i>	<p>Most of the commitment profiles did significantly differ regarding the components of work-family interference. We have found strain based WIF (SWIF) to be the highest, while time based WIF and behavior based WIF appeared to be lower.</p> <p>Most of the commitment profiles did significantly differ regarding the components of family-work interference. Although the strain-based component was the highest concerning the WIF, it was found to be the lowest regarding FIW.</p>				

The above mentioned research results are detailed in the following chapter.

First we analysed the three components of commitment separately. We concentrated on their moderating effect on the relationship between the work domain antecedents and the work domain consequence variable (intention to quit). We have found that affective commitment and normative commitment have a moderating effect on the relationship of Work-Family Balance, Work Role Conflicts, Work Social Support and Job Satisfaction with Intention to Quit. We have also found empirical evidence that affective commitment has a moderating effect on the relationship of Work Role Ambiguity with Intention to Quit; and normative commitment has a moderating effect on the relation of Work Time Demands with Intention to Quit. Continuance commitment was rarely involved in moderating effects: according to our data, it only has a moderating effect on the relation of job satisfaction with intention to quit.

With the next research question, we made a step forward, and we focused on the combined effects of the commitment components. We concentrated on the most important consequence variable: Intention to Quit. Using the statistical method of hierarchical regression analysis, we were searching for empirical evidence regarding the joint effects of the commitment components on intention to quit. We have found that affective commitment and normative commitment has notable combined effect. The analysis regarding the first research question revealed that these two commitment components have notable effect on intention to quit separately, now we have some evidence that their combined effect is important as well: when the normative commitment is high, the relationship is weaker between affective commitment and intention to quit.

Then we examined the combined effects of the commitment profiles on Work Family Interference, using hierarchical regression analysis. The empirical evidence shows that the interaction of affective commitment and continuance commitment is significant. We didn't

find any significant interaction between affective and normative commitment; and there was no significant interaction between continuance and normative commitment as well. Examining the combined effects of affective and continuance commitment, we have found that the effect of affective commitment on work-family interference is dependent on the level of the continuance commitment. For those who have low continuance commitment, the relationship between the affective commitment and work-family interference is weaker, compared to those who have high continuance commitment. This means that high continuance commitment and high work-family interference occur together only when affective commitment is low.

Commitment profiles offer another way of examining the combined effects of the commitment components. First we intended to create the profiles using k-means cluster analysis. After the calculations, eight profiles emerged which we interpreted in accordance with the prior researches on the topic. We named each cluster comparing the cluster's mean scores for each component to the relevant component's mean.

After creating the profiles, we intended to examine whether these profiles differed in terms of the work antecedent variables. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) method was used, and the according to the results all variables significantly differed across the profile groups. The results indicated that the more favourable levels of the antecedent variables were observed in the profiles with dominant affective commitment. This has lead us to the conclusion that the variables of work domain that are influenced by the management and HR decisions, play a significant role in the underpinning of affective commitment.

The next step was to examine the differences among the profiles regarding the family domain antecedents. We didn't expect any significant differences, and our hypothesis was supported. The means of the commitment profiles didn't differ significantly. This means that commitment is mainly a work domain concept.

As expected the variables tapping the conflict and balance of work and life domains (work-family balance, work-family interference, family-work interference) differed by the commitment profiles. It is noteworthy that even among the group with the lowest work-family interference the work-family interference was higher than the family-work interference of the group with the highest family-work interference. This required the deeper analysis of work-family interference and family-work interference. So we examined their components and their relation with the commitment profiles.

The correlations show that the work-family interference and affective commitment are negatively correlated, while the continuance commitment has no significant correlation with

work-family interference. The normative commitment is negatively correlated to work-family interference.

We have found negative correlation between family-work interference and affective and normative commitment, but have found that FIW shows no significant correlation with continuance commitment.

Next we focused on the components of work-family interference and family-work interference, and their relationship with the commitment profiles. The ANOVA results indicated that there is significant difference among the profiles regarding the three components of WIF and FIW. The group with low commitment (LC) has the highest mean of strain based WIF, time based WIF and behaviour based WIF. This mean is significantly higher than the means of the other profiles, except for the continuance commitment dominant profile (CC) and the neutral commitment profile (N). On the other side the affective-normative dominant profile has the lowest WIF regarding the three components.

The continuance dominant profile (CC) has the highest FIW in each of the three components. This profile has significantly higher FIW than the affective-normative dominant (AC-NC) profile, the highly committed profile (HC) and the affective dominant profile (AC). The lowest means were found among the affective-normative dominant profile (AC-NC), the highly committed profile (HC).

Based on the results future directions of the research can be outlined. Without additional data collection it is possible to examine the mediating effects of variables, and after that the moderated mediation effects can be analysed. Conducting path analysis could give a deeper understanding of the relationship between the variables. Additional qualitative data would allow the better examination of causal effects, helping the interpretation of the results of the present study.

6 Conclusion

The most important findings of the study are the following:

1. Three components of organizational commitment can be identified: affective, continuance, normative. These components differ in terms of antecedent and outcome variables.
2. The affective and normative component of the organizational commitment have a moderating effect on the relationship between several work domain antecedents and intention to quit. This means that the level of these commitment components have an influence on the strength of the relationship between the antecedent variables and intention to quit. Continuance commitment didn't have a moderating effect on most of the variables.
3. The three components of organizational commitment show different effect on intention to quit and work-family interference when considered simultaneously not separately. Regarding intention to quit there is a significant interaction between the affective and normative component. The same can be observed between the affective and continuance component regarding work-family interference.
4. Based on the three components of organizational commitment organizational commitment profiles can be identified. These groups of employees differ in terms of several work related antecedent and consequence variables, but do not significantly differ concerning family domain antecedents and consequences.
5. The components of organizational commitment have different correlation with work-family interference and family-work interference. The affective and normative component correlates negatively to work-family interference and family-work interference, while continuance commitment does not show any significant correlation with these variables.
6. The commitment profiles differ significantly in terms of the components of work-family interference and family-work interference. The highest work-family interference was observed in the low commitment group and in the continuance commitment dominant group. The highest family-work interference was measured in the profiles with high level of continuance commitment and low level of affective commitment. In all of the profiles the stress based component work-family interference was the highest among the three components, and the behaviour based component of family-work interference.

7 References

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8 Appendix

8.1 Questionnaire

Please, indicate your agreement with the statements using the scale provided!

If you strongly agree, choose (5); if you agree, choose (4); if you can not decide whether you agree or not, choose (3); if you disagree, choose (2); if you strongly disagree, choose (1). Please choose only one answer for every statement.

The statements may express positive or negative attitudes or opinions, please consider whether you agree with not with the statement as it is written. There are no „correct” ot „incorrect” answers, we expect your own opinion, based on your previous personal experiences.

In order to respect your anonimity, we don't ask your name, and we analyse the data creating categories with at least 10 respondents.

Indicate your agreement with the statements using the scale provided !	Strongl y disagre e	Disagr ee	Neutra l	Agree	Strongl y agree
Affective Commitment					
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	1	2	3	4	5
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5
I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (R)	1	2	3	4	5
I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (R).	1	2	3	4	5
I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R)	1	2	3	4	5
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R).	1	2	3	4	5
Continuance Commitment					
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5
What keeps me working at this company is the lack of opportunities elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5

Indicate your agreement with the statements using the scale provided !	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I have invested too much time in this organization to consider working elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5
Leaving this organization now would require considerable personal sacrifice.	1	2	3	4	5
For me personally, the costs of leaving this organization would be far greater than the benefits.	1	2	3	4	5
I would not leave this organization because of what I would stand to lose.	1	2	3	4	5
If I decided to leave this organization, too much of my life would be disrupted.	1	2	3	4	5
I continue to work for this organization because I don't believe another organization could offer the benefits I have here.	1	2	3	4	5
Normative Commitment					
I think that people these days move from company to company too often.	1	2	3	4	5
I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization (R).	1	2	3	4	5
Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me (R).	1	2	3	4	5
One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	1	2	3	4	5
If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.	1	2	3	4	5
I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	1	2	3	4	5
Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.	1	2	3	4	5
I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore.	1	2	3	4	5
Work-family balance (WFB)					
I am able to negotiate and accomplish what is expected of me at work and in my family.	1	2	3	4	5
I do a good job of meeting the role expectations of critical people in my work and family life.	1	2	3	4	5
People who are close to me would say that I do a good job of balancing work and family.	1	2	3	4	5

Indicate your agreement with the statements using the scale provided !	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I am able to accomplish the expectations that my supervisors and my family have for me.	1	2	3	4	5
My co-workers and members of my family would say that I am meeting their expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
It is clear to me, based on feedback from co-workers and family members, that I am accomplishing both my work and family responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5
Work-family enrichment (WFE)					
<p>Instructions:</p> <p>To respond to the items that follow, mentally insert each item into the sentence where indicated. Then indicate your agreement with the entire statement using the scale provided below. Place your response in the blank in front of each item.</p> <p>Please note that in order for you to strongly agree (4 or 5) with an item you must agree with the full statement.</p> <p>Take for example the first statement:</p> <p><i>„My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.“</i></p> <p>To strongly agree, you would need to agree that (1) your work involvement helps you to understand different viewpoints AND (2) that these different viewpoints transfer to home making you a better family member.</p>					
My involvement in my work _____ .					
<i>Work to family development</i>					
Helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Work to family affect</i>					
Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Work to family capital</i>					
Helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5

Indicate your agreement with the statements using the scale provided !	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
Provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member.	1	2	3	4	5
My involvement in my family _____.					
<i>Family to work development</i>					
Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Family to work affect</i>					
Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Family to work efficiency</i>					
Requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better.	1	2	3	4	5
Causes me to be more focused at work and this helps me be a better worker.	1	2	3	4	5
Work role conflict (Rizzo, House, and Litzman 1970)					
I have to do things that should be done differently.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to buck a rule of a policy in order to carry out an assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	1	2	3	4	5
I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.	1	2	3	4	5
I work on unnecessary things.	1	2	3	4	5
I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.	1	2	3	4	5

Indicate your agreement with the statements using the scale provided !	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I receive assignments without the manpower to complete them.	1	2	3	4	5
I receive assignments without adequate resources and material to execute them.	1	2	3	4	5
Family Role Conflict					
At home I have to do things that should be done differently.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to buck a rule of a policy in order to carry out an task at home.	1	2	3	4	5
I receive incompatible requests from two or more family members.	1	2	3	4	5
I do things at home that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.	1	2	3	4	5
I work on unnecessary things at home.	1	2	3	4	5
In my family there are two or more groups who are quite different.	1	2	3	4	5
I receive tasks at home without the manpower to complete them.	1	2	3	4	5
I receive tasks at home without adequate resources and material to execute them.	1	2	3	4	5
Family Time Demand					
I am given enough time to do what is expected of me at home.	1	2	3	4	5
The performance standards at home are too high.	1	2	3	4	5
It often seems like I have too much work at home for one person to do.	1	2	3	4	5
Family Role Ambiguity	1	2	3	4	5
I know exactly what is expected of me at home. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
I know that I have divided my time properly at home. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
Explanation is clear of what has to be done at home. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
I feel certain about how much authority I have at home. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
I know what my responsibilities are at home. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my family life. (R)	1	2	3	4	5

Indicate your agreement with the statements using the scale provided !	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Work role ambiguity (Rizzo, House, and Litzman, 1970)					
I know exactly what is expected of me (R)	1	2	3	4	5
I know that I have divided my time properly (R)	1	2	3	4	5
Explanation is clear of what has to be done (R)	1	2	3	4	5
I feel certain about how much authority I have (R)	1	2	3	4	5
I know what my responsibilities are (R)	1	2	3	4	5
Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job (R)	1	2	3	4	5
Work Time Demand / Work role overload (Beehr et al. 1976)					
I am given enough time to do what is expected of me on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
The performance standards on my job are too high.	1	2	3	4	5
It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.	1	2	3	4	5
Job satisfaction					
My job is very pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5
I am highly satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5
I am enthusiastic about my work.	1	2	3	4	5
I find real enjoyment in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
I definitely dislike my job. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
My job is very worthwhile.	1	2	3	4	5
Family Satisfaction					
If you are married: I am happy with my marriage.	1	2	3	4	5
If you are married: I am satisfied with my marriage.	1	2	3	4	5
If you have child or children under 18 in the household: I am happy with my family life.	1	2	3	4	5
Family Social Support (Carlson Perrewé, 1999 based on Etzion, 1984)					

Indicate your agreement with the statements using the scale provided !	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
<i>Please indicate the degree to which each of the following is present in your family life.</i>					
1. Feedback from others?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Appreciation?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Recognition?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Opportunity to "take time off" when in need?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Sharing of duties?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Sharing of responsibilities?	1	2	3	4	5
7. Emotional support?	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Please indicate the quality of the relationship you have with the following person or groups of persons.</i>					
8. Spouse	1	2	3	4	5
9. Family	1	2	3	4	5
10. Friends	1	2	3	4	5
Work Social Support (Etzion, 1984)					
<i>Please indicate the degree to which each of the following is present in your work.</i>					
1. Feedback from others?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Appreciation?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Recognition?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Opportunity to "take time off" when in need?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Sharing of duties?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Sharing of responsibilities?	1	2	3	4	5
7. Emotional support?	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Please indicate the quality of the relationship you have with the following person or groups of persons.</i>					
8. Supervisors	1	2	3	4	5
9. Coworkers	1	2	3	4	5
10. Subordinates	1	2	3	4	5

Indicate your agreement with the statements using the scale provided !	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Turnover intentions (Colarelli 1984)					
If I have my own way, I will be working for this organization one year from now.	1	2	3	4	5
I am not planning to search for a new job in another organization during the next 12 months.	1	2	3	4	5
I rarely think of quitting my job.	1	2	3	4	5
Work-Interference with Family / Family Interference with Work (Carlson, Kacmar, Williams, 2000)					
<i>Time-based work interference with family</i>					
My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.	1	2	3	4	5
The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Time-based family interference with work</i>					
The time I spend on family responsibilities often interfere with my work responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5
The time I spend with my family often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.	1	2	3	4	5
I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Strain-based work interference with family</i>					
When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5
I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.	1	2	3	4	5
Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Strain-based family interference with work</i>					
Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work.	1	2	3	4	5
Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.	1	2	3	4	5

Indicate your agreement with the statements using the scale provided !	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Behavior-based work interference with family</i>					
The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.	1	2	3	4	5
Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.	1	2	3	4	5
The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Behavior-based family interference with work</i>					
The behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.	1	2	3	4	5
Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.	1	2	3	4	5
The problem-solving behavior that work for me at home does not seem to be as useful at work.	1	2	3	4	5

Background variables :

- Age (Cron & Slocum, 1986) (Cohen, 1993)
 - Under 30
 - 31-35
 - 36-40
 - Above 40
- Gender
 - Male
 - Woman
- Residence
 - Budapest
 - County seat
 - Town
 - Village
- Approx. travelling time to the office/at home per day (both ways cumulated)
 - 0-15 minutes
 - 16-30 minutes
 - 31-60 minutes
 - More than 60 minutes
- Qualification
 - 8 grade elementary school
 - Graduation
 - High school / university
- Form of employment (Felfe, Schmook, Schyns, & Six, 2008)
 - Classic

- Temporary
 - Self-employed
- Type of job
 - Full time job
 - Part time job
 - Not working
- Type of call center
 - Incoming calls
 - Outgoing calls
 - Both
- Sector
- Position
 - Senior executive
 - Group leader (has at least one subordinate)
 - Subordinate
- Marital status
 - Single
 - Married / Common-law marriage
- If married / lives in common-law marriage, the type of job of the partner (Fu & Shaffer, 2001):
 - Full time job
 - Part time job
 - Not working
- Child(ren) living at home (Bedeian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988):
 - No child
 - One or more child above the age of 22, but none under 19
 - One or more child aged 19-22, but none under 19
 - One or more child aged 6-18, but none under 6
 - One or more child under the age of 6
- How long have you been working for your employer? (Cohen, 1993)
 - 0-1 year
 - 1-4 years
 - 5-8 years
 - More than 9 years
- How long have you been working in your present job?
 - 0-3 months
 - 3-6 months
 - 6-12 months
 - 1-3 years
 - 3-5 years
 - More than 5 years
- How much time do you spend daily at the workplace (average)?
 - Less than 8 hours
 - 8-9 hours
 - 9-10 hours
 - 10-12 hours
 - More than 12 hours
- Please indicate how many hours do you spend weekly on the following activities (approximately):
 - Taking care of children
 - Shopping for the household (f.e.: food)
 - Household activities (f.e.: cooking)
 - Housecare duties (f.e.: repairing)

8.2 Sample

Table 60 – Demographical characteristics of the sample

		N	%
Age	Under 30	374	51,4
	31-35	158	21,7
	36-40	54	7,4
	>40	134	18,4
	N.A.	7	1,0
Gender	Man	186	25,6
	Woman	534	73,5
	N.A.	7	1,0
Domicility	Budapest	71	9,8
	Village	117	16,1
	County seat	274	37,7
	Town	260	35,8
	N.A.	5	,7
Daily average durations of travel to work and home	0-15 minutes	62	8,5
	16-30 minutes	235	32,3
	31-60 minutes	260	35,8
	>60 minutes	164	22,6
	N.A.	6	,8
Education	8 grade elementary	1	,1
	Graduation	335	46,1
	College/University	225	30,9
	Higher level vocational education and training	162	22,3
	N.A.	4	,6
Lenght of contract	Pre-defined	89	12,2
	Indefinite	595	81,8
	Other	37	5,1
	N.A.	6	,8
Type of customer service center	Incoming calls	156	21,5
	Outgoing calls	36	5,0
	Other	221	30,4
	Both	229	31,5
	N.A.	85	11,7
Position	Subordinate	666	91,6
	Manager (has at least one subordinate)	48	6,6
	Senior manager	1	,1
	N.A.	12	1,7
Marital status	Single	151	20,8
	Have a partner	199	27,4
	Married/life-partnership	366	50,3
	N.A.	11	1,5
Job of partner (if married/lives is life-partnership)	No job	71	9,8
Parenthood	8 hours (full time)	439	60,4
	Part time	36	5,0
	N.A.	181	24,9
	No child	430	59,1
	One or more child aged 19-22, but none under 19	25	3,4
	One or more child above the age of 22, but none under 19	58	8,0
	One or more child under the age of 6	79	10,9
	One or more child aged 6-18, but none under 6	85	11,7
Tenure	N.A.	50	6,9
	0-1 year	52	7,2
	1-4 years	301	41,4
	5-8 years	225	30,9
	>9 years	137	18,8
Since in actual job	N.A.	12	1,7
	0-3 months	23	3,2
	3-6 months	50	6,9
	6-12 months	61	8,4
	1-3 years	250	34,4
	3-5 years	160	22,0

Average time spent daily in workplace

>5 years	171	23,5
N.A.	12	1,7
<8 hours	27	3,7
8-9 hours	564	77,6
9-10 hours	96	13,2
10-12 hours	28	3,9
>12 hours	7	1,0
N.A.	5	,7

8.3 Correlations

Table 61 – Correlations among the variables

	AC	CC	NC	WFB	WRC	FRC	WTD	FTD	FRA (R)	WRA (R)	JSAT	FSAT	FSUPP	WSUPP	QUIT	WIF	FIW
AC	1	,215 ^{**}	,527 ^{**}	,348 ^{**}	-,439 ^{**}	-,078 ^{**}	-,298 ^{**}	-,056 ^{**}	,146 ^{**}	,453 ^{**}	,702 ^{**}	,148 ^{**}	,207 ^{**}	,557 ^{**}	-,615 ^{**}	-,306 ^{**}	-,224 ^{**}
CC	,215 ^{**}	1	,307 ^{**}	,073 ^{**}	-,009 ^{**}	,016 ^{**}	,071 ^{**}	,036 ^{**}	,074 ^{**}	,065 ^{**}	,108 ^{**}	,012 ^{**}	-,003 ^{**}	,063 ^{**}	-,253 ^{**}	,068 ^{**}	,034 ^{**}
NC	,527 ^{**}	,307 ^{**}	1	,252 ^{**}	-,281 ^{**}	-,014 ^{**}	-,192 ^{**}	,006 ^{**}	,154 ^{**}	,314 ^{**}	,472 ^{**}	,056 ^{**}	,140 ^{**}	,348 ^{**}	-,508 ^{**}	-,174 ^{**}	-,144 ^{**}
WFB	,348 ^{**}	,073 ^{**}	,252 ^{**}	1	-,360 ^{**}	-,281 ^{**}	-,359 ^{**}	-,293 ^{**}	,377 ^{**}	,450 ^{**}	,403 ^{**}	,279 ^{**}	,329 ^{**}	,415 ^{**}	-,294 ^{**}	-,494 ^{**}	-,364 ^{**}
WRC	-,439 ^{**}	-,009 ^{**}	-,281 ^{**}	-,360 ^{**}	1	,306 ^{**}	,580 ^{**}	,173 ^{**}	-,119 ^{**}	-,520 ^{**}	-,504 ^{**}	-,104 ^{**}	-,134 ^{**}	-,537 ^{**}	,401 ^{**}	,491 ^{**}	,425 ^{**}
FRC	-,078 ^{**}	,016 ^{**}	-,014 ^{**}	-,281 ^{**}	,306 ^{**}	1	,134 ^{**}	,540 ^{**}	-,447 ^{**}	-,247 ^{**}	-,124 ^{**}	-,362 ^{**}	-,416 ^{**}	-,167 ^{**}	,047 ^{**}	,315 ^{**}	,448 ^{**}
WTD	-,298 ^{**}	,071 ^{**}	-,192 ^{**}	-,359 ^{**}	,580 ^{**}	,134 ^{**}	1	,204 ^{**}	-,059 ^{**}	-,386 ^{**}	-,443 ^{**}	-,079 ^{**}	-,133 ^{**}	-,404 ^{**}	,274 ^{**}	,522 ^{**}	,293 ^{**}
FTD	-,056 ^{**}	,036 ^{**}	,006 ^{**}	-,293 ^{**}	,173 ^{**}	,540 ^{**}	,204 ^{**}	1	,389 ^{**}	-,198 ^{**}	-,112 ^{**}	-,251 ^{**}	-,378 ^{**}	-,156 ^{**}	,072 ^{**}	,391 ^{**}	,395 ^{**}
FRA (R)	,146 ^{**}	,074 ^{**}	,154 ^{**}	,377 ^{**}	-,119 ^{**}	-,447 ^{**}	-,059 ^{**}	-,389 ^{**}	1	,373 ^{**}	,185 ^{**}	,388 ^{**}	,459 ^{**}	,222 ^{**}	-,128 ^{**}	-,261 ^{**}	-,338 ^{**}
WRA (R)	,453 ^{**}	,065 ^{**}	,314 ^{**}	,450 ^{**}	-,520 ^{**}	-,247 ^{**}	-,386 ^{**}	-,198 ^{**}	,373 ^{**}	1	,500 ^{**}	,153 ^{**}	,277 ^{**}	,582 ^{**}	-,384 ^{**}	-,362 ^{**}	-,341 ^{**}
JSAT	,702 ^{**}	,108 ^{**}	,472 ^{**}	,403 ^{**}	-,504 ^{**}	-,124 ^{**}	-,443 ^{**}	-,112 ^{**}	,185 ^{**}	,500 ^{**}	1	,172 ^{**}	,226 ^{**}	,633 ^{**}	-,626 ^{**}	-,460 ^{**}	-,328 ^{**}
FSAT	,148 ^{**}	,012 ^{**}	,056 ^{**}	,279 ^{**}	-,104 ^{**}	-,362 ^{**}	-,079 ^{**}	-,251 ^{**}	,388 ^{**}	,153 ^{**}	,172 ^{**}	1	,490 ^{**}	,166 ^{**}	-,165 ^{**}	-,208 ^{**}	-,245 ^{**}
FSUPP	,207 ^{**}	-,003 ^{**}	,140 ^{**}	,329 ^{**}	-,134 ^{**}	-,416 ^{**}	-,133 ^{**}	-,378 ^{**}	,459 ^{**}	,277 ^{**}	,226 ^{**}	,490 ^{**}	1	,357 ^{**}	-,163 ^{**}	-,261 ^{**}	-,310 ^{**}
WSUPP	,557 ^{**}	,063 ^{**}	,348 ^{**}	,415 ^{**}	-,537 ^{**}	-,167 ^{**}	-,404 ^{**}	-,156 ^{**}	,222 ^{**}	,582 ^{**}	,633 ^{**}	,166 ^{**}	,357 ^{**}	1	-,445 ^{**}	-,403 ^{**}	-,259 ^{**}
QUIT	-,615 ^{**}	-,253 ^{**}	-,508 ^{**}	-,294 ^{**}	,401 ^{**}	,047 ^{**}	,274 ^{**}	,072 ^{**}	-,128 ^{**}	-,384 ^{**}	-,626 ^{**}	-,165 ^{**}	-,163 ^{**}	-,445 ^{**}	1	,299 ^{**}	,254 ^{**}
WIF	-,306 ^{**}	,068 ^{**}	-,174 ^{**}	-,494 ^{**}	,491 ^{**}	,315 ^{**}	,522 ^{**}	,391 ^{**}	-,261 ^{**}	-,362 ^{**}	-,460 ^{**}	-,208 ^{**}	-,261 ^{**}	-,403 ^{**}	,299 ^{**}	1	,558 ^{**}
FIW	-,224 ^{**}	,034 ^{**}	-,144 ^{**}	-,364 ^{**}	,425 ^{**}	,448 ^{**}	,293 ^{**}	,395 ^{**}	-,338 ^{**}	-,341 ^{**}	-,328 ^{**}	-,245 ^{**}	-,310 ^{**}	-,259 ^{**}	,254 ^{**}	,558 ^{**}	1

8.4 Normality analyses and homogeneity of variances of the variables regarding the commitment profiles

Table 62 – Normality analyses and homogeneity of variance of our variables regarding the commitment profile groups

	Normality								Homogeneity of variances
	AC-NC	CC	AC-CC	HC	N	CC-NC	LC	AC	
QUIT	NOT OK	OK	NOT OK	NOT OK	OK	NOT OK	OK	OK	NOT OK
WFB	OK	OK	NOT OK	NOT OK	OK	NOT OK	OK	OK	NOT OK
WRC	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	NOT OK
FRC	NOT OK	OK	NOT OK	NOT OK	OK	NOT OK	NOT OK	NOT OK	OK
WTD	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
FTD	OK	OK	NEM OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
FRA	OK	OK	NOT OK	OK	OK	NOT OK	NOT OK	OK	OK
WRA	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	NOT OK
JSAT	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	NOT OK
FSAT	NOT OK	NOT OK	OK	NOT OK	OK	OK	NOT OK	OK	NOT OK
FSUPP	OK	OK	NOT OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	NOT OK
WSUPP	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	NOT OK	NOT OK	OK
WIF	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK	OK
FIW	NOT OK	OK	OK	NOT OK	OK	OK	NOT OK	OK	OK