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Motivational Orientation and Commitment of Working Parents

by

Margarita Almonte

**A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Psychology
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York.**

2002

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Abstract**Motivational Orientation and Commitment of Working Parents**

by

Margarita Almonte**Advisor: Professor Walter Reichman**

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the impact of marital status, work motivation, and other person characteristics on the organizational commitment of working parents. Ultimately, the study explored the indirect effect of these person variables on intent to leave the organization. Intrinsic and extrinsic components of work motivation as well as affective and continuance components of organizational commitment were examined using a sample of working parents. Continuance commitment was treated as two separate constructs (commitment due to perceived lack of alternatives and commitment due to personal sacrifice). Data were obtained via questionnaire from 391 working parents. Of these, 99 were single and 292 were married. Organizational commitment was found to partially mediate the effect of sex, education, age, number of children, primary wage earner, occupation level, income, perceived financial need, and motivation on intention to leave. No difference was found regarding type of motivation exhibited by parents based on marital status. However, primary wage earners are more extrinsically motivated than secondary wage earners. As expected, extrinsic motivation does not affect affective commitment and intrinsic motivation does not affect commitment due to perceived lack of alternatives or commitment due to personal sacrifice. Also, occupation level and education level affect components of commitment. Finally, the tenability of a model examining the effects of person variables,

work motivation, and organizational commitment on the intent to leave of working married parents was tested utilizing path analytic technique (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1995). Age and perceived financial need are the best predictors of intention to leave an organization. The results and implications for organizations as they relate to recruitment and retention of employees who are parents are discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

Organizations are interested in factors that affect the performance of their employees and, consequently, the effectiveness of their business. For decades, researchers have investigated different employee characteristics that potentially affect their behaviors at work. The present study was designed to examine the impact of person variables such as marital status, age, sex, education, number of children, primary wage earner, occupational level, perceived financial need, income, and work motivation on the organizational commitment of working parents which, consequently, affect their intention to remain in the organization. Although each of these variables had been studied individually and in dyadic form, they had not been examined simultaneously in order to ascertain multiple relationships among the variables. The present study examined the effects of motivational orientation and other person characteristics on components of commitment and intention to leave the organization in the context of familial obligations. Because of small sample size in the single parents group, the path analysis was only conducted for the married sample. However, by conducting this study, I was able to address some of the issues regarding working parents that had not been examined in previous research.

First, when studies are conducted with the general population, they rarely address variables that can affect sub-groups, such as working parents, differently or more intensely than the overall work force. Therefore, by studying working parents specifically, I was better able to understand how a parent's marital status impacts his or her work motivation and organizational commitment. Second, the present study

examined the aforementioned variables in the context of an exploratory path analysis model. The use of this type of statistical method allowed for the simultaneous examination of the variables of interest. Ultimately, relationships among marital status, motivation, commitment, and intention to remain in the organization became clearer. Of the four major areas of interest in this study, work motivation had been the most heavily researched, yet many questions remained unanswered.

Work Motivation

Motivation has been positively linked to productivity, organizational commitment, and satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980; Dunham, Grube, & Castañeda, 1994; Deci & Ryan, 1991; Locke & Latham, 1984; Locke & Latham, 1990) and linked negatively to turnover (Miller & Wheeler, 1992). Accordingly, researchers' interest in the study of motivation continues.

Several theories of motivation have been advanced, each with its own set of propositions, explanations for human behavior, and merit (e.g., Maslow, 1954; Adams, 1963; Vroom, 1964; Deci & Ryan, 1991). Although each of these theories has some merit, each is more likely to be applicable to specific situations. For example, some behavior is better explained via expectancy theory while others are best explained via theories of equity or goal-setting. Still others are more adaptable to concepts promoted by the theory of intrinsic motivation advocated by Deci and Ryan (1991). If, for example, the issue centers around whether or not employees feel they are treated fairly by the employer, one could consider examining the problem under the rubric of equity theory. However, situations which are more concerned with performance levels at work are best

explored by employing goal-setting principles. Finally, when employers are interested in what motivates their employees, intrinsic motivation offers a keen opportunity for study. A more extensive review of these individual theories of motivation is offered by Pinder (1984).

In spite of the interest shown by researchers in Deci and Ryan's theory of motivation, the majority of the research has focused on the intrinsic aspect of the theory. The studies generally do not concentrate on extrinsic motivation. Part of the reason for this lack of interest on the extrinsic portion of Deci and Ryan's theory is that extrinsic rewards are not necessarily considered motivators (Herzberg, 1966). As a result, intrinsic motivation has been the desirable, sought-out characteristic. However, because extrinsic motivation has not been fully examined, further research may reveal that it has a more important role in motivating certain individuals than previous research has demonstrated. One way to further examine work motivation is to consider investigating both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation variables using working parents who are a segment of the population that, because of circumstances, may be more prone to exhibit extrinsic than intrinsic motivational orientation because of a responsibility to their children's welfare. These people may be more likely to work at jobs that pay well or provide other extrinsic benefits in spite of their lack of interest in the work itself.

As today's workforce becomes more highly educated, and is better able to choose careers based on intrinsic factors, they are likely to turn their interests to extrinsic factors when choosing employers. Most employees have a good sense of the type of work they enjoy before joining an organization. When negotiating new employment contracts,

acceptance of the job depends highly on what additional benefits the organization brings to the table and whether those benefits are more attractive to the individual than benefits provided by a competing employer. Therefore, if the career choices made by individuals are already intrinsically motivating, it is up to the organizations to provide extrinsic qualities for the jobs in order to attract and retain desired employees. Regardless of whether or not employees find their work interesting, they generally expect to receive some kind of compensation for going to work. Intrinsic motivation has been linked to the affective component of organizational commitment (Dunham, Grube, & Castañeda, 1994). Components of organizational commitment have, in turn, been negatively linked to intention to leave the organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). If employers can identify the motivators of their employees and are willing to act upon those motivations, they are in a better position to influence organizational commitment and other desirable outcomes.

Organizational Commitment

Similar to motivation, organizational commitment has not been examined comprehensively. It has only been within the last decade that different components of organizational commitment have been measured (Allen & Meyer, 1990a). Traditionally, research has focused on affective commitment which focuses on a desire to remain in the organization due to a perceived attachment toward the organization's goals and values (Buchanan, 1974). Recent measures of commitment make it possible to examine additional components such as continuance commitment which is cost-based and focuses on instrumental values. Finally, examinations are being conducted on the normative component of commitment which is based on a perceived moral responsibility to remain

a member of the organization. Information regarding these components of commitment make it possible to examine in more detail relationships between commitment and person variables that have not been addressed in previous studies. For example, the measure of continuance commitment developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) contains two underlying factors measuring a perceived lack of alternative employment and personal sacrifice stemming from a feeling of sunken costs (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Dunham et al., 1994). So, should the employees quit, they may have no other employment prospects and lose any investments made in the company. If we were to examine the ideas of personal sacrifice and lack of alternatives within the working parent population, specifically looking at marital status, we may discover differences in the type of commitment they exhibit toward their company. For instance, employees who do not have an exclusive responsibility to their children are less likely to sacrifice job interest in return for other incentives. Perhaps individuals who perceive a lack of alternatives or are reluctant to abandon certain benefits provided by the company, are most likely to exhibit continuance commitment rather than affective commitment toward their organization.

Although it has been speculated that the relationship between organizations and their employees has changed, organizational commitment has not ceased to exist. Interest in organizational commitment has not waned as a result of mergers and acquisitions (Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1997). The contention is that although the nature of the psychological contract between organizations and employees is changing, it has not been completely eliminated. Organizations continue to need a core of committed employees, and employees continue to feel a need for attachment to the work place.

Therefore, even though organizations and industries may not be able to guarantee employment for all of their workers, they still need to retain individuals who they believe are valuable to the business. As discussed earlier, attachment to an organization can result from different venues. Attachments which result from an interest in the organization's well-being or which are due to sunken costs can have different implications for employers. Several antecedents of commitment have been identified in the literature including organizational characteristics, person characteristics, and work experiences. Consequences of commitment are identified as attendance, performance, citizenship behavior and low turnover. However, the complexity of commitment requires that further investigations be conducted. The role of motivational orientation and person characteristics such as parental status and motivational orientation warrant further investigation as antecedents of commitment.

Working Parents

The increase in the number of working parents poses new challenges for organizations in terms of the recruitment, retention and accommodation of qualified employees who are also parents. Although an increasing number of organizations have responded to issues related to working parents by providing some sort of child care aid and/ or alternate work schedules, the majority of organizations have traditionally adopted reactive instead of proactive approaches to family issues. Organizations have not really taken the time to anticipate the needs of working parents. To illustrate, at the time of the Workforce 2000 report publication in 1987, only 2000 of the nation's six million

employers provided day care assistance as a fringe benefit (Johnston & Packer, 1987, p. 113).

However, research shows that fulfilling needs of working parents go beyond good community relations and can be linked to the bottom line (Friedman, 1991). For instance, there is evidence that employers who provide child care assistance incur lower absenteeism and turnover, achieve better success in recruiting employees, and achieve higher productivity than employers who do not provide child care assistance for their employees (Johnston & Packer, 1987, p. 113). Thus, organizations that can provide for child care and other extrinsic rewards that fulfill the needs of working parents can be expected to be better able to attract and retain talented workers.

One difficulty with attracting and retaining talented employees who are parents is that there is not always a clear understanding of their needs and motivations. It is conceivable that populations with different needs will be differentially motivated. Generally, interest in motivational orientation has focused predominantly on the general population. However, the increase in work force diversification imparts a need for employers to examine the motivation of sub-populations more carefully than in previous years. In order to accomplish this, organizations must first recognize the impact of changing demographics in the workforce and issues of diversity in employee lifestyles that employees bring to work on a daily basis. Organizations can benefit from exploring the different demographic variables that impact motivational orientation and other related variables which subsequently affect the bottom line through productivity, recruitment and training issues.

The composition of the American workforce is changing drastically. Women are entering the work force in proportions that continue to increase on a yearly basis (Suro, 1992). It was estimated that, by the year 2000, 61 percent of American women would be at work comprising approximately 47 percent of the workforce (Johnston & Packer, 1987). One particularly astonishing aspect regarding these figures is that much of the increase in the number of women in the workforce is due to the participation of both married and single women with children. Between 1960 and 1984, the proportion of married mothers in the workplace grew from 28 to 61 percent of all working women. Further, the proportion of working women with children under six years of age increased from 19 to 52 percent during this time period. The Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in 1997, labor force participation of women with children under six years old had risen to nearly 65 percent of working mothers. These figures are not surprising given new policies at the Federal and State government levels aimed at reorganizing the Welfare system.

There are new definitions for families in North America; the intact, nuclear family is no longer the norm. Divorces are more common and accepted than ever before so it is not unusual to see children living with stepparents or in a single parent household. Finally, the number of women obtaining high levels of education has risen significantly as women continue their struggle toward financial independence and parity with their male counterparts. These factors combined lead to changes in the demographics of the female workforce. Recent reports are relatively consistent with some of the projections made by the Workforce 2000 report (Suro, 1992; Shellenbarger, 1992). Among women with

children under 18 years of age, 67.2% were part of the American work force in 1991 (Shellenbarger, 1992). Overall, 72 percent of working mothers participated in the workforce in 1997 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1998). However, working mothers are only part of the picture. In addition to the increase in the number of married mothers in the workplace, the number of single mothers is also increasing. Suro (1992) reported that "single mother" was the fastest growing category of family groupings in the United States. At the time of her report, approximately 86 percent of single parent households were headed by women. In 1997, 75 percent of single mothers were active labor force participants (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1998).

The number of single fathers with sole or primary custody is also rising, although there is less available information pertaining exclusively to single fathers than single mothers (Greif & Bailey, 1990; Hall, 1990). Between 1996 and 1997, one parent families headed by fathers rose from 14 to 17 percent (Census Bureau, 1998). This one year increase, if it continues, would be staggering and implies that the needs of our work force may be changing substantially. Organizations must respond to these changes by providing employees with a work environment that is sympathetic to their needs.

In order to determine some of the important issues affecting the behavior of working parents, the present research proposes to investigate under-researched components of work motivation (i.e. extrinsic) and organizational commitment (i.e. continuance) in relation to working parents. Part of the difficulty in previous examinations of these areas as they pertain to working parents and the general population has been a partial focus. For example, Lambert (1991) examined the motivation of

working parents, but only measured intrinsic motivation. Similarly, affective commitment only was the focus of investigations by Caldwell, Chatman and O'Reilly (1990) and Ko, Price and Mueller (1997). It stands to reason that if one should examine motivation both intrinsic and extrinsic aspects should be explored in order to obtain a better assessment of how the variables relate to one another. By the same reasoning, more than affective commitment should be measured as it pertains to intent to leave. The simultaneous study of different motivational orientations and components of commitment as they pertain to parents and their ultimate impact on intent to leave provides an opportunity to explore relationships which have not been fully addressed in the literature. The first chapter of this research presents a review of the literature on work motivation followed by chapters presenting reviews of the literature on organizational commitment and working parents. Finally, the research conducted on intent to leave the organization is examined, and a proposal for the current study is presented.

Chapter 1**Work Motivation**

Researchers have noted that employees do not all work for the same reasons or with the same results (Vroom, 1964; Csikszentmihalyi, 1975). This observation has led to a steady increase and interest in studies of work motivation throughout the 20th century (Kanfer, 1990). Empirically, motivation has been linked positively to various work behaviors, such as productivity, organizational commitment, and satisfaction (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980; Dunham, Grube, & Castañeda, 1994; Deci & Ryan, 1991; Locke & Latham, 1984; Locke & Latham, 1990). Motivation is also related inversely to turnover and intention to leave one's job (Miller & Wheeler, 1992). Given these relationships, work motivation remains of interest to managers in organizations because understanding factors that motivate employees can aid them in determining appropriate types of rewards and incentives. Motivation is a very complex construct; therefore, it is necessary to define it and examine its history before we can discuss its effects on behavior.

There have been numerous attempts to understand and explain the behavior of humans at work. These attempts are characterized by various theories of motivation, including: hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1954); motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1959; 1966); theory X and theory Y (McGregor, 1960); need achievement (McClelland, 1961); equity theory (Adams, 1963); expectancy theory (Steers & Porter, 1975; Vroom, 1964); goal-setting (Locke & Latham, 1984); and intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1991). There have also been several attempts at theory integration and coordination

including those by Kanfer & Ackerman (1989); Katzell & Thompson (1990); Motowild & Bobko (1986); and Bandura (1986). However, because of the different approaches, there are as many different definitions of motivation as there are models. Each definition of work motivation tends to focus on different aspects of motivation and, consequently, the theories often appear difficult to compare or to reconcile. Pinder (1984) managed to painstakingly detail the major theories of motivation, their underlying assumptions, supporting research as well as problems and misunderstandings. For the purpose of this paper, Pinder's definition of work motivation, which draws upon the work of several previous researchers (Jones, 1955; Vroom, 1964; Steers and Porter, 1975; and Locke & Latham, 1984), will be utilized. Pinder states that:

“Work motivation is a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behavior, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration.” (p. 8).

Pinder's definition allows for motivation levels to be either weak or strong, vary between individuals at any particular time, as well as within a given individual at different times and during different circumstances. It emphasizes the importance of different circumstances as they pertain to the concept of motivation. The definition implies a multiplicity of needs, drive, instincts, and external factors that have been considered over the years regarding human behavior, without necessarily accepting the primary importance of any of these sources (Pinder, 1984). This view of motivation is consistent with Maslow's (1954) proposition that behavior is overdetermined (generally results from more than one need) and that a particular behavior can satisfy a number of needs without a one-to-one relationship (Pinder, 1984, p. 46). Although motivation

seems to be an incredibly broad concept which is characterized by a variety of behaviors, researchers have been able to focus on particular aspects of motivation that help distinguish it from other constructs and to identify various components.

Three pioneers of intrinsic work motivation research were Maslow (1954), Alderfer (1972), and Herzberg (1959). Because of the advancements made by these theorists, we have been able to narrow the focus of work motivation. The concept of work motivation is often dichotomized to represent intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions. Intrinsic motivation is characterized by behaviors that are executed for their own sake and rewards that are self-administered such as feelings of accomplishments and self-esteem. Extrinsic motivation is characterized by behaviors that are prompted by forces that are outside of the individual and lead to external rewards such as a bigger office or salary increase, which are mediated by the actions of others (e.g., one's boss).

Origins of Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

The dichotomy of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can be traced to the writings of Maslow (1954). Maslow's Hierarchical Theory of Needs is based on five categories of human needs (physiological, safety, belongingness, love, and self-actualization) and proposes that these needs account for a large portion of human behavior. According to the theory, the needs are arranged in a hierarchy and their importance or prepotency at a particular time depends on the person's immediate needs in order to survive. For example, physiological needs are the most prepotent in the theory and, if not satisfied, lead to behavior aimed at restoring balance within the individual (e.g. a starving person stealing food). Hence, extreme hunger will cause a person to focus on food until the need

is satisfied. The same principle applies when physical safety or any of the other needs are not satiated. The process continues up the hierarchy until self-actualization is reached. Maslow believed behavior was overdetermined so that any particular behavior tends to result from more than one need. The key is the relative deprivation or satisfaction of the needs. Therefore, the need does not disappear when gratified, it simply becomes less urgent. An important aspect of the theory is that it can be thought of in terms of lower-order and higher-order needs. Lower-order needs can be considered to be extrinsic, characterized by the physiological and safety levels of the hierarchy, and can be satisfied through external methods. In contrast, higher-order needs are considered to be characterized by love and self-actualization levels which are intrinsic in nature.

Unfortunately, Maslow's theory has been misinterpreted over the years. A common misinterpretation is that the force motivating a person's behavior stems from one need which dominates behavior until the need is satisfied. Once a particular need is satisfied, it is said to "shut off" and a higher order set of needs takes its place. Maslow believed that the needs are always present although the person need only act on the ones that are most urgent or prepotent at a given time.

Maslow's theory, although popular with managers trying to find ways to motivate their employees, has not had sufficient empirical support (Betz, 1984). The reason for the lack of support is not entirely clear. According to Pinder, the reason could be due to the misinterpretations of the theory by researchers or a complexity in the theory that investigators have failed to detect. However, Maslow does not provide any clear directions for testing his theory which could also be the reason for the variety of

interpretations of his work. Furthermore, the theory was developed by Maslow in order to explain his personal observations so that its propositions are limited to specific instances.

Although years of testing Maslow's theory did not provide clear or definitive answers to questions of work motivation, it was important because it acted as a catalyst for the development of other work motivation theories. For example, Alderfer (1972) developed a theory that, in essence, was a parsimonious modification of Maslow's theory. Alderfer's ERG (Existence, Relatedness, and Growth) model was intended to provide a model that could be tested with fewer need parameters. Alderfer proposed that all three sets of needs are simultaneously active in all human beings. Alderfer believed that it is possible for a person to experience Growth needs without being completely satisfied with his or her Relatedness needs. Another important aspect of Alderfer's theory is that a person whose efforts to satisfy Growth needs are frustrated, can exhibit an increase in Relatedness needs so that one can actually move back and forth between levels without the needs being completely fulfilled. This is referred to as the Frustration-Regression Hypothesis because frustration of one need leads to the person concentrating more on a different need. Unfortunately, Alderfer's theory also failed to provide the answers required in the area of work motivation. More specifically, the tenets of Maslow's and Alderfer's theories have not received adequate empirical support. It has been speculated that even if the need theories were proven valid, they would still not be sufficient for predicting the precise behaviors a person would exhibit when trying to satisfy a specific need (Locke, 1976, as cited in Kanfer, 1990). The value of the need theories lies in their

attempt to provide answers to broad questions regarding human nature and the subsequent research that resulted. The use of need theories in organizational settings is limited because, although they have the potential to explain similarities across individual needs over time, the theories are often judged on their ability to explain differences over brief periods. Thus, more recent research focuses on identifying broad sets of motives that influence specific behaviors (Kanfer, 1990).

Another important theorist who can be credited with the origins of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is Frederick Herzberg. Although Herzberg's (1959, 1966) Two-Factor (Motivator-Hygiene) Theory is one of work motivation, it was also proposed to determine employee satisfaction. The basic tenets of the theory are that work consists of different facets that can be categorized as either motivators or hygiene factors. Motivators are aspects of a job that relate to content factors and higher order needs (i.e., achievement, advancement, the work itself, responsibility, and recognition) and lead to the satisfaction of employees. Hygiene factors are associated with contextual factors and lower order needs which pertain to maintenance (i.e., clean working environment, company policy and administration, technical supervision, working conditions, salary, and interpersonal supervision) the absence of which leads to dissatisfaction. Herzberg's theory proposes that if a person's job does not have sufficient motivators, the employee will neither be motivated nor satisfied with the job. Although the presence of the hygiene factors preclude dissatisfaction, the presence of hygiene factors alone, does not lead to job satisfaction nor motivation. Therefore, both motivators and hygiene factors must exist in a job for an employee to be motivated and satisfied at work. Herzberg's theory makes

intuitive sense and has generated a fair amount of research (Maidani, 1991). However, it has not obtained sufficient support to be utilized in organizations (Steers & Porter, 1991). The value of Motivator-Hygiene Theory is that it has been the impetus for job design and re-design studies. These studies have made work more interesting and enjoyable for employees and have led to positive impacts on the bottom line (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Herzberg's theory stimulated research seeking to identify the differences between internal and external motivation because it was the first attempt to differentiate between specific content and context variables in the work place. Subsequent investigations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were, to a great extent, based on the dichotomy outlined by Herzberg (i.e., Hackman, 1976; 1980; Deci & Ryan, 1991). Based on more recent conceptualizations of motivation, motivator factors are likened to what is considered intrinsic motivation by modern researchers. Hygiene factors refer to what is considered extrinsic motivation. The discussion of motivation research continues with these terms in mind.

Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation has been defined as innate, organismic needs for competence and self-determination. It energizes different behaviors and psychological processes for which the primary rewards are the experiences of effectance (achievement) and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1991, p. 50), and is characterized by self-administered rewards. The research on intrinsic motivation has stemmed from a number of different conceptual interpretations. Pinder (1984) cites three major approaches to intrinsic motivation. The first approach posits that human beings seek optimum levels of arousal which result

primarily from the stimuli that are present in the individual's environment. The person behaves in a manner that increases or decreases the amount of physiological stimulation to match his or her desired arousal level.

The second approach states that people desire and behave in order to achieve an optimum level of uncertainty or incongruity. This approach, which is somewhat similar to the first, states that the person can actually desire tension. According to the second approach, a person will instigate behavior to either increase or decrease the level of incongruity in his or her mind. The difference between the approaches is that the former is physiological in nature while the latter stresses the level of psychic comfort or discomfort a person experiences as a consequence of his or her acts and perceptions. The third and last approach is identified by Deci (1975) and describes intrinsically motivated behaviors as those behaviors a person engages in to feel competent and self-determining. The behaviors consist of seeking and creating challenges and conquering those challenges.

Note that the three general approaches to intrinsic motivation detailed above are compatible with one another. Given this viewpoint, it is possible to expect that no one approach exists in a vacuum, and that a physiological need can lead to creating or seeking challenge which can, subsequently, lead to mastery of the challenging task. In this illustration, the three approaches are seen as parts of a cycle rather than individual pieces. This same difficulty in distinguishing concepts can be encountered when attempting to distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) have suggested that intrinsic motivation may become more important as the workforce becomes more highly educated and less threatened by challenging jobs. However, one problem with this school of thought is that jobs which require higher levels of education and tend to be more intrinsically rewarding than jobs requiring less education, also tend to pay better. If the pay variable is not considered, it may confound the research findings because it makes it more difficult to determine whether the individual is responding to truly intrinsic factors, money, or both. As discussed earlier, there have been difficulties classifying and understanding the role of pay in relation to intrinsic motivation. The pay variable will be addressed in more detail later in this chapter because it is believed to be more closely linked with extrinsic motivation.

Extrinsic Motivation

Behaviors which are the result of something other than an interest in the activity itself are said to be extrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 1991, p. 52). The rewards for these actions are administered by someone other than the person exhibiting the behavior. Although extrinsic motivation has not been favored in the literature, some individuals may consider it as having greater importance than intrinsic motivation. This is possible because individuals are driven by different personality characteristics and circumstances (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994). In this respect, motivational orientation can be viewed as a variable which is dictated by individual circumstances as suggested in Pinder's (1984) definition of work motivation. The paucity in extrinsic motivational research does not necessarily imply that it is not a worthwhile topic. On the contrary,

with the changing characteristics of organizations and the work force, information on extrinsic motivation may be more valuable than ever. It seems that researchers have been so preoccupied with making jobs intrinsically rewarding (e.g., Oldham, Hackman, & Pearce, 1976), that they have not realized that workers know what to expect from their occupations, and tend to switch organizations for reasons other than enriched work, such as better pay and benefits. This could indicate that people choose occupations based on intrinsic factors, but choose organizations based on extrinsic ones.

Extrinsic motivation is never studied exclusive of intrinsic motivation. It is always presented in relation to intrinsic motivation and, generally, researchers attempt to find new ways to enhance intrinsic motivation by either suggesting that extrinsic rewards not be offered in return for certain tasks or, by developing new and interesting ways of performing the task (Glynn, 1994). Hackman and Oldham (1980) suggested that people with lower education would be more extrinsically motivated because they have lower levels of growth need strength and, therefore, have lower desire for internal rewards. It could also be that they merely express it in ways that are not typical of college-educated middle-class individuals. According to Hackman's perspective, workers in today's society, who are attaining higher levels of education than ever, should be interested primarily in the rewards they receive from the job itself. Judging from the turnover rates at organizations and the salary increases that result from joining new organizations, this may not be the case. If anything, one could speculate that extrinsic rewards are very highly regarded by employees in this highly competitive society. It could be that highly educated individuals get their intrinsic motivation from their educational

accomplishments and look to be paid for their work. Another explanation is offered by Feehan and Enzle (1991) who found that perceived control over extrinsic rewards prevented the erosion of intrinsic motivation and resulted in maintenance of performance. If individuals perceive changing organizations as having control over their extrinsic rewards, it could positively affect their intrinsic motivation. In this case, turnover has less to do with intrinsic motivation and more to do with the employee's ability to influence extrinsic rewards provided by the organization.

Another study that lends credence to this proposition was conducted by Maidani (1991). Maidani sought support for Herzberg's theory using samples of public and private sector employees. His sample (similar to Herzberg's original, on which the model was first developed) consisted of accountants and engineers. Maidani found that public sector employees tended to value extrinsic or hygiene factors significantly more than private sector employees. Public sector employees tend to have higher tenure than private sector employees which suggests that the value they place on their rewards pertains to the entire package of extrinsic rewards and not just salary. The types of rewards offered by government jobs in comparison to private sector jobs include greater job security, stability, health benefits and less competition. Public organizations tend to be plagued with more bureaucracy and less autonomy than private organizations which supports Hackman and Oldham's (1980) findings that people with lower levels of intrinsic motivation require less autonomy than employees with higher growth needs.

In conclusion, although extrinsic motivators have attracted less attention from researchers in the past, they appear to play a greater role in employee motivation than

previously credited. Considering that today's organizations and work structures change as often as they do, it may be necessary to use other types of rewards when recruiting and retaining valuable employees. There has been a great deal of work (Friedman, 1992) attempting to determine what courses of action organizations can take to attract better qualified candidates. This research has resulted in various employee incentives such as better health plans, flexible working arrangements, and work-family initiatives. If, as reported by several organizations, these initiatives achieve their goals, it is time to pay closer attention to extrinsic rewards as they may dictate how employees choose their work environment in the future and how long they choose to maintain organizational membership.

The relationship between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation has received more attention from psychological theorists than extrinsic motivation (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994). However, the nature, relationship, and interaction of both concepts have been heavily debated by various theorists over the past three decades (Deci, 1972; Staw, 1976; Pinder, 1982; Deci & Ryan, 1991; Amabile et al., 1994; Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999).

For example, conclusions about the interaction of the effects of extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation have been contradictory. Deci's review in 1972 found that offering an extrinsic reward to a person performing an intrinsically motivating task can result in a loss of some (or all) of the person's prior level of intrinsic motivation toward the rewarded task and even other related tasks. Guzzo's (1979) later review of the research showed that sometimes extrinsic rewards reduce intrinsic motivation, while at

other times they serve to enhance intrinsic motivation. The most recent review in this area provides more in-depth information (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). Deci and his colleagues conducted a meta-analysis in which they examined a variety of studies investigating the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. They concluded that the effect of the extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation depends on several factors.

These factors include the following:

- (1) Whether or not the reward is expected. If the reward is unexpected, it is not detrimental to intrinsic motivation. A problem would arise only if the person begins to expect the reward for performing the task;
- (2) Type of reward. Verbal rewards can enhance intrinsic motivation because they tend to influence the person's feelings of competence; however, if a person engages in a task merely to receive the verbal reward, then that reward will undermine intrinsic motivation. In contrast, tangible rewards undermine intrinsic motivation except when the tangible rewards are a salary for holding a job in which case they are not considered contingent on performance;
- (3) The circumstances of the reward's administration. Informational rewards do not adversely affect intrinsic motivation whereas if a reward is perceived as controlling, it can diminish intrinsic motivation. One example of a controlling reward is when a person perceives that the reward was given to encourage further performance of the task and not as appreciation of the work performed, and;
- (4) If the extrinsic reward is contingent upon engaging in the task, completing the task, or reaching a level of performance, then intrinsic motivation is reduced. If the reward is not

task contingent, there is no adverse effect on intrinsic motivation because the task and reward are perceived as separate and unrelated by the recipient. The only difficulty with this last factor is that if the extrinsic reward is not contingent on the task, the reward does not convey appreciation for the task because there is, in effect, no extrinsic reward (Deci et al., 1999).

Although the studies designed to demonstrate the conditions under which intrinsic motivation is diminished or enhanced by extrinsic rewards provide a great deal of theoretical information, the results suffer from a lack of generalizability because the majority of the research has involved tasks such as solving anagrams and puzzles. Furthermore, these tasks have taken place in controlled laboratory settings using either children or college students and not in real life or field studies involving work for pay (Deci, 1972; Glynn, 1994; Deci et al., 1999). These conditions are not comparable to work situations where employees work for a regular salary.

The conditions presented by Deci and his colleagues (1999) are not unlike the factors introduced by Staw (1976) in earlier work. Staw attempted to explain the conditions under which contingent rewards enhance intrinsic motivation using five factors. He concluded that whether extrinsic rewards cause intrinsic motivation to increase, diminish, or remain the same depends on five factors. These five factors include:

- 1) Saliency of the reward
- 2) Appropriateness of payment for the activity
- 3) Prior level of commitment to the task
- 4) Degree of choice to perform or not perform the task
- 5) Existence of potential adverse consequences

The first factor states that if the reward is highly salient so that it is expected by the person performing the task, it is expected to have an adverse effect on intrinsic motivation. The second factor, which appears to contradict the first, suggests if the reward is normally provided for the performance of the task, then the extrinsic reward is less likely to reduce intrinsic motivation. For example, compensated tasks that are part of one's job do not have adverse effects if the compensation is not based on performance (Deci et al., 1999). This factor also explains why the Deci (1972) task of solving anagrams decreased intrinsic motivation. Had an extrinsic reward not been administered, intrinsic motivation would not have suffered. Simply, most people do not consider anagram-solving work for which to be compensated but, rather, view it as an enjoyable task. This also explains Glynn's (1994) findings in which people whose tasks were labeled "work" were more concerned with performance as opposed to when the same task was labeled "play," in which case subjects were more "means" oriented. People in our culture do not normally get rewarded for solving anagrams or puzzles. The third factor pertains to the level of commitment to the task. If the person is highly committed to the task, extrinsic rewards are less likely to reduce intrinsic motivation. Fourth, if the person feels pressured to perform the task so that it is not a matter of choice, the person will not consider the task as intrinsically motivated and there will be no effect on intrinsic motivation. Fifth, potential adverse consequences also lead to the person's perception that the performance of the task is not intrinsically motivated and, therefore, result in little or no effect on the level of intrinsic motivation.

There appears to be some overlap among the constructs presented by Deci (1999)

and Staw (1972). Staw's first factor (saliency of reward) is comparable to Deci's first factor, expectancy of reward. However, there is no direct one to one correspondence between the remaining factors. The remaining factors have less defined boundaries. For instance, Staw's second factor (appropriateness of payment for the activity) contains elements of Deci's second and third factors, the type of reward and the circumstances of the reward's administration. Also, Staw's fourth and fifth factors (degree of choice to perform the task and existence of potential adverse consequences, respectively) are comparable to Deci's fourth factor, contingency of reward. Although both theories seem to include similar ideas, Deci's set of factors is more parsimonious. Finally, Deci's conclusions are based on findings obtained from many decades of research.

The fact that employees expect to be paid for their work makes the factors presented by Staw and Deci very relevant to the present study. Based on the findings of the research reviewed in this chapter, one may conclude that extrinsic rewards in the workplace are not invariably detrimental to intrinsic motivation especially as most people are compensated on an hourly or salaried basis, not performance-contingent. In fact, most individuals work because of the need for money in order to eat, provide shelter and maintain one's physical well being and enjoyment whereas intrinsic motivation is determined by the tasks performed on the job. The manner in which individuals choose to earn a living then becomes a matter of what types of tasks they enjoy performing. Although useful in understanding intrinsic and extrinsic motivational issues, the overall conclusions drawn by studies included in Deci et al's (1999) meta-analyses do not speak to real world situations. The reality of tangible rewards is likely to be stronger and more

necessary than represented by the results of studies conducted on children and college students.

Amabile, Hill, Hennessey and Tighe (1994) investigated the possibility that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are more complex than has been previously suggested in the literature. Their findings suggested that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations can co-exist so that an individual is likely to exhibit both types of motivation at the same time. However, it stands to reason that individuals in different circumstances will be more oriented toward one than the other. If this is the case, as researchers, we should explore the circumstances under which motivational orientations differ for employees. This idea should also be of interest to employers. Considering that motivation is an issue when trying to increase productivity or performance, it is important for organizations to identify the motivational orientations of employees so they can provide organizational rewards which will allow them to effectively attract, select, and retain qualified employees.

In this regard, organizations can also focus on the relationship between motivation and commitment of their employees. Are there differences between the motivational orientation (be it intrinsic or extrinsic) of employees and the commitment they have toward the organization? For example, researchers have reported that values influence commitment (Popper & Lipshitz, 1992) and that intrinsic motivation is related specifically to affective commitment (Dunham, Grube, & Castañeda, 1994). Dunham et al.'s study focused on intrinsic motivation. What about extrinsic motivation? Researchers have yet to adequately investigate the role of extrinsic motivation on commitment variables. Although employees are likely to be motivated by both types of

rewards in the workplace, an individual who is primarily extrinsically motivated may be more inclined to exhibit a type of commitment that has not been traditionally considered by the organization (i.e., continuance commitment). If that particular type of commitment is not measured, the employer is not likely to know if the employee feels any type of commitment toward the organization. This does not necessarily mean that there is no commitment as previous researchers have suggested. If the ultimate goal of the organization is to retain qualified employees, then providing these employees with valued rewards should achieve that goal. In turn, the employees will exhibit commitment and work to maintain membership in the organization. The logic behind this argument is that the type of commitment exhibited may be dependent on the values or circumstantial need of that person and that regardless of the type of commitment exhibited, there may still be a benefit to the organization. Such notions warrant additional research. Therefore, we turn to research conducted in the area of organizational commitment.

Chapter 2

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has received a great deal of attention from researchers attempting to understand employee behavior, particularly variables influencing performance and the choice to remain in an organization. In fact, organizational commitment is a more powerful and stable long-term predictor of employee turnover and absenteeism than other widely studied phenomena such as job satisfaction (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). For instance, a person's job satisfaction can be readily influenced by day-to-day occurrences in the workplace while commitment tends to be less influenced by isolated episodes dealing with work, co-workers or supervision. Organizational commitment is a much broader concept than job satisfaction. Job satisfaction deals with dimensions of the job, work group and environmental aspects whereas organizational commitment includes all of these factors plus organizational values and beliefs (Meyer & Allen, 1997). An example of the difference between the terms is evident in cases of employees who change jobs and departments but continue to work within the same organization. Thus, commitment encompasses a greater number of factors which are determinants of staying in an organization and exhibiting citizenship behavior. Interest in organizational commitment is appropriate because organizations ought to be aware of their employees' values and whether these values are congruent with the values and goals of the organization. Although there has been concern that too much commitment at a time of mergers, acquisitions and downsizing may lead to negative consequences (Brockner, Tyler, & Cooper-Schneider, 1992), it is reasonable to

expect that some commitment would be desirable to an organization. Otherwise organizations will have no way of retaining their best employees and, instead, are left with people who are not interested in the organization or its goals, only their paychecks. Furthermore, just because reorganizations and mergers are prevalent in today's society it does not mean that employees do not continue to feel a sense of commitment to their organizations. While downsizing often occurs as a result of organizations using mergers and acquisitions in making business decisions, it does not imply that organizations are not interested in employee commitment. It is precisely during these turbulent times that organizations benefit most by maintaining a core of committed employees who know, understand, and are concerned about the organization's success.

The amount of attention given to commitment research and theory attests to the interest and prominent place that it continues to hold in the work place. One reason to study commitment during these turbulent times is that organizations will always require some commitment from employees in order to function effectively. Furthermore, the concept of commitment and its theoretical underpinnings have not been researched to their full extent. Research findings suggest that while commitment appears to be multifaceted, the majority of the research has been conducted only focusing on one component (Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 1990; Dunham, Grube, & Castañeda, 1994; Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997; Meyer, Allen, & Smith 1993; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Before delving any further into the different components of commitment, some history and a definition of the term "commitment" are in order. The research that has been conducted to date on organizational commitment will be reviewed. Theories and

measures developed to test these concepts will also be discussed. In addition, an argument will be made for continued research in this area.

Definition of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been defined in many different ways over the decades (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997). The variety of definitions have made it difficult to study organizational commitment because researchers have tended to use different labels for similar constructs and, inversely, they have used the same label when referring to different constructs (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Definitions of organizational commitment are generally categorized in one of two ways (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). The first approach is called attitudinal commitment and focuses on an evaluative component. Attitudinal commitment is said to exist when the person identifies with a particular organization's values and goals and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate these goals (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). The second approach is behavioral commitment which focuses on behaviors that are perceived as overt manifestations of commitment. These behaviors are representative of investments individuals make in terms of sunken costs, such as staying late at work without compensation, contributing to a pension plan, or volunteering for events sponsored by the organization.

These definitions of organizational commitment are not to be confused with definitions of commitment to the work group, unions, occupations or job involvement which, albeit related, are domain specific. In fact, Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) demonstrated that organizational commitment and occupational commitment contribute

independently to the prediction of professional activity and work behavior. Additionally, components of occupational commitment were found to be differentially related to antecedents of organizational commitment (Irving, Coleman, & Cooper, 1997; Meyer et al., 1993). Blau (1987) investigated job scope, growth need strength and Protestant work ethic and found that his model of person-environment fit was useful for predicting job involvement, but not organizational commitment. He concluded that job involvement and organizational commitment can be operationalized as distinct constructs. This was an important finding because of the historical difficulties in defining organizational commitment and criticisms that organizational commitment does not exist as a construct. Or, rather, that it is nothing more than job involvement or the commitment to one's immediate work group or department. However, as cited in Irving et al. (1997), this is clearly not the case since Becker (1992) proposed that there are different foci of commitment which include commitment to the organization, workgroup, supervisors, and senior management. There have also been studies of union commitment (e.g., Fullagar & Barling, 1991). This does not mean that employees cannot be committed to more than one or all of these different elements. In fact, Lawler (1992) noted that organizations are composed of multiple collectives and that these collectives are often "nested" within one another so that, for instance, belonging to the work group automatically means belonging to the organization. Global and constituency-specific commitment were also investigated by Hunt & Morgan (1994) who concluded a hybrid conceptualization of organizational commitment may be in order because of the complex relationships between global and constituency specific commitments. Studies such as those described in this paragraph

have been instrumental in furthering the understanding of the organizational commitment construct and our ability to differentiate it from other related constructs.

Early studies of organizational commitment treated the concept as unidimensional in terms of conceptualization and measurement. Thus, the majority of research conducted to date has concentrated on one dimension (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Part of the reason for this one-sided approach to commitment lies in the instruments developed to measure the concept. Although there have been several measures of commitment employed in the literature, only the two most prevalent measures will be discussed in this study because they have generated the most research.

Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to measure organizational commitment. The OCQ has been used extensively over the years and has obtained fairly high reliability coefficients ranging from .84 to .92 (Angle & Perry, 1981; Cooke, 1997; Elloy & Flynn, 1998; Hutchinson, 1997; Mowday, Steers, & Porter 1979; Nauman, 1993; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Verdi, 1994). A problem inherent in the assessment of organizational commitment in these studies is that the OCQ has been found to measure predominantly affective commitment (Dunham et al., 1994). Since the studies utilizing the OCQ are only measuring one type of commitment, the inferences made by the investigators may be limited. For example, if an employee has a type of commitment other than affective, the OCQ is incapable of confirming or teasing out anything but affective commitment. Therefore, although researchers have been able to obtain a great deal of valuable

information through their use of the OCQ, they may not be able to tell the whole story regarding an individual's commitment toward the organization.

For instance, studies of organizational commitment have provided evidence suggesting that female managers tend to have lower organizational commitment than male managers, and consequently, a higher propensity to leave the organization (Rosin & Korabik 1991; 1995). Because these studies employed the OCQ to measure commitment, only the affective dimension could be measured. It is possible that the women sampled were exhibiting other types of organizational commitment which were not measured by the instrument employed in the studies. In the Rosin and Korabik (1991;1995) studies, demographic variables, family situations, and lack of alternatives were not examined. Findings from other studies suggest that these variables may be related to continuance commitment which is one of the three types of commitment recently identified in the literature (Dunham, et al., 1994; Ko, Price & Mueller, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Although a substantial amount of research had been conducted on organizational commitment, there were still problems regarding the existing definitions. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) proposed that although commitment represents a "psychological bond" that connects the employee to the organization, the nature of the bond can differ. The bond can take three distinct forms which were labeled identification, compliance, and internalization. Identification refers to the acceptance of organizational influence by the employee. Although there is a desire to maintain the satisfying relationship, the employee is able to respect the values of the organization without adopting them as his or her own. Compliance refers to the adoption of attitudes and behaviors in order to obtain specific

rewards. Internalization refers to the acceptance of organizational influence because the organization's attitudes and behaviors are congruent with those of the individual.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) proposed that an individual's psychological attachment to the organization can be composed of different combinations of the three forms. They further believed that each form of commitment could result in different behavioral consequences. O'Reilly and Chatman were able to demonstrate that compliance commitment was negatively related to prosocial behavior and positively related to turnover. Identification and internalization were negatively related to turnover intention and turnover, and positively related to prosocial behavior. High intercorrelations among identification and internalization have led to difficulties in using the measures developed. In order to address some of these difficulties, Caldwell, Chatman, and O'Reilly (1990) combined identification and internalization and labeled it normative commitment. However, the issues were not completely resolved. It has been suggested that compliance is not truly a type of commitment because it is positively related to turnover whereas any commitment would predict a negative relationship (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982 as cited in Meyer & Allen, 1997). Compliance commitment also appears to have an implicit element of coercion.

Meyer & Allen (1991) agreed with O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) that there are different components to the psychological attachment of employees to their organizations. They also hypothesized that the behavioral consequences of the different forms of commitment would vary. In order to test their own hypotheses regarding the forms of commitment, Allen and Meyer (1990) developed the Work Preference Inventory to

investigate the construct validity of different types of commitment. Three components of organizational commitment were identified. They were labeled continuance, affective, and normative. It is important to note that the label ascribed by Allen and Meyer to affective commitment corresponds to Caldwell and his colleague's (1990) label of normative commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) applied the different labels in order to acknowledge differences in the nature of the psychological state described in other definitions of commitment categories (as presented in Meyer & Allen, 1997 p. 12, table 1). From this point forward, the forms of commitment will be addressed based on the labels given by Allen and Meyer.

Affective Commitment

“Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they *want* to do so” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.67). Antecedents of affective commitment have been classified as organizational characteristics, personal characteristics, and work experiences.

Some support has been found for the influence of organizational variables on affective commitment. Dunham and his colleagues (1994) used the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Porter et al., 1974) and Allen and Meyer's (1990) Work Preference Inventory to investigate antecedents of the different types of commitment and found that affective commitment was positively correlated with participatory management practices, organizational dependability, and the five job dimensions

(autonomy, feedback, task identity, task significance and task variety) represented in the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Meyer and Allen (1995) supported these findings with findings from their own study indicating that employees' perceptions of work characteristics were related to their affective reactions to the organization.

Research on personal characteristics has examined demographic and dispositional variables. Meta-analyses have shown that relations between demographic variables and affective commitment are generally not strong or consistent (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). For instance, it is argued that any individual research findings can be better attributed to work characteristics and work experiences that happen to be linked to gender (i.e. studies conducted with samples that are predominantly male) rather than to gender, per se. There has been a significant correlation found between age and affective commitment even when such variables as tenure are controlled. These relationships have a number of implications. For example, older employees may have a better sense of what their values are and what they want from an organization than younger employees. It could also mean that they had their opportunity to "shop" for an organization earlier in life and have found a match for themselves. Relationships have also been detected between affective commitment and marital status (Elloy & Flynn, 1998). The evidence on dispositional variables is not as abundant as that on demographics although there is some evidence that employees with a strong work ethic show higher affective commitment (Buchanan, 1974 as cited in Meyer & Allen, 1997).

One of the reasons that employers are interested in studying commitment is that commitment is expected to be positively related to performance. Research on affective

commitment and work experiences has shown that, although researchers have reported a positive relation between affective commitment and some measures of performance such as dependability and initiative as rated by supervisors (Angle & Lawson, 1994; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989), this was not the case for all performance measures. In fact, measures of job performance focusing on organization and accomplishment as well as measures of judgment were not related to commitment (Angle & Lawson, 1994). Additionally, Angle and Lawson (1994) reported that commitment was not related to global performance measures. These findings are important because they help provide a realistic approach to the study of commitment.

Consequences of Affective Commitment

There is support for the person environment fit proposition made by the job characteristics model which, in this case, assumes that employees whose needs match the characteristics of the job will be more committed to the organization. The lack of affective commitment has been hypothesized to have various behavioral consequences in the work place. These consequences include absenteeism, turnover, and poor performance. Affective commitment has been significantly related inversely to voluntary absence from work (Meyer et. Al., 1993). As would be expected, the effect is somewhat diminished when voluntary and involuntary absences are pooled (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). In addition, both self-reported and independent measures of performance have been significantly related to organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1989). However, not all results are supportive as evidenced by findings reported by Ganster and Dwyer (1995) who found no relation between affective commitment and indicators of

performance. In another meta-analytic study conducted by Tett & Meyer (1993), turnover and turnover intentions were significantly negatively correlated with affective commitment.

Normative Commitment

“Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they *ought* to remain with the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.67). The antecedents of normative commitment have not been identified adequately. A feeling of obligation is believed to develop as a result of things the organization has done for the employee which are difficult to reciprocate and, therefore, create a sense of obligation. Examples include tuition reimbursement, financial or emotional support at a time of need, etc. However, aside from suggesting that socialization within the organization might influence normative commitment, researchers have not been able to provide much support for the antecedents investigated (Dunham, Grube & Castañeda, 1994). In Dunham et al’s. study, the antecedents investigated for normative commitment included commitment to co-workers and intent to remain in the organization. None of these variables were supported or appeared to be appropriate antecedents of normative commitment. Consequences of normative commitment have paralleled those of affective commitment in that normative commitment has been positively related to self-report measures of work performance (Meyer & Allen, 1997). A continuing problem reported with the measure of normative commitment is that it is highly correlated with affective commitment (Dunham, Grube & Castañeda, 1994). Given the sparse amount of research conducted on the normative

commitment component, it is difficult to assess exactly how it contributes to the prediction of commitment above and beyond that of the affective component.

Continuance Commitment

“Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they *need* to do so” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.67). The costs could be loss of benefits such as retirement plans, tenure, or other types of employee-oriented programs; costs could also be non-tangibles or psychological investments. Meyer & Allen (1984) examined the side-bet theory of motivation proposed by Becker (1960) and concluded that the theory had not been tested adequately in the past because it had only been used to measure one component of commitment, affective commitment. The side-bet proposition suggests that employees make side bets with the organization by which they are employed. Side bets refer to anything valuable that the employee has invested in an organization that would be lost if he or she were to leave the organization. These would include effort, time, or money. If side bets were indeed related to commitment, they had not been explored to their fullest extent. In fact, as was the case with the OCQ, Becker’s theory had only been measured using affective commitment. The underlying premise of continuance commitment is that employees remain with the organization because they do not want to lose their “investments”. Presumably, the more side bets an employee has made, the higher will be his or her continuance commitment. In addition to the side-bet aspect, continuance commitment has an underlying factor of lack of alternatives. This latter aspect assumes that another

component of continuance commitment is an employee's perception of a lack of alternate employment opportunities.

Dunham et al. (1994) hypothesized age and tenure to be antecedents of continuance commitment. These variables were treated as surrogates of investments made by the employees toward the organization, but no support was found for these variables as antecedents of continuance commitment. However, a two-factor solution was found for continuance commitment. The items that seemed to "hang together" to form the two factors were named Lack of Alternatives and Personal Sacrifice. Both factors appeared to be related to types of organizational investments one could expect from employees with family obligations. Dunham and his colleagues (1994) called for further research to explore the relationship of these components of continuance commitment to familial obligations. Their call for additional research is warranted considering the continuing changes in the demographics of the American work force in which a great number of employees are parents. It could be that, as the definition of continuance commitment implies, the employees have to be aware that they have certain investments in the organization which would be lost if they were to leave the organization. Parents may be more aware of those investments given that they are responsible for children and not just themselves.

The Meyer et al. (1993) study found a high degree of continuance commitment to the organization by members of the nursing occupation. More specifically, one might expect that nurses who have invested many years in school are more willing to be committed to the profession than first year students. This finding lends some support to

propositions which state that continuance commitment might stem from a sense of investment. Continuance commitment can be expressed toward a profession or an organization because the individual makes investments in both cases.

Consequences of Continuance Commitment

The relationship between continuance commitment and performance has not been satisfactorily established. In fact, Angle and Lawson (1994) found that continuance commitment was not significantly related to global measures of performance. These findings led the researchers to conclude that not only does the type of commitment count, but the type of performance also matters. Earlier reports by Popper and Lipshitz (1992) stated that continuance commitment was related to both normative and instrumental job values and extra-role behavior. This finding is one of the strongest indications for the consequences of continuance commitment presented in the literature. It suggests that continuance commitment may be related to instrumental motivation. Employees' instrumental values can influence continuance commitment if the individual's instrumental values and the instrumental rewards provided by the organization are congruent. This proposition is particularly important to the present study given that previous research has focused on affective commitment because it is believed to be the "good" type of commitment. It may well be that the different components presented by Meyer and Allen each serve a different purpose and that it is incorrect to blindly desire affective commitment at the expense of those who exhibit continuance commitment.

A point of interest is that as continuance commitment increases, affective and normative commitment decrease indicating that perhaps they are unable to exist on equal

levels (Meyer et al., 1993). This point is particularly important considering that most studies have used the OCQ which, as mentioned earlier, predominantly measures affective commitment. This would indicate that studies which have led to the conclusion that workers were not committed may be insufficient because the instrument utilized in those cases did not measure other types of commitment. For example, Mottaz (1988) reported that intrinsic motivation was a better determinant of commitment than extrinsic rewards. Unfortunately, the commitment measure used in this study only measured affective commitment. Therefore, the conclusions made may not be accurate. Furthermore, values can change as a result of needs. It is possible that the type of commitment exhibited by an individual in one situation, can change once that circumstance no longer exists.

The validation of three components of commitment has been an important advancement in the understanding of commitment as a construct because it highlights the importance of measuring more than one dimension of organizational commitment. Further research in this area will improve the ways we evaluate the attachment of employees to the organization. More importantly, the more information obtained on commitment, the easier it will be for organizations to provide opportunities for their employees to share organizational goals. Therefore, the information can be used as part of the selection and development process when employees are given promotional consideration.

For the purposes of this study, only continuance and affective commitment were examined given the expected relationships between these components and components of

motivational orientation. There is currently insufficient empirical evidence suggesting a relationship between normative commitment and motivational orientation. Affective commitment has received the most support in the literature and is the dimension of which we have the most information in terms of antecedents and consequences. Another reason for not examining normative commitment was that it is highly correlated with affective commitment and, therefore, may not show enough discriminant validity. In addition, unanswered questions remained regarding the antecedents of normative commitment (Dunham et al., 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Positive correlations between normative and affective commitment are consistent with previous research and might be explained by the fact that the two appear to have several common antecedents and be based on emotional attachment to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993; Jaros, 1997). Additionally, although normative commitment and continuance commitment showed modest positive correlations, affective commitment and continuance commitment showed a consistently negative relationship. It was, therefore, expected that if affective commitment is related to intrinsic motivation, continuance commitment may be related to extrinsic motivation. These relationships were addressed in this study.

The present study proposed to investigate different family circumstances in which personal sacrifices may be necessary to provide financial support for the family. The notion of personal sacrifices has been linked to continuance commitment by various researchers (Dunham et al. 1994; Elloy & Flynn, 1998; Jaros, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Parents who must provide food, shelter, and other necessities for their children are likely to feel responsible for their well-being and nurturing. Being the primary or sole

provider for one's family can often mean choosing jobs in organizations that can meet those demands. It is conceivable that an employee will be attracted to an organization that pays well or has generous vacation policies in the interest of providing for his or her family and spending time with them. Sometimes decisions to work at these organizations are made at the expense of taking a job that is more interesting. Another form of personal sacrifice is related to the sunken cost view presented earlier. Employees who have participated in an organization and have made investments in the organization may be more reluctant to leave. These investments may be reflected in time, work, and emotional investment in the organization's goals or monetary investments in retirement plans that would be lost if employment is terminated by the employee. Therefore, things and situations perceived as extrinsic rewards can be related to the type of personal attachment the employee perceives toward the organization.

There is also empirical support for the relationship between intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment. Research has indicated that workers who are intrinsically motivated have higher organizational commitment than individuals who value extrinsic factors (Butler & Vodanovich, 1992; Mottaz, 1988). Both studies, however, only measured affective commitment. Therefore, respondents may have been restricted from answering positively to other types of commitment. As stated earlier, new evidence supports the theory that there are three dimensions of the OC construct which include affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Therefore, there may be different ways for employees to express their desire to remain in an organization.

In general, organizational commitment appears to be correlated negatively with intention to turnover (Jaros, 1997; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Naumann, 1993; and Tett & Meyer, 1993). Although affective commitment has been identified as the strongest predictor of different facets of turnover intentions, researchers have found mixed evidence on the relationship between the different components of commitment and turnover intentions. Jaros (1997) collected data from a sample of engineering personnel and a sample of university students working full time in various organizations. He reported that the three components of commitment differed in the strengths of their correlations with turnover intentions. Consistent with Whitener and Walz (1993), Jaros found affective commitment to be a significant independent predictor of turnover intent, but neither continuance commitment nor normative commitment were identified as independent predictors of intent to quit.

Although continuance commitment and normative commitment were not identified as independent predictors of turnover intent, when continuance commitment was high, and normative commitment was low, there was a significant negative correlation between normative commitment and turnover intent. In addition, when the lack of alternatives and personal sacrifice components of continuance commitment were treated as separate constructs, a significant relationship with turnover intent was found for personal sacrifice but not for the lack of alternatives component (Jaros, 1997). From these findings, one could infer that the lack of alternatives component of continuance commitment acts as a suppressor variable in the relationship with turnover intent or does

not have sufficient variability. Therefore, one may obtain more meaningful results if the components are analyzed separately.

More recent findings reported by Shaffer and Harrison (1998) suggest that affective commitment and normative commitment are predictive of the withdrawal cognitions of expatriates. However, continuance commitment did not emerge as a significant predictor. Shaffer and Harrison did not partition continuance commitment into two factors (personal sacrifice and lack of alternatives), but treated it as one as originally intended by Meyer and Allen. Not considering both underlying factors could explain the mixed findings in previous studies where some researchers identify continuance commitment as a significant predictor of turnover intent, others find a weak relationship, and still others find no evidence.

Turnover intentions are considered an important outcome of commitment (Cohen & Hudecek, 1993). Given the relationships between motivation and commitment and, in turn, commitment and turnover intentions, commitment may act as a mediator of motivation and turnover intent. A mediator is a variable that explains the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Because of the evidence presented on commitment, it would be beneficial to treat commitment as a mediator variable when we examine its effects on intent to leave. Some people are more likely to leave an organization than others; however, if the likelihood of leaving varies according to their level and/or type of commitment, researchers will have better insight into the concept of commitment. Organizations can benefit from this knowledge by addressing the issue through

organizational initiatives, especially once they identify individuals who are most likely to be affected. The following chapter is a review of the working parents literature and it establishes the link between the major areas of research addressed in the present study.

Chapter 3

Working Parents

Despite of the vast amount of research conducted on organizational commitment and work motivation, little research has attempted to explore how these concepts pertain to working mothers, in particular. Considering that working mothers constitute a large percentage of the workforce, organizations would be better able to respond to issues that affect working parents in general once those issues are identified. Although great strides have been made in organizational programs available to working parents, issues of motivation and commitment require further attention.

A great deal of the literature published on working mothers is anecdotal and the literature on working single fathers is almost non-existent. High profile and celebrity predicaments serve as reminders for the general public that the financial and social circumstances of working parents are not limited to the poor, but can vary widely (Hancock, Wingert, Foote, King, Springen, & Namuth, 1995). Moreover, marital status can change so that parents can be in various categories during different stages in their lives. Therefore, parents may be married, divorced, widowed, separated, or never married (Suro, 1992). They also come from different socio-economic and ethnic backgrounds and have different religious beliefs. The common issue is that the number of mothers is rapidly increasing in the work place and that there is a paucity of information available pertaining to their needs as a group. The rapid and steady increase of working mothers has prompted researchers to investigate different aspects and implications of employed men and women for organizations. The following section will discuss the major areas

and research findings that investigators have explored as they pertain to working parents. Researchers have primarily concentrated on three areas of study: (1) well-being of children whose parents work outside the home, (2) work-family conflict and, to a lesser extent, (3) organizational concerns.

Children's well-being

The majority of the early research regarding working parents focused on effects of the mother's employment status on the children's well-being and self-perception (Alessandri, 1992; Amato & Keith, 1991; Burden, 1986; Frone, Barnes, & Farrell, 1994; Smith, 1981; Thernlund & Samuelsson, 1993). For instance, Smith (1981) reviewed literature which included effects of maternal employment on pre-schoolers, working mothers and school-aged children, and working mothers' identity development and life satisfaction. Smith concluded that there was not enough evidence to determine whether or not parental work status resulted in detrimental effects on pre-school-aged children. Smith also reported conflicting findings when examining the effects of the mother's employment status on school-aged children and on women's identity development, life satisfaction, and stress relations.

In another study dealing with children of working mothers, Alessandri (1992) found maternal work status to positively affect the self-esteem, scholastic competence and self-perceptions of 10 to 12 year-olds. Pre-teenaged children are at a stage when they are grappling with their own identity and, thus, are likely to be cognitively aware of the significance of work and be affected by the presence of a role model. Although studies of this nature have been helpful in dealing with policy-capturing and other governmental

concerns, they have not been extremely useful to organizations. The utility of these studies is limited due to several reasons. First, parents rarely have the option not to work. The days of “Ozzie and Harriet” no longer exist, forcing mothers to return to the workforce shortly after they have given birth. Second, these studies are most often published in professional journals where their accessibility to organizations is not optimal. For instance, more people are likely to read an article in *Fortune* or *HRMagazine* than in the *Journal of Divorce & Remarriage*. Therefore, issues that are published in the trade magazines are more widely read and likely to impact organizational reactions to parental needs and expectations. Third, the issues studied are primarily focused on the children themselves and do not provide sufficient information regarding solutions leading to organizational response. Thus, studies which provide organizations with information regarding the workforce and possible solutions are likely to be welcome contributions.

Work-family conflict

The second area of focus pertaining to parental employment issues is work-family conflict and, consequently, measures that are more closely tied to the bottom line. Work-family conflict is generally concerned with stressors to the employee and general solutions. Research in this area has also included stress and role strain. Role strain occurs when an individual has to perform a role that is incompatible with another role. Work-family conflict is a type of interrole conflict in which demands from the work role interfere with demands from the family role and vice versa (Thomas & Ganster, 1995, p.7). Kelly and Voydanoff (1985) reported work environment and satisfaction

characteristics to be among the most significant predictors of job strain for employed mothers. Job tension was also related to the number of hours worked. In particular, most of the variance in job tension was explained by satisfaction with the number of hours worked and the type of work schedule (Kelly & Voydanoff, 1985, p. 372). These findings were partially supported by Shinn, Wong, Simko, and Ortiz-Torres (1989) who found that parental feelings of well-being were related to perceived work-schedule flexibility. General benefits of flexible work schedules have also been reported by other researchers (Ralston, 1989).

Consistent with these findings, Thomas and Ganster (1995) reported that when scheduling practices were perceived as flexible by employees, there was a significant reduction in the report of somatic complaints. The authors concluded that family-supportive interventions play an important role in employees' perception of control which, in turn, affects role strain and work-family conflict. Perhaps of more importance in the work-family research, is the finding that specific organizational approaches minimize role conflict and its effects upon employees. In order to investigate this research question, Thomas and Ganster (1995) sought to determine whether or not the presence of dependent care referral services and dependent care services had an effect on measures of blood pressure and cholesterol level of respondents. They found no support for their hypothesis. The reason for this result was believed to be due to the lack of such referral services in a majority of the organizations studied. However, there may be alternative explanations for this finding. Perhaps cholesterol level and blood pressure are simply not influenced by the presence or absence of dependent care services, whereas

somatic complaints can be more directly linked to work schedules. There are other variables like diet, exercise, and family history that affect blood pressure and cholesterol which were not included in the study. Thus, researchers should be aware of variables which can confound their data and render their findings difficult to interpret.

Organizational Concerns

One of the main concerns of organizations today is the ability to retain qualified employees. If organizations can identify values of employees and, in turn, offer them incentives that are commensurate with those needs, they ought to be instrumental in increasing organizational commitment and decreasing turnover rates of valued, qualified employees. Shellenbarger (1992) reported that implementation of flexible schedules at GE allowed the organization to retain all the employees who took advantage of the newly implemented policy. In addition, an earlier report by Shellenbarger (1991) concluded that employees are willing to put family first and forego promotions that interfere with their quality of work-life vis a vis family issues. Her findings were not restricted to women. There is additional evidence that men are also placing greater emphasis on work-family issues than in previous years (Seligmann, Rosenberg, Wingert, Hannah, & Annin, 1992). Given that family is having such an impact on employees, it is imperative that issues affecting the bottom line be examined more closely as they pertain to employed parents. Organizations should know how motivational orientation and commitment to the organization is affected by marital status and familial needs. The following sections present reviews of the current literature available on working parents regarding issues of work motivation and organizational commitment.

Working parents and motivation

Researchers have shown a fair amount of interest in the motivation of working parents. Unfortunately, the majority of the studies have been conducted on married mothers resulting in the neglect of married fathers and single parents in general. Burriss (1991) surveyed 164 working mothers. Of these, 32 participated in in-depth interviews. Burriss reported that professional and managerial mothers gave their work higher priority in their lives and allowed work to intrude in their family lives. Conversely, working class women tended to give their families the highest priority in their lives and family concerns were more likely to intrude upon work than work upon the family. This intrusion was mostly due to what Burriss termed structural disadvantages such as child care issues and inflexible work schedules. According to Burriss, single mothers, particularly working class single mothers were dominated by the structural impact of divorce, role overload, and anxiety. She concluded that economic necessity was more salient for working class mothers, particularly single mothers, than was the case for professional / managerial and middle class mothers. These latter groups of women appeared to be more motivated by a "need to succeed" than by money. Unfortunately, the lack of an established measure of motivation limits the utility of these findings. Burriss' study was descriptive in nature and relied on open-ended questions that were later content-coded. As a result, the reported findings were based on descriptive statistical analyses. Important variables such as education and income were not controlled. It is certainly plausible that these variables are likely to impact child care arrangements and schedule flexibility.

Another attempt to study working parents was made by Lambert (1991). Lambert investigated intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, and job involvement of men and women workers. The study predominantly sought to explain sex differences through the use of the expectation hypothesis and the value hypothesis. The expectation hypothesis posits that although women and men find the same job features equally attractive, women have lower expectations of the work and, thus, are more satisfied than men when differences in job conditions are controlled. The value hypothesis posits that job satisfaction depends less on whether or not one receives what is expected, and more on whether one receives what one values. Thus, the reason women appear as satisfied as men is due to the fact that they value certain job conditions more than men, and other job conditions less than men.

The results did not support the expectation hypothesis. Once job conditions were controlled, men and women reported comparable levels of both job satisfaction and job involvement. In addition, Lambert concluded that women's jobs tend to be less stressful and less intrinsically rewarding than jobs held predominantly by men. The women's jobs are, however, more socially rewarding in terms of friendships fostered. Lambert suggested that high intrinsic motivation demonstrated by married women could be attributed to their lesser responsibility for supporting the family. Thus, they can afford to be less extrinsically motivated than men.

Lambert found support for the value hypothesis. Women were found to be more responsive to social rewards while men were more responsive to career-related rewards. Lambert concluded that men and women may place higher values on those job

characteristics which help them fulfill their different roles as primary source of support and primary caregiver, respectively. Lefkowitz (1994) investigated sex differences in job satisfaction and work values. He controlled the spurious effects of systematic differences in the jobs held and the rewards received by women in comparison to men. Lefkowitz (1994) found that when various job characteristics (e.g., occupational level and income) and person variables (e.g., educational level and age) were controlled, sex related differences disappear. This was especially true for differences in income level. He concluded that men and women react similarly to a comparable work environment. In a more recent study, Bennett (1999) supported Lefkowitz's (1994) findings in a study where income, occupational level, and age were controlled. Although Bennett (1999) collected data on marital and parental statuses, she reported no analyses on that data. Neither the parental nor the marital status variables were explored in relation to the other variables studied. This trend in research is common unless the purpose of the research is specifically geared toward parental issues.

Lambert (1991) examined parental status and found no evidence suggesting that the presence of young children in the household either interfered with or promoted the ability of women or men workers to find their work satisfying, involving, or intrinsically motivating. This finding is consistent with Hanson and Sloane (1992) who reported no difference in levels of job satisfaction for individuals who had young children regardless of the amount of time they worked or their marital status.

An interesting finding of Lambert's study was a negative relationship between wives' income and husbands' job involvement. An obvious conclusion would be that the

more the wife earns, the better the husband's ability to focus at work. However, it is not clear that this conclusion would be accurate considering that the study made general comparisons and not matched pair comparisons. In addition, Lambert used data gathered with the Quality of Employment Survey in 1977. The role of women in the workplace has changed within the last 20 years in terms of earnings, education, and occupations. Education level and earnings of women and men have achieved greater parity within the last 20 years. Finally, the occupational desegregation of the sexes is much improved so that comparisons of work variables should be more easily made.

The work motivations of mothers with preschool children were examined by Cotton, Antill and Cunningham (1989). An interesting feature of this study was that it included women working part-time and full-time, full-time homemakers, and women seeking to re-enter the workforce. The women were asked open-ended questions regarding the reasons for their desire to work or not to work outside the home. They were also asked to rank order a list of reasons provided by the investigators. Attachment to the labor force was measured by using the percentage of time women worked in the labor force since the birth of their first child. Three categories were developed, low, moderate, and high. Women with high attachment reported multifaceted and less specific reasons for working. For example, they cited both intrinsic and monetary reasons. Women with moderate attachment had responses similar to those in the high attachment category. Women with low attachment, however, tended to cite monetary need as the primary incentive to work. In general, women with high attachment were more likely to give non-financial reasons for working while women with low attachment were more likely to give

financial reasons to work. It is important to point out, however, that there is probably a confound because women with low attachment were also more likely to be at lower level jobs where money would be of greater concern. Women with moderate attachment were equally likely to give either financial or non-financial reasons. Cotton and her colleagues suggest that while extrinsic rewards may provide the initial impetus to work, intrinsic rewards become increasingly important as work is experienced. It can be argued that this logic may also be true of situational factors or changes in life stages. For example, the necessity or desire to work may change if there is a marriage, divorce, death or as the children grow older.

One of the major concerns of this study was the measurement of attachment given the sample utilized. Attachment was measured using the percentage of time women spent in the labor force. Such a surrogate measure appears inappropriate for use with women who do not work. It seems increasingly unlikely that a person who does not work would be attached to work or an organization so the idea of measuring the attachment of full-time homemakers does not make sense because they do not have an organization or job to which they could be attached. Additionally, their measure of motivation consisted of asking working women why they work. Homemakers were asked to provide reasons why they would work. Finally, the conclusions made by Cotton et al. are somewhat suspect given their non-established measures and operationalization of their constructs.

Thus far, the studies discussed have predominantly examined working married parents. Some researchers, albeit small in numbers, have attempted to extend their investigations to the understanding of single parents.

Single Parents at Work

Although there has been an increase in the amount of research done on working women and working mothers, few studies have been conducted on single parents in the work place. When reviewing research in this area, one realizes that, unlike other areas of study, there are no established theories to examine or test. Instead, there are a lot of speculative findings which tend to address a very small segment of the issues facing single parents in general. Thus, the difficulty of studying working parents is compounded when researchers attempt to investigate parents who are single. However, the only way to introduce new theories is to develop hypotheses and test them. Several researchers have investigated various aspects of single parenthood (Burden, 1986; Burris, 1991; Hanson & Sloane, 1992). Unfortunately, a great deal of work remains before any real strides can be made in this area.

An early study conducted by Burden (1986) investigated family responsibilities, support networks, and emotional well-being. Although the sample size in this study was small, the researcher reported significant findings on a number of variables. Burden (1986) reported no significant differences among marital and parental categories in job motivation, reported job performance, or days absent from work. In her study, single and married women parents scored slightly higher on job satisfaction than single and married fathers, suggesting a sex difference consistent with that reported by Lambert (1991). Another finding was that absenteeism for single mothers was not greater than that of married mothers. This could be looked at from two fairly different perspectives. Single mothers, having only one income, can less afford to take time off work which could lead

to not getting compensated for the day or put them in a precarious position with their employers. The researcher did not differentiate between the ages of the children. This differentiation could lead to different findings because younger children tend to get ill more frequently and generally require more care than older children. However, female single parents were more prone to increased depression and decreased life satisfaction. Burden concluded that single women parents maintain high levels of performance at work at the expense of their own physical and emotional well-being. Several issues should be noted concerning Burden's study. Motivation was assessed as a single faceted construct with a measure consisting of five items. This would prevent the measure from detecting differences in motivational orientation. In addition, the sample included 10 fathers, of which, only two had primary custody. These issues lead to questions regarding the generalizability of Burden's findings.

Another study which included a sample of single parents was conducted by Mahler (1994). The study compared agency and desire for money of single and married working parents. Agentic behavior refers to establishing desired relationships to goal objects in order to actively change the environment. Individuals with high agency are better able to restructure situational demands of heavy time and energy constraints under pressure to perform (Mahler, 1994). The agentic self-concept was measured using a masculinity and masculinity/ femininity scale. Results indicated that single parents had marginally higher agency than married parents. Single parents valued extrinsic rewards more than married parents and men valued extrinsic rewards more than women. When family income was introduced as a covariate, the main effect for marital status

disappeared indicating that the difference in work attachments between single and married parents resulted from their income differences. Therefore, the differences in work attachments between single and married parents were based on perceived or actual economic needs. These findings are similar to those made by Lefkowitz (1994) who reported that sex differences disappear when income is controlled in the statistical analyses of the data. These findings are a step in the right direction, but it is important to note that Mahler's sample was based on divorced and separated parents. Never-married parents were excluded from the sample. Divorced and separated parents may face economic issues that are somewhat different from those faced by single parents.

A more recent study by Elloy and Flynn (1998) investigated job involvement and organizational commitment among dual-income and single-income families. The study was conducted at two different sites of a manufacturing company. The sample consisted of approximately 89% males and 11% females. Levels of organizational commitment and job involvement were found to be similar for dual wage earner families with children and dual wage earner families without children. The primary finding of this study was that, at one site, members of single wage earner families with children reported higher levels of organizational commitment than members of dual wage earner families.

Although this study investigated single and dual wage earners, their subjects were part of a couple. These findings, therefore, do not reveal anything new or interesting regarding the issues facing single working parents. However, if single wage earners are more committed than dual wage earners, it may well be that some of this applies to single parents. It is important to keep in mind, however, that single parents, unlike married

single wage earners, do not necessarily have a support network or someone reliable at home with the children. Another point that should be made is the fact that the majority of Elloy and Flynn's samples consisted of highly educated males. Although education appeared to have no different effects, the lowest educated people in their samples possessed some kind of post-high school technical training. Based on education alone, one would expect that there would be fairly high levels of commitment and job involvement due to the choices and investments made by individuals of varying educational levels (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Finally, the instrument employed in the measurement of organizational commitment was Mowday et al.'s (1979) questionnaire which, as mentioned in the previous chapter, only measures the affective component of organizational commitment. The failure to measure more than one component of organizational commitment limits our ability to gain insight regarding interactions that may exist between organizational commitment and other examined variables. Another concern about this study was that, although the samples were highly educated, there were very few employment opportunities available in the general area of the plants from which the samples were drawn. Therefore, if workers had no alternatives, they may well have learned to "be committed." One could speculate that the findings would be quite interesting if the researchers had measured intent to leave. The variable most commonly measured as an outcome of organizational commitment is intention to leave the organization.

Research has already shown that commitment is negatively correlated with intention to leave an organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). As mentioned at the end of the

organizational commitment chapter, intentions to leave are the strongest predictors of turnover behaviors (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Consequently, it is important to understand which variables affect an employee's intention to leave an organization. Research findings suggest that situation-centered differences are predictive of men and women managers' intention to leave an organization (Rosin & Korabik, 1995). Consistent with their findings, Miller and Wheeler (1992) found that sex differences regarding intent to leave disappear when job satisfaction is controlled in the analysis. An earlier study found that workplace variables play an important role in women's withdrawal behavior (Rosin & Korabik, 1991) and that intent to leave is not merely due to non-work factors such as the desire or need to become full-time homemakers. If employers have the ability to discern variables which make a difference for their valued employees' intention to leave the organization, they will be better able to circumvent those withdrawal decisions by correcting problems or addressing the employees' issues of concern.

Summary

When attempting to improve outcomes at work, employers often implement new initiatives and programs they presume are beneficial to their employees. However, all programs are not created equal nor do they have the same impact on all members of the target populations. It is reasonable to expect that different people will not respond to organizational initiatives in a similar manner. Employees respond to organizational programs based on their needs and values. When employee requisites and organizational characteristics are congruent, employees are likely to perform better and express more job satisfaction or, at least, are likely to stay longer than employees whose needs are not

congruent with those of the organization (Downey, Hellriegel, & Slocum, Jr., 1975).

Organizations can use information regarding employee needs to direct organizational strategies for recruitment, retention, and dealing with quality of work life issues in general. Such information can be obtained through studies of motivation.

The preceding chapters reviewed literature pertaining to work motivation, organizational commitment, intent to leave the organization, and how these constructs relate to working parents. Although these areas had been studied in the "general work population," there had been no investigations on how these variables related to one another and their possible interactions. A relationship had already been established among intrinsic motivation and affective commitment. No such relationships had been explored using extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment variables as they pertain to either the general population or sub-populations such as working parents. Additionally, marital status and other person variables that were likely to be important determinants of the type of motivation exhibited by employees had not been considered. I believe that the specific use of a sample of working parents to examine types of work motivation and components of organizational commitment provides an excellent opportunity to study the relationship among these variables. The work motivation of single parents is likely to differ from that of married parents. Single parents may be more extrinsically motivated than married parents due to their family responsibilities. A person with the task of being a sole provider for his or her family is probably more cognizant of external and monetary rewards than one who shares the role with a partner. Yet, this type of research has not been conducted.

There may be several reasons why, historically, there has been a lack of literature on single parents whether female or male. One reason may be that single parents were not as prevalent as they are in today's society. Also, single mothers were more stigmatized in previous decades which led to their being hidden or ignored by the general population. In addition, court rulings have historically favored women where child custody is concerned. Changes are evident by the number of fathers who now receive primary custody of their children. Finally, the lack of research may simply be due to the extraordinary number of variables that require attention when working parents are studied (e.g. financial issues, flexibility, number of children, ages of children, job level, and parental age and educational levels). Addressing all of these variables is not an easy task. In fact, trying to study every one of these issues in any single study is unrealistic and would not do them justice. However, in light of the number of single working parents in today's society, it seems essential to investigate some of those variables that have not been addressed with respect to single and married working parents. Regardless of whether or not employees are parents, organizations rely on them to be productive at work and, understanding circumstances that affect their employees can help organizations provide an environment that fosters good performance.

An examination of marital status and other person variables in the context of a theoretical framework including motivation and commitment is likely to provide employers with a broader picture of variables affecting employee motivation, commitment, and intent to remain in their organization. That is the major goal of the present study.

Chapter 4

Problems and Hypotheses

The present study investigates and furthers our understanding of motivational differences between working married and single parents. The study groups parents based on marital status and focuses on motivation and various demographic variables to determine their relationship to commitment and intention to leave.

Although research has been conducted in areas of motivation, commitment, and parental issues, the associations among these variables warranted further attention, as well as their joint effects on relevant dependent variables. Therefore, this research examines marital status and motivation of parents in the workforce to determine how marital status and other person characteristics (e.g., sex, age, education, occupation, and financial circumstances, etc.) influence commitment to the organization and desire to maintain membership in a particular organization. The relationship between motivation and commitment is affected by employee characteristics. Therefore, the relationship between motivation and commitment is more complex than it initially appears.

The majority of the research conducted on organizational commitment and work motivation does not consider how specific populations such as working parents may be differentially affected (Amabile et al., 1994). Although some studies have attempted to explore the motivation of working parents, much of the research has failed to study differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. For example, both Burden (1986) and Lambert (1991), investigated motivation; however, neither researcher truly measured extrinsic motivation. In addition, the possible interactions of motivation and commitment

were not examined in these studies.

Dunham et al. (1994) suggested that family obligations may be important determinants of commitment. Dunham et al. suggested that Allen & Meyer's (1991) organizational commitment scales provide a good vehicle to test the relationship between family obligations and commitment. The continuance commitment sub-scales of Personal Sacrifice and Lack of Alternatives are believed to tap into issues that may be most salient to working parents. Witt (1988) reported that breadwinners were significantly more satisfied with their pay and their opportunities for promotion and thus perceived a more favorable reward system in the organization than non-breadwinners. Although Witt's sample consisted solely of married women, he concludes that the family status of employees may be an important variable in accounting for variance in organizational behavior and for identifying issues particularly salient to female employees. Witt's conclusion may be partially correct; however, it is difficult to completely support his conclusion because his sample did not include single mothers. Moreover, to research family status independently of gender, a more complete sample should include married and single fathers. Recent reports provide information on the growing number of single parents in the workforce (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1998).

In 1990 Goff, Mount, and Jamison reported that two thirds of single mothers were employed. More recent figures show that the number of single mothers working is as high as 75 percent (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1998). In spite of the increasing participation of men in childrearing tasks, the bulk of the responsibility continues to fall on the mother or single male or female parent (Shellenbarger, 1991). Considering the

number of single and married parents in the work force and the lack of integrated information available on these populations, additional research is necessary to clarify issues of motivation, commitment, and intent to leave as they pertain to working parents. In particular, the number of single working parents, as a group, is increasing (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1998). Working single parents are a special population with needs that go beyond those of the general work force. One characteristic that makes them special is that single parents tend to be the sole support of the family in contrast to married working parents who are likely to be part of a dual-earner couple and can usually count on their partners for added financial support.

In an age when the most qualified candidate may well be a single parent, organizations are better served when they include rather than exclude this relatively large segment of the population. One can make a reasonable assumption that in order to recruit and retain qualified employees who are parents, organizations must take a proactive approach to issues that are of importance to this large proportion of the workforce (Lambert, 1991). Issues that affect single working parents are likely to influence their relationship with the organization. It is therefore necessary to understand the relationship of single parents to the organization and whether single working parents are influenced by issues that affect organizational outcomes.

The present study can serve as a starting point for investigating differences that exist between single parents and married parents in the workplace. It is hoped that this research will lead to more studies that focus on both single mothers and fathers. The least research has been conducted on single fathers, as reported by Hall (1990) and Greif &

Bailey (1990).

Lambert's (1991) finding that working married mothers tend to be intrinsically motivated while married fathers tend to be extrinsically motivated may be generalizable to single parents. Lambert stated that the fathers in her study had to be more extrinsically motivated because they were the primary wage earners. Single parents are often the primary wage earners, which suggests that they too may be as extrinsically motivated as married fathers, if not more so. Recall that there is a choice factor presented by Staw (1972) which may affect the intrinsic motivation of persons who feel compelled to carry out certain responsibilities. Married parents are likely to have more flexibility in the type of work they choose than single parents, who most often do not have the economic flexibility to choose less lucrative work. Thus, working single parents can be considered a special population with economic needs that are greater than those of married mothers who are part of a dual-earner couple.

If the best way to motivate an employee is by offering the employee what he or she perceives as valuable, individual circumstances can play an important role in determining that which is motivating. Previous literature (Lambert, 1991) has stated that married working fathers are more extrinsically motivated than married working mothers because of their status as primary wage-earners. To further explore Lambert's finding, the present study extends the reasoning to circumstances where there is only one wage earner. If the issue is a matter of one's economic situation, it is expected that being a sole wage earner will be related to extrinsic motivation for both men and women. Parents who are not the sole wage-earners (such as members of a dual-earner couple) may be

more intrinsically motivated because they can leave the job more readily than someone who has no other means of support. The difference in types of motivation may well affect the type of commitment an employee exhibits. As discussed by Staw (1972), attributions of internal and external motivation are made by the individual and are dependent on different situational factors. Therefore, the effect of motivation on commitment can be expected to vary depending on these situational factors.

Commitment plays an important role in the turnover intentions of employees. Therefore, employers should be interested in obtaining information regarding the extent to which their employees are committed to the organization. Results from various studies indicate that organizational commitment is correlated negatively with turnover intentions (Naumann, 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1997), suggesting that if an organization finds ways of increasing employee commitment, the employees will be less likely to want to leave the organization. Although many companies are downsizing, there remains a need for organizations to retain the most qualified workers in order to remain successful, competitive, and maintain market share. When making retention decisions, organizations can use commitment as one of their criteria. However, since there are different aspects of commitment, careful analysis of the construct is in order.

Previous measures of commitment have not fully captured the different components of the construct (Mottaz, 1988). Affective commitment and continuance commitment should be further examined using working parents, who have more responsibilities than the average employee, and therefore, have additional reasons for maintaining organizational membership. This may allow researchers to relate different

personal circumstances to the type of commitment exhibited by employees. Although affective commitment has been linked to intrinsic motivation (Dunham et al, 1994), no such relationship has been established between continuance commitment and extrinsic motivation. Based on generalizations from previous research, it may be that continuance commitment is related to extrinsic motivation. If people exhibit other than affective commitment, organizations should understand these types of commitment so they may enhance it to the mutual benefit of the employee and the organization. Finally, if commitment is related to different circumstances, the type of commitment may change as the circumstances change. Thus, commitment should not be considered stagnant or permanent, but ought to be regarded as a characteristic that is malleable and subject to change. In order to explore these relationships, the following hypothesis was posited:

Hypothesis 1: For both married and single parents, components of continuance commitment (commitment due to perceived Lack of Alternatives and commitment due to Personal Sacrifice) and Affective commitment will mediate the relationship between the independent variables (education, sex, age, occupation, number of children, perceived financial need, calculated financial need, primary wage earner, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation) and Intent to Leave.

Lambert (1991), found that male parents were more extrinsically motivated than female parents. A proposition of this study is that single parents of both sexes will be more extrinsically motivated while married parents will be more intrinsically motivated regardless of other demographic variables. In addition, Dunham et al. (1994) found that individuals who perceived themselves as having a lack of alternatives and those concerned with family-related issues were more likely to show high continuance commitment compared to those who were not in similar circumstances. Extending the rationale that need fulfillment plays a major role in the type of rewards (intrinsic,

extrinsic) sought by individuals and, given that there are different components of commitment which appear to be related to different personality or situational characteristics (Meyer et al., 1993), the following hypotheses are posited:

Hypothesis 2(a): The effect of extrinsic motivation on commitment due to perceived Lack of Alternatives is greater for single parents than for married parents.

Hypothesis 2(b): The effect of extrinsic motivation on commitment due to Personal Sacrifice is greater for single parents than for married parents.

Hypothesis 2(c): The effect of intrinsic motivation on Affective commitment is greater for married parents than for single parents.

Previous researchers have reported that intrinsic motivation is positively correlated with affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Ko et al., 1997). No such effect has been reported for relationships among extrinsic motivation and affective commitment or between intrinsic motivation and components of continuance commitment. Based on these findings, the following hypotheses are posited:

Hypothesis 3(a): For both single and married parents, there is no effect of extrinsic motivation on affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3(b): For both single and married parents, there is no effect of intrinsic motivation on commitment due to perceived Lack of Alternatives.

Hypothesis 3(c): For both groups, there is no effect of intrinsic motivation on commitment due to Personal Sacrifice.

Meta-analytic review evidence reports positive relations between organizational tenure and organizational commitment (Matthieu & Zajac, 1990). Previous research has also shown an inverse relationship between intention to leave and both forms of organizational commitment (Tett & Meyer, 1993). In order to provide additional support for these previous findings, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 4: All forms of organizational commitment (affective, commitment due to perceived Lack of Alternatives, and commitment due to Personal Sacrifice) negatively affect intention to leave. The higher the commitment, the lower the intention to leave.

Finally, Burris (1991) has suggested that women who reported high work attachment were more likely to report that their reason for working was predominantly based on intrinsic motivation. Additionally, occupational level is related to organizational commitment because of the investments employees usually make in order to be promoted (Amabile et al., 1994). There are also differences in the amount of flexibility and perks, as employees at higher levels tend to enjoy more autonomy and stand to lose more if employment is terminated. Consequently, the following hypotheses are posited:

Hypothesis 5(a): Occupational level has a positive effect on affective commitment.

Hypothesis 5(b): Occupational level has a positive effect on commitment due to Personal Sacrifice.

Hypothesis 5(c): Occupational level has a negative effect on commitment due to perceived Lack of Alternatives.

A point made earlier in this paper was that employees who are highly educated may be intrinsically motivated because they have dedicated so much time and effort toward their education. In order to test this proposition, the following hypotheses are posited:

Hypothesis 6(a): Education level has a positive effect on Affective commitment.

Hypothesis 6(b): Education level has a negative effect on commitment due to perceived Lack of alternatives.

Hypothesis 6(c): Education level has a positive effect on commitment due to Personal sacrifice.

Chapter 5

Method

Data Collection Procedure

The participants in this study were working parents who worked full time outside of their home, were not self-employed and had at least one child under the age of 18. The exclusive use of full time employees was expected to prevent introduction of confounds that could be problematic when part-time employees are used. Age 18 was chosen because it is the age when children are considered adults. This age range is also consistent with the cut-off age of previous working parent studies (e.g., Cotton et al., 1989; Lambert, 1991; Burris, 1991). The participants belonged to one of two groups: married living with working spouse/significant other, or single not living with another adult who shared financial responsibility for the children. For the purposes of this study, single working parents were defined as men or women who were widowed, divorced, or never married who had sole or primary custody of at least one child under 18 years of age.

IRB approval was obtained prior to data collection. Participation was voluntary and complete confidentiality was assured to participants. Questionnaire survey data were collected via paper administration and the Internet.

Paper Administration. Packets of the survey were distributed at three churches, four day-care centers, and through personal contacts. In addition, a small number were administered through the undergraduate subject pool of a four-year college. The survey was accompanied by a stamped envelope addressed to the researcher at a post office box

for easy return. A total of 1200 paper surveys were distributed and 272 were returned. Of these, 5 were discarded because they did not contain the demographic information necessary to place the respondent in the appropriate group. A response rate was calculated at 23% for the paper surveys.

Internet. Information advertising the study was e-mailed to Parent Websites. This information was subsequently posted on the website or forwarded to distribution lists. The survey was accessed two hundred and twenty times on the Internet. A total of 124 surveys were completed on-line resulting in a response rate of approximately 56%. It must be noted, however, that there is no way of knowing the exact response rate for the surveys on-line because visitors could access the survey repeatedly. Only complete data were retained. The total sample consisted of 292 participants in the married parents group and 99 participants in the single parents group.

Participants.

A total of 391 working parents participated in this study. Table 1 contains the demographics of participants categorized by marital status. Sixty-six percent of the participants were female whereas 34% were male. Seventy-five percent reported being married compared to 25% who reported single status. The age ranged from 16 to 57 years with an average age of 37 years. The average family income reported was \$63,000. The statistical analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows, version 8.0 (1997). The model analyses was performed with the Amos program for structural equation modeling and path analysis, version 4.0 (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1997). The first step of the data analyses was to run frequencies and obtain descriptive statistics on all of the

measures to identify missing data, outliers, out of range responses, and perform recodes.

Descriptive statistics are reported in Tables 1 and 2.

Measures

Income (Total Family Income)

This measure of income was calculated by using the midpoint of the household income range (See Appendix D, demographic item #15) reported by the participant. The higher the income, the less the inferred financial need.

Perceived Financial Need

Perceived financial need was measured using the “Worry” scale used in a subjective assessment of income and expenses by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. An item was added to the scale to ascertain concerns pertaining to childcare expenses. (See Appendix D, items #47-63). Perceived financial need uses a 5-point likert-type scale where 1 “never worry” 2 “worry a little” 3 “worry sometimes” 4 worry a lot” 5 “worry all the time”. The higher the score on this item, the higher the perceived need.

Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic Motivation was measured using the 15-item intrinsic motivation scale in the Work Preference Inventory (Amabile, 1994 alpha=.82). (See Appendix D, items # 16, 18, 20, 21, 22(R), 24, 26, 27(R), 30, 33, 36, 39, 40, 41, 43).

Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic Motivation was measured using the 15-item extrinsic motivation scale in the Work Preference Inventory (Amabile, 1994, alpha=.76). (See Appendix D, items # 14 (R), 15, 17, 19, 23, 25, 28, 29 (R), 31, 32, 34, 35 (R), 37, 38, 42).

Both Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation scales use a 4 point likert-type scale where 1 is "never or almost never true" 2 "usually not true of me" 3 "usually true of me" 4 "always or almost always true of me".

Affective Organizational Commitment

Affective organizational commitment (AC) was measured using Allen and Meyer's revised (1997) 6-item scale. The reported median alpha is .85. The measure uses a 7- point likert-type response scale anchored with 1 "strongly disagree" and 7 "strongly agree". See Appendix D, items # 1, 4, 6 (R), 8 (R), 10, 12 (R).

Continuance Commitment (commitment due to lack of alternatives and commitment due to personal sacrifice)

Continuance commitment was measured using Allen and Meyer's revised (1997) 7-item scale. The reported median alpha for the combined sub-scales is .78 (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The Lack of alternatives sub-scale has reported alphas of .70 and .76 (Jaros, 1997). See appendix A items # 3, 5, 9. The Personal sacrifice sub-scale has reported alphas of .69 and .80 (Jaros, 1997). See appendix D items # 2, 7, 11, 13. The response scale is anchored with 1 "strongly disagree" and 7 "strongly agree".

Intention to Leave

Intent to leave was measured using the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire developed by Cooke, Hepworth, Wall & Warr (1981). The scale consists of three items measured on a 7 point likert-type scale. One of the items is anchored with 1 "not at all likely" 3 "somewhat likely" 5 "very likely" and 7 "extremely likely." The remaining two items are anchored with 1 "Strongly Disagree" 2 "Moderately Disagree" 3

“Slightly Disagree” 4 “Neither Agree Nor Disagree” 5 “Slightly Agree” 6 “Moderately Agree” 7 “Strongly Agree” (Cook et al., 1981, alpha= .83). See appendix D, items # 44, 45, 46.

Data Analysis

Due to the sample size actually obtained, the hypotheses were tested using regressions and analysis of variance (ANOVA). Originally, the hypotheses were to be tested using structural equation modeling. However, this was not possible because the number of participants in the single parents group totaled 99, which is well below the recommended 200 for modeling techniques. Instead, an exploratory analysis was run for one of the groups (married parents) whose total number of subjects was 292. This procedure will be explained in more detail in chapter 6.

Chapter 6

Results

A reiteration of the hypotheses will be made prior to the discussion of the findings.

Hypothesis 1: For both married and single parents, components of continuance commitment (commitment due to perceived Lack of Alternatives and commitment due to Personal Sacrifice) and Affective commitment will mediate the relationship between the independent variables (education, sex, age, occupation, number of children, perceived financial need, income, primary wage earner, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation) and Intent to Leave.

Hypothesis 2(a): The effect of extrinsic motivation on commitment due to perceived Lack of Alternatives is greater for single parents than for married parents.

Hypothesis 2(b): The effect of extrinsic motivation on commitment due to Personal Sacrifice is greater for single parents than for married parents.

Hypothesis 2(c): The effect of intrinsic motivation on Affective commitment is greater for married parents than for single parents.

Hypothesis 3(a): For both single and married parents, there is no effect of extrinsic motivation on affective commitment.

Hypothesis 3(b): For both single and married parents, there is no effect of intrinsic motivation on commitment due to perceived Lack of Alternatives(cc1).

Hypothesis 3(c): For both groups, there is no effect of intrinsic motivation on commitment due to Personal Sacrifice(cc2).

Hypothesis 4: All forms of organizational commitment (affective, commitment due to perceived Lack of Alternatives, and commitment due to Personal Sacrifice) negatively affect intention to leave. The higher the commitment, the lower the intention to leave.

Hypothesis 5(a): Occupational level has a positive effect on affective commitment.

Hypothesis 5(b): Occupational level has a positive effect on commitment due to Personal

Sacrifice.

Hypothesis 5(c): Occupational level has a negative effect on commitment due to perceived Lack of Alternatives.

Hypothesis 6(a): Education level has a positive effect on Affective commitment.

Hypothesis 6(b): Education level has a negative effect on commitment due to perceived Lack of alternatives.

Hypothesis 6(c): Education level has a positive effect on commitment due to Personal sacrifice.

Preliminary Analyses

Cronbach's coefficient alpha of internal consistency was calculated for all measures and are reported in Table 3. The reliability coefficients for Intent to Leave ($\alpha = .84$) and Affective commitment ($\alpha = .80$) were consistent with those obtained by previous researchers. However, the coefficients obtained for intrinsic motivation ($\alpha = .67$), extrinsic motivation ($\alpha = .68$), Lack of Alternatives ($\alpha = .66$), and Personal Sacrifice ($\alpha = .54$) were substantially lower than those reported in the literature. The worry scale used to measure perceived financial need yielded the highest reliability coefficient of all the scales ($\alpha = .95$). Spearman correlation coefficients were calculated for all the major variables in the study. These coefficients are reported in Table 4.

One concern when conducting survey research is that any differences found may be attributable to the methodology itself and not a true effect. Common method variance is often considered a threat when questionnaire data are collected. In order to test for common method variance, two different models were tested. First, a one- factor model

was tested in which all the items for the six major scales were allowed to load on only one factor. This model did not converge and, therefore, yielded no chi-square index. Next, a six-factor model was tested in which the items for the six major scales were allowed to load on six factors. This model yielded a chi-square index of 2414.357 with 974 degrees of freedom and a probability level of 0.000. The fact that the chi-square was significant may indicate that the scales have more than one dimension. Because the one factor model did not converge, it was not appropriate to draw conclusions from that analysis. Therefore, a different approach was undertaken. An additional model was constructed once all the analyses were completed. The model was constructed by adding a latent variable labeled cmv (common method variance) to the final model (model no. 4 which will be discussed later in this chapter). The parameters from cmv to the other variables were set at unity and the variance of the variable was estimated under the assumption that if common method variance existed, it would influence all the measures equally. The model was then run under two separate conditions. First, the variance of cmv was left free to exceed zero (I will refer to this model as cmv1 for clarity). This analysis yielded a chi-square of 13.265 with 9 degrees of freedom and a probability level of .151. Next, the model was run with the cmv variance equal to 0 (I will refer to this model as cmv2). This second run yielded a chi-square of 13.267 with 10 degrees of freedom and a probability level of .209 (note that these results are identical to the final model, model 4), because the variance of cmv is set to zero and therefore has no influence on the other variables presented. Finally, the chi-square and degrees of freedom of model cmv2 were subtracted from model cmv1. This calculation resulted in a chi-square of .002

with 1 degree of freedom and a probability level of .964. Therefore, the inclusion of *cmv* does not significantly improve the fit of the model to the data. The effect coefficients between the two models were also compared and essentially had no effect on the parameter estimates. These analyses indicate no significant variance that can be attributed to methodology. The results obtained for this study will be presented in the order of each hypothesis tested followed by the results of the path analysis model for married parents.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1 stated that the components of commitment (Lack of alternatives, Personal Sacrifice and Affective commitment) would mediate the relationship between the exogenous variables and intention to leave for both single and married parents. Partial support was found for this hypothesis (see Tables 5A and 5B). Multiple regression analyses were used to test the hypothesis for each group of parents. The hypothesis was tested in accordance with Baron and Kenny's (1986, p.1177) procedure for testing the effect of mediator variables (analysis results are summarized in tables 5A and 5B). First, intent to leave was regressed on the independent variables (sex, occupation level, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, number of children, perceived financial need, primary wage earner, income, age, and education level). Second, each commitment variable (affective, commitment due to perceived lack of alternatives, and commitment due to personal sacrifice) was regressed on the independent variables. Third, intent to leave was regressed on the three commitment variables and the independent variables. Results indicate that the Betas for two of the three mediators are statistically significant

even when the exogenous variables are entered into the equation. The beta weight for each regression was significant (except for the regression of commitment due to perceived lack of alternatives on the exogenous variables for the single parents group). However, for each group of parents, the R square for the third equation was larger than the R square for the second equation indicating that the commitment variables do not fully mediate the relationship between the independent variables and intention to leave. For married parents, the increment in variance accounted for by the group of exogenous variables was .096 above that predicted by the commitment variables. The R square statistic was significant at the .027 level. For single parents, the increment in variance accounted for by the group of exogenous variables was .305 above that predicted by the commitment variables. The R square statistic was significant at the .001 level indicating that, comparable to the married parents group, the commitment variables do not fully mediate the relationship between the exogenous variables and intent to leave for single parents. However, for both groups of parents, affective and continuance commitment have a significant effect on intention to leave. In fact, the effect of affective commitment on intent to leave is more than double that of continuance commitment for both single and married parents ($\beta = -.515$ versus $\beta = -.266$ and $\beta = -.475$ versus $\beta = -.221$, respectively). Some of the independent variables (e.g., perceived financial need and age) have a direct effect on intent to leave. This can explain the fact that the commitment variables did not fully mediate the effect of the independent variables on intent to leave as hypothesized. These findings are discussed in more detail in conjunction with the path analysis results.

Hypotheses 2 (a), (b) and (c) predicted different interaction effects of the motivation variables on the commitment variables depending on marital status. These hypotheses were tested using regression analyses where interaction terms were created for the motivation and marital status (the analyses were conducted separately and each group was coded 0,1 where the pertinent group was coded 1). For each commitment variable, the interaction term between marital status and type of motivation was entered into the analyses as a block along with a second block which consisted of the other exogenous variables (Age, sex, primary wage earner, income, perceived financial need, occupation level, education level, and number of children). Overall, no support was found for these hypotheses (see Table 6a-c). More specifically:

Hypothesis 2 (a) stated that the effect of extrinsic motivation on Lack of Alternatives is greater for single than for married parents when the other exogenous variables are included. No support was found for this hypothesis ($\beta = -.060$, $p=.321$) (see table 6a).

Hypothesis 2 (b) predicted that the effect of extrinsic motivation on Personal Sacrifice is greater for single than for married parents when the other exogenous variables are included. No support was found for this hypothesis ($\beta = .028$, $p=.640$) (see table 6b).

Hypothesis 2 (c) stated that the effect of intrinsic motivation on Affective commitment is greater for married than for single parents when the other exogenous variables are included. No support was found for this hypothesis ($\beta = .189$, $p=.085$) (see table 6c).

Although no differences were found in type of motivation based on marital status, exploratory t-test analyses revealed that extrinsic motivation ($t=2.566$, $p=.011$) and perceived financial need ($t=2.415$, $p=.016$) were greater for primary than secondary wage earners. Also, actual reported need was lower for the secondary wage earners ($t=6.356$, $p<.001$).

Hypotheses 3(a) through 3 (c) were tested using Regression analyses.

Hypothesis 3 (a) predicted no significant effect of extrinsic motivation on Affective commitment. Support was found for this hypothesis ($\beta = -.096$, $p=.070$) (see table 7a).

Hypothesis 3 (b) expected no significant effect of intrinsic motivation on Lack of Alternatives. This hypothesis was supported ($\beta = -.087$, $p=.092$) (see table 7b).

Hypothesis 3 (c) expected no significant effect of intrinsic motivation on Personal Sacrifice. This hypothesis was supported ($\beta = -.026$, $p=.603$) (see table 7c).

Hypothesis 4 posited that all forms of commitment (affective, lack of alternatives, and personal sacrifice) negatively affect intent to leave. This hypothesis was partially supported (see Table 8). Results from a regression analysis indicate that Lack of Alternatives negatively affects intent to leave ($\beta = -.135$, $p=.018$) and Affective commitment negatively affects intent to leave ($\beta = -.510$, $p<.001$); however, Personal Sacrifice does not significantly affect intent to leave ($\beta = -.008$, $p=.887$).

Hypotheses 5 (a) through 5 (c) predicted effects of occupation level on types of commitment. These hypotheses were tested using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and by examining the means. Results are reported in Table 9. More specifically, Hypothesis

5 (a) posited that occupation level has a positive effect on Affective commitment.

Hypothesis 5 (a) was supported ($F = 4.007, p=.001$). Tukey hsd post-hoc analyses revealed differences between participants at clerical and supervisor levels, as well as differences between those at clerical and professional levels. The higher occupation levels reported higher affective commitment than the lower occupation levels.

Hypothesis 5 (b) posited that occupation level has a positive effect on Personal sacrifice.

This hypothesis was supported ($F = 2.123, p=.050$). Tukey hsd post-hoc analyses revealed differences between participants at operator and technical levels, as well as differences between participants at operator and administrator levels. The higher occupation levels reported higher Personal sacrifice than the lower occupation levels.

Hypothesis 5 (c) posited that occupation level has a negative effect on perceived Lack of Alternatives. This hypothesis was not supported ($F = 1.752, p=.108$). Occupation levels did not significantly differ in Lack of Alternatives.

Hypotheses 5 (a) through (c) predicted effects of education level on types of commitment and were tested using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and by examining the means. Results are reported in Table 10. More specifically, hypothesis 6 (a) posited that education level affects Affective commitment positively. This hypothesis was supported ($F = 4.061, p=.007$). Tukey post-hoc analyses revealed differences between participants with a technical education level and those with a baccalaureate degree. Differences were also detected between participants with a technical education level and those with masters or graduate degrees. Higher education levels reported higher affective commitment than lower education levels. Hypothesis 6 (b) posited that education level affects Lack of

Alternatives negatively. Hypothesis 6 (b) was supported ($F = 5.382, p = .001$). Tukey post-hoc analyses revealed differences between participants with a high school education and a baccalaureate education level. Differences were also detected between participants with a high school education and those with masters or graduate degrees. Participants with higher education levels tended to report lower Lack of Alternatives. Hypothesis 6 (c) posited that education level affects Personal sacrifice positively. Hypothesis 6 (c) was not supported ($F = 3.766, p = .011$). Although there were significant differences in the groups, the direction was opposite of that hypothesized. This would indicate that persons with higher education levels perceive lower personal sacrifice than those with lower education levels.

In summary, results of analyses of hypotheses 5 a-c indicate that participants with higher occupation levels tend to report higher affective commitment and higher Personal sacrifice than participants in lower occupational groups. These differences do not apply to all occupational groups. Results also indicate that there are no differences among occupational groups in Lack of Alternatives.

Results of hypotheses 6 a-c indicate that participants with higher educational levels reported higher affective commitment than those with lower educational levels. Also, participants with higher educational levels reported lower Lack of Alternatives than those with lower educational levels. No differences were found among educational levels in Personal sacrifice.

Finally, because the sample size for single parents was insufficient to conduct structural equation modeling analyses, a different approach was taken. First, a

discriminant analysis was conducted to examine whether the two groups were significantly different on the proposed variables or if they could be pooled to form one larger group. Box's *M* analyses indicated that the groups were, in fact, different from one another and should be kept separate ($\text{sig.} = .082$). Therefore, a path analysis was conducted using the married parents group data to explore the fit of the proposed model to the data ($N=292$).

In order to provide a visual representation of the general relationships of the variables in this study, the hypothesized path analysis model is presented in figure 1. The model consists of a total of 14 variables (sex, educational level, age, occupational level, primary wage earner, number of children, income, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, perceived financial need, affective commitment, intent to leave, and two components of continuance commitment, Lack of alternatives and personal sacrifice). Note that the model depicted is the most parsimonious based on the information discussed in the literature review. The variables were included because of their history in parental research and their promise in terms of providing new information.

As indicated in the model, sex, educational level, age, occupational level, income, perceived financial need (*fin2perc*), primary wage earner, number of children, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation are expected to affect Lack of alternatives, Personal sacrifice and affective commitment. Affective commitment, lack of alternatives and personal sacrifice were expected to have a negative effect on intent to leave (see figure 1).

Only data from completed surveys were used in the path analysis resulting in a sample size of 267. Incomplete data were removed using the listwise deletion option in

SPSS. Analyses and modifications of the original model resulted in 4 models.

Summaries of the 4 models are reported in Table 11. After each model, indices of fit were examined to determine what necessary steps could be taken to improve the model. Appendix F provides general path analysis information.

The original hypothesized model resulted in a poor fit to the data with a chi-square of 169.792 with 13 degrees of freedom and a probability level of 0.000. The obtained indices of fit consisted of a goodness of fit index (GFI) of .932, a comparative fit index (CFI) of .740, and a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of .213. These indices of fit are not within the acceptable range. Modification indices (M.I.) above 4 were examined and considered on an individual basis. First, I examined the modification index for a covariance path between the errors of Lack of alternatives and Personal sacrifice (M.I. 106.674). Such a covariance made sense because these two variables actually make up the continuance commitment variable discussed in the literature review of this paper. The addition in parameter is also supported by the .64 correlation between lack of alternatives and personal sacrifice a substantial amount of shared variance (see table 4). The addition of this path led to model number 2 which yielded a chi square value of 33.455 with 12 degrees of freedom and a probability level of 0.001. The obtained indices of fit consisted of a GFI of .983, a CFI of .964, and an RMSEA of .082 (see figure 2).

Although these indices of fit are clearly an improvement to the fit of the model, the fit is still unacceptable range because the chi-square is still significant and the CFI is still somewhat low. Additionally, the RMSEA is above the acceptable range.

Modification indices were once again examined and a suggested direct path from perceived financial need to intent to leave (M.I. 13.058) was added. Again, this path made sense based on results from earlier analyses that suggested that the commitment variables did not fully mediate the effect of the exogenous variables on intent to leave. The addition of a path from perceived financial need to intent to leave resulted in model number 3 which yielded a chi square value of 18.239 with 11 degrees of freedom and a probability level of 0.076 which is not significant. The obtained indices of fit consisted of a GFI of .991, a CFI of .988, and an RMSEA of .05 (see figure 3).

These indices of fit are a great improvement to the fit of the model. Although this model is certainly acceptable, an additional path between age and intent to leave was suggested by a modification index of 4.612. The addition of this path resulted in model number 4. This final model yielded a chi-square of 13.267 with 10 degrees of freedom and a probability level of .209 which is clearly not significant. The obtained indices of fit consisted of a GFI of .993, a CFI of .995, and an RMSEA of .035. Based on the indices obtained, model number 4 is deemed the best fit of the married parents data (see figure 4, table 12).

Summary of Results

Two of the major hypotheses of this study were not fully supported. There was partial support for the prediction that commitment acts as mediator between exogenous variables (sex, age, education, motivation, etc.) and intent to leave. There was no evidence to support the hypotheses that the effect of motivation on commitment for an employee can be predicted by marital status. However, there is evidence indicating that

primary wage earners are more extrinsically motivated than secondary wage earners. This finding is significant because the greater majority of the single parents (87%) classified themselves as primary wage earners. These results are likely due to the fact that while the majority of single parents are primary wage earners, the married parents group includes persons who are primary and secondary wage earners who are apparently not similarly motivated. As predicted, intrinsic motivation does not significantly affect lack of alternatives and personal sacrifice. Conversely, extrinsic motivation does not significantly affect affective commitment. Overall, occupation level has a positive effect on affective commitment and personal sacrifice. Education level has a positive effect on affective commitment and a negative effect on Lack of Alternatives.

Finally, perceived financial need, as measured by an index of "worry," is the greatest determinant of an employee parent's intent to leave an organization. The higher the person's perceived need, the more he or she is likely to seek alternative employment. Age is also a significant predictor of turnover intent. The older the individual, the more he or she is likely to remain in the organization. The fact that age and perceived financial need play such a direct and significant role in a person's intent to leave explains why commitment does not fully mediate the relationship between the exogenous variables and intent to leave.

Chapter 7

Discussion

One of the major hypotheses in this study posited that the components of commitment (Lack of Alternatives, Personal Sacrifice and Affective commitment) would mediate the relationship between the exogenous variables (sex, occupation level, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, number of children, perceived financial need, primary wage earner, income, age, and education level) and intention to leave for both single and married parents. Partial support was found for this hypothesis. Although the commitment variables do not fully mediate the effect of the exogenous variables and intention to leave, it is clear that their effect on intention to leave is significant. In addition, direct paths were found from perceived financial need to intent to leave as well as from age to intent to leave (see r square statistics reported in Tables 5A and 5B).

Similar findings were also obtained once the data were analyzed in the context of a path analysis model. The final model supports the finding of the regression analysis reported in Tables 5A and 5B indicating that the commitment variables do mediate the relationship between the exogenous variables and intention to leave to a certain extent. In fact, results from the path analysis suggest that the reason the commitment variables do not fully mediate the relationship between the exogenous variables and intent to leave may be the direct influence of age and perceived financial need on intent to leave. Therefore, the more you worry about your finances, the more likely you are to want to leave the organization. By contrast, the older you are, the less likely you are to plan to leave. The finding that older parents are less likely to want to leave their organization

supports earlier research in which the relationship between age and intent to leave were linked to workers with family obligations who are more reluctant to lose investments made in their organizations (Dunham et al., 1994). These investments can be in the form of emotional, time, work, or monetary retirement plans that would be lost if employment is terminated. Also, older employees tend to hold higher level jobs which can often be more difficult to replace than lower level positions. At this time it is important to note that the married parent group was, on average, older than the single group. While age carries the second largest beta weight in the equation of married parents, perceived financial need is of more importance to single parents. Nonetheless, when you ascertain the impact of variables like age and perceived financial need on intent to leave, they may well diminish the effect of the commitment variables as mediators.

Although previous studies had shown a relationship between the commitment variables and intention to leave, the relationships found when other pertinent variables were included in the model were somewhat different than expected. All forms of commitment were previously linked to intention to leave and, in general, these predictions were upheld. Consistent with earlier research, affective commitment resulted in the largest effect on intention to leave (Dunham et al., 1994; Whitener & Walz, 1993; Jaros, 1997). The effect of personal sacrifice on intention to leave is similar to that of perceived financial need. This would lead to the conclusion that the higher one's perceived financial need, and the higher the sense of personal sacrifice, and the lower the age, the more likely the intent to leave. Exploratory regression analyses found similar results. One thing to keep in mind regarding these particular findings is that the path

analysis results were obtained using only the married parent data. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude that the same results would be obtained for the single parents group if a path analysis had been conducted on their data. However, the exploratory regression analyses conducted on single parents indicate that although affective commitment contributes the most to intent to leave, perceived financial need and personal sacrifice are also high contributors. According to these results, one can conclude that affective commitment has the overall greatest influence on intention to leave regardless of marital status (-.445) for married and -.427 for single). However, the relative importance of the other variables in the equation differs by marital status. For the married parents equation, the second biggest contribution was made by lack of alternatives (-.201) followed by perceived financial need (.189) and, ultimately age (-.113). In contrast, for single parents, perceived financial need (.318) was the second highest contributor followed by personal sacrifice (-.235) and age (-.182). Therefore, it seems that the intention to leave of married parents is influenced more by lack of alternatives while perceived financial need is a greater determinant for single parents' intentions. The components of continuance commitment were highly intercorrelated which could account for the instability of their beta weights relative to the married and single samples. Another related finding is a significant negative correlation between perceived financial need and actual need. The higher a person's income, the lower his or her perceived financial need. However, the income variable does not contribute significantly to the equation indicating that intention to leave is driven by perception. These findings are very telling in respect to variables that influence a parent employee's decision to leave an organization.

This study found no support for interaction effects between motivation and commitment based on marital status. Overall, the effect of motivation on commitment does not differ based on marital status. One of the things that may have influenced this result is the low reliability coefficient obtained for the motivation variables and the variables comprising continuance commitment (lack of alternatives and personal sacrifice). However, because of the impact of perceived financial need in the path analysis model examined for married parents, exploratory t-test analyses were conducted using primary wage earner as the grouping variable. Results from these analyses suggest that primary wage earners are more extrinsically motivated than secondary wage earners consistent with findings reported by Lambert (1991) (see Table 13). Primary wage earners also perceived higher financial need than secondary wage earners. Finally, secondary wage earners reported higher incomes than primary wage earners which is consistent with the fact that 25 percent of the total sample is comprised of single parents.

As hypothesized, extrinsic motivation has no effect on affective commitment. This finding strengthens the argument that extrinsic motivation is not an antecedent of affective commitment. Affective commitment has been previously linked to intrinsic motivation and intrinsic rewards (Dunham et al., 1994). There is no effect of intrinsic motivation on lack of alternatives. Finally, support was also found for the proposition that intrinsic motivation does not affect personal sacrifice. So, it appears that extrinsic motivation does not affect commitment that is based on internally derived attachment while intrinsic motivation does not affect commitment that is based on the loss of tangibles provided by the organization. From these findings, one can infer that values

that are extrinsically based have no effect on organizational commitment when that commitment stems from a “desire” to maintain membership. Conversely, values that are intrinsically based have no effect on organizational commitment when that commitment stems from a “need” to maintain membership.

Affective commitment was found to be a significant predictor of intent to leave. This result supports findings of earlier studies (Jaros, 1997; Whitener & Walz, 1993; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Following Jaros’ approach, components of continuance commitment were treated as two separate constructs. Based on this approach, lack of alternatives was found to negatively affect intent to leave. The higher a person’s perceived lack of alternatives, the less likely their intent to leave. However, there is no evidence that personal sacrifice affects intent to leave when data from both groups are analyzed together. The findings for lack of alternatives and personal sacrifice are contrary to those of Jaros (1997) who found a significant relationship between intent to leave and personal sacrifice but not between intent to leave and lack of alternatives. At first it was not clear why these results were contrary to those found in previous research. One could speculate that employees who perceive a lack of alternatives in the present study still plan to leave eventually. Whereas those who believe themselves to be making a personal sacrifice do not plan to seek other employment. This belief could well be due to the healthy state of the job market when the study was conducted. Finally, these results are also contrary to those obtained for analyses conducted for hypotheses 1 (a) through 1 (c). Therefore, an additional analysis was conducted where the data was analyzed separately for the single parents group. This analysis resulted in significant negative relationships between intent

to leave and personal sacrifice and affective commitment lending support to Jaros' findings. These findings suggest that single parents may be more likely to stay with an organization based on a sense of personal sacrifice than married parents who are part of a two-income household. Single parents may remain in organizations where they can maintain benefits or conveniences that are not available to them at other companies whereas parents of a dual earner couple are more likely to have a choice between programs or benefits offered in two companies (assuming that the parents work at different organizations).

Evidence was found to support the prediction that occupation level has a positive effect on affective commitment. Affective commitment was found to differ between clerical and professional level employees. Professional employees scored higher on affective commitment than clerical level employees. In addition, occupation level has a positive effect on personal sacrifice. Operator level employees scored lower on personal sacrifice than technical level employees. The employees at the operator level also scored significantly on personal sacrifice than employees at the administrator level. No support was found for the prediction that occupation level has a negative effect on lack of alternatives. According to these results, the higher the employees' occupation level, the higher their feelings of affective commitment and personal sacrifice. These findings are consistent with the rationale that the higher individuals are in the organization, the more likely they are to have an affective type of attachment. The lack of support for the predicted effect of occupation level on lack of alternatives could be due to the fact that perhaps people who are at higher levels in organizations can very well have feelings of

lack of alternatives. Organizations tend to have fewer higher level positions versus lower level jobs. So, the higher you are on the totem pole, the more difficult it may be to obtain even more desirable jobs.

Another important point that can be made in regards to occupation level is the scale utilized to measure it. The scale is an ordinal level self-report type scale whose values range from 1 to 9. The categories themselves offer some description, but some are left to interpretation. For example, the salesperson category is scored as level number 5 while a manager is scored at level number 8. A person who sells shoes in a department store and a bond trader at a financial institution are both in "sales"; however, it is clear that their jobs are likely to differ significantly in responsibility, stress, pay and prestige. There are similar problems with titles of administrator, manager and technical personnel. There is enough overlap within and between the categories themselves so as to make it difficult to interpret when people self-categorize. Therefore, the fact that more differences were not found between the categories could be well due to this issue of measurement.

Findings indicate that the different types of commitment are affected by the employee's education level. Support was found for the prediction that education level has a positive effect on affective commitment. Specifically, employees with baccalaureate and higher level education (masters or graduate) report higher levels of affective commitment than employees with technical degrees. In addition, differences were also found regarding lack of alternatives. Participants with higher level education (baccalaureate, masters, and graduate) score lower on lack of alternatives than those with

a high school degree. Interestingly, education level did not affect personal sacrifice positively as expected. In fact, significance was obtained in the opposite direction indicating that education level affects personal sacrifice negatively. Therefore, the higher the employee's education level, the less that person feels he or she is making a personal sacrifice by staying in the organization. Of course as mentioned earlier in the study, people who are highly educated generally enjoy their chosen profession so that could explain their low feelings of personal sacrifice. Also, the more educated employees are more likely to have greater options in terms of jobs and organizations.

Overall, a general relationship was established between variables that affect the intention of working parents to leave an organization. This decision is partially affected by the type of commitment an employee exhibits. However, the major predictors of the employees' intent are perceived financial need and age, respectively. The more the person perceives a need for higher financial rewards, the more likely he or she is to search for other employment. Also, the older the employee, the less likely he or she is to look for another job. Although the full path analysis was only conducted on married parents, other analyses show evidence that single parents may have stronger feelings of personal sacrifice toward their organizations and may be even more willing to leave if greater financial rewards are offered by the competition. This implication is made because primary wage earners are more likely to be extrinsically motivated and more likely to perceive financial need. Therefore, when organizations are concerned about retaining their valuable employees who are parents, their efforts are best served by considering the employee's needs and motivations. Once organizations have this information, they can

tailor reward programs to meet those needs. This is not meant to suggest that whenever parent employees feel they need more money they should receive a raise or that single parents should receive higher wages than married parents. But, other approaches such as financial planning and other venues can be offered as a form of corporate benefit.

Summary

A valuable and unexpected finding of this study was the importance of perceived financial need in determining intention to leave of parent workers. Age was also found to be an important determinant. However, the relative importance of these two variables differed based on marital status. Perceived financial need was of greater importance to single parents while age carried more weight for married parents. An additional finding was that primary wage earners tend to be more extrinsically motivated than secondary wage earners. Also, there appears to be a sort of “comfort” at having a second wage earner in the family that lessens the financial burden for parents who are not primary wage earners. However, employees who are primary wage earners perceive the work place somewhat differently. Specifically, they tend to place more emphasis on perceived financial need than individuals who are not primarily responsible for the family’s financial welfare. Overall, these findings highlight the important role of perception. As is well believed in the field of Psychology, perception is reality.

Limitations

The present study did not contain equal numbers of subjects in both categories of interest. This was partially due to the use of a convenience sample. Future research

should obtain sufficient numbers of subjects so that path analytic techniques can be employed on both comparison groups. Also, the reliability of some of the instruments were lower than expected. This was particularly true of the motivation scales and the two components of continuance commitment. While the components of continuance commitment have not generally been treated as separate scales in the literature, the decision to use them as such in this study was empirically based. However, each of these scales has fewer items than the affective commitment scale (3 and 4 compared to six) and share a relatively large amount of variance. Future research could look to add items to these scales if they are to be used separately. Finally, the commitment scales also had lower reliability than previously reported. Again, the low reliability could have influenced the findings of this study. Although the overall findings are encouraging for examining how these variables are affected by whether a working parent is married or single, many questions remain unanswered.

An issue of concern when conducting research that relies on the analysis of covariance structure modeling is the existence of alternative models. Whenever a model is specified in research, alternative equivalent models represented by different path diagrams can yield the same fit to sample data. Unless other criteria, such as meaningfulness of the model, are used, one cannot rule out the possibility that other explanations account for findings attributed to the original model. Alternative models can be generated by including different paths and parameters not proposed in the original model. According to MacCallum, Wegener, Uchino, and Fabrigar (1993) the majority of studies utilizing covariance structure modeling do not address the problem of equivalent

models. The present study did not generate alternative models. Given the relationships established among working parents and the general limitations of this study, future research should incorporate the examination of equivalent models.

Appendix A

Tables 1-13

Table 1

Summary of Personal Demographics by Sample

| Personal Demographics | Married | | Single | |
|--|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|
| | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| Sex | | | | |
| Male | 117 | 40.2% | 14 | 14.3% |
| Female | 174 | 59.8% | 84 | 85.7% |
| Age | | | | |
| Mean Age | | | | |
| % Under 30 | 24 | 8.4% | 16 | 16.3% |
| % 30-39 | 153 | 53.7% | 50 | 51.0% |
| % 40+ | 108 | 37.9% | 32 | 32.7% |
| Wage Earner | | | | |
| Primary | 132 | 45.2% | 83 | 83.8% |
| Secondary | 160 | 54.8% | 16 | 16.2% |
| Education | | | | |
| HS Grads | 10 | 3.4% | 11 | 11.2% |
| Some College | 45 | 15.5% | 34 | 34.7% |
| Tech or trade school | 11 | 3.8% | 6 | 6.1% |
| Associate degree | 27 | 9.3% | 19 | 19.4% |
| Baccalaureate degree | 81 | 27.8% | 16 | 16.3% |
| Master's Degree or graduate education. | 117 | 40.2% | 12 | 12.2% |
| Company Tenure | | | | |
| Mean Number of Years | | | | |
| Less than 5 yrs | 140 | 48.4% | 53 | 54.6% |
| 5-10 yrs | 77 | 26.6% | 23 | 23.7% |
| Over 10 yrs | 72 | 24.9% | 21 | 21.6% |

Table 1 (Continued)

Summary of Personal Demographics by Sample

| Personal Demographics | Married | | Single | |
|----------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|
| | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| Occupational Level | | | | |
| Operator/laborer | 10 | 3.6% | 3 | 3.1% |
| Craftsman | 7 | 2.5% | 1 | 1.0% |
| Clerical-secretarial | 25 | 8.9% | 25 | 26.0% |
| Supervisory/foreman | 8 | 2.8% | 1 | 1.0% |
| Salesperson | 15 | 5.3% | 6 | 6.3% |
| Technical/semiprofessional | 11 | 3.9% | 9 | 9.4% |
| Administrator | 55 | 19.6% | 28 | 29.2% |
| Manager | 64 | 22.8% | 6 | 6.3% |
| Professional | 86 | 30.6% | 17 | 17.7% |
| Number of Children | | | | |
| One | 116 | 39.7% | 51 | 51.5% |
| Two | 125 | 42.8% | 36 | 36.4% |
| Three | 38 | 13.0% | 10 | 10.1% |
| Four | 9 | 3.1% | 1 | 1.0% |
| Five or more | 4 | 1.4% | 1 | 1.0% |
| Age of Children | | | | |
| % w/ 1+ Children <5 yrs | 176 | 60.3% | 28 | 28.3% |
| % w/ 1+ Children 5-12 yrs | 158 | 54.1% | 63 | 63.6% |
| % w/ 1+ Children 13-17 yrs | 72 | 24.7% | 37 | 37.4% |

Table 2

Descriptive statistics of demographic variables for each sample

| Variable | | Married N=292 | Single N=99 |
|--------------------|--------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| Age | Mean | 37.81 | 35.66 |
| | SD | 6.84 | 8.09 |
| Education Level | Mean | 5.632 | 4.316 |
| | SD | 1.569 | 1.635 |
| Occupation Level | Mean | 6.92 | 5.89 |
| | SD | 2.30 | 2.36 |
| Number of Children | Mean | 1.85 | 1.64 |
| | SD | .94 | .79 |
| Household Income | Mean | 70.25 | 34.65 |
| | Median | 95,000 | 35,000 |
| | SD | 23.01 | 25.83 |

Table 3

Overall Scale Reliabilities and Mean Scores per Sample

| SCALES | # Items | Overall Alpha (N=391) | | Married N=292 | Single N=99 |
|---------------------------------|----------------|------------------------------|------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| | | | | | |
| Extrinsic Motivation | 15 | .68 | Mean SD | 39.37 5.32 | 40.09 5.54 |
| Intrinsic Motivation | 15 | .67 | Mean SD | 46.39 5.03 | 46.47 4.99 |
| Worry Scale (Fin2perc) | 17 | .95 | Mean SD | 43.52 15.87 | 48.65 18.06 |
| Lack of Alternatives Commitment | 4 | .66 | Mean SD | 10.93 4.42 | 11.41 4.00 |
| Personal Sacrifice Commitment | 3 | .54 | Mean SD | 15.77 4.79 | 16.40 4.64 |
| Affective Commitment | 6 | .80 | Mean SD | 25.30 7.78 | 24.70 7.80 |
| Intent to Leave | 3 | .84 | Mean SD | 9.73 5.45 | 10.04 6.37 |

Table 4

Correlations Between All Measures For Entire Sample

| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|--------------------------|--------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Education Level | | | | | | | |
| 2. Occupation Level | Corr. Sig. N | .565** .000 375 | | | | | |
| 3. No. of Children | Corr. Sig. N | .019 .715 389 | .038 .468 377 | | | | |
| 4. Income | Corr. Sig. N | .514** .000 .380 | .419** .000 369 | .127** .013 382 | | | |
| 5. Fin2perc | Corr. Sig. N | -.185** .000 389 | -.194** .000 377 | -.008 .882 391 | -.355** .000 382 | | |
| 6. Age | Corr. Sig. N | .229** .000 381 | .127* .015 370 | .236** .000 383 | .282** .000 375 | -.212** .000 383 | |
| 7. Intrinsic Motivation | Corr. Sig. N | .004 .941 389 | -.064 .217 377 | -.040 .427 391 | -.013 .807 382 | .003 .949 391 | -.030 .557 383 |
| 8. Extrinsic Motivation | Corr. Sig. N | -.079 .120 389 | -.136** .008 377 | -.048 .346 391 | -.058 .261 382 | .243** .000 391 | -.182** .000 383 |
| 9. Personal Sacrifice | Corr. Sig. N | -.136** .007 389 | -.109* .034 377 | .025 .618 391 | -.077 .136 382 | .208** .000 391 | .005 .926 383 |
| 10. Lack of Alternatives | Corr. Sig. N | -.144** .004 389 | -.088 .087 377 | .071 .160 391 | -.143** .005 382 | .247** .000 391 | -.039 .448 383 |
| 11. Affective Commitment | Corr. Sig. N | .116* .022 389 | .225** .000 377 | .119* .019 391 | .146** .004 382 | -.245** .000 391 | .083 .105 383 |
| 12. Intent to Leave | Corr. Sig. N | .011 .835 389 | -.076 .143 377 | -.094 .064 391 | -.127** .013 382 | .315** .000 391 | -.206** .000 383 |

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

* . Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

Table 4 (con't)

Correlations Between All Measures For Entire Sample (con't.)

| | | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Education Level | Corr. Sig. N | | | | | |
| 2. Occupation Level | Corr. Sig. N | | | | | |
| 3. No. of Children | Corr. Sig. N | | | | | |
| 4. Income | Corr. Sig. N | | | | | |
| 5. Fin2perc | Corr. Sig. N | | | | | |
| 6. Age | Corr. Sig. N | | | | | |
| 7. Intrinsic Motivation | Corr. Sig. N | | | | | |
| 8. Extrinsic Motivation | Corr. Sig. N | .043 .394 391 | | | | |
| 9. Personal Sacrifice | Corr. Sig. N | -.020 .690 391 | .286** .000 391 | | | |
| 10. Lack of Alternatives | Corr. Sig. N | -.069 .174 391 | .198** .000 391 | .645** .000 391 | | |
| 11. Affective Commitment | Corr. Sig. N | .002 .963 391 | -.151** .003 391 | -.050 .325 391 | .012 .813 391 | |
| 12. Intent to Leave | Corr. Sig. N | -.012 .815 391 | .136** .007 391 | -.069 .171 391 | -.146** .004 391 | -.512** .000 391 |

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

* . Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

Table 5A
 Regression 1: Hierarchical Regression of Intent to Leave on Exogenous variables

Married

| Variables Entered | Beta | R ² | Adjusted R ² | Change in R ² | F | P | F Change | (F Change) P |
|---------------------|---------|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------|------|----------|--------------|
| Step 1 | | .128 | .054 | .128 | 1.718 | .029 | 1.718 | .029 |
| Age | -.086 | | | | | | | |
| childno | -.037 | | | | | | | |
| eass | -.024 | | | | | | | |
| ebach | -.023 | | | | | | | |
| ecollege | -.122 | | | | | | | |
| ehigh | -.140* | | | | | | | |
| etech | -.015 | | | | | | | |
| Extrinsic mot. | .050 | | | | | | | |
| Fin2perc | .275*** | | | | | | | |
| Income | .023 | | | | | | | |
| Intrinsic mot. | -.011 | | | | | | | |
| Oadmin | .096 | | | | | | | |
| Oclerk | .113 | | | | | | | |
| Ocraft | .011 | | | | | | | |
| Omanager | .083 | | | | | | | |
| Ooplab | -.013 | | | | | | | |
| Osales | .053 | | | | | | | |
| Osupfor | .016 | | | | | | | |
| Otech | .004 | | | | | | | |
| Primary wage earner | .043 | | | | | | | |
| Sex | -.082 | | | | | | | |

Table 5A (con't.)

Regression 2a: Hierarchical Regression of affective commitment on Exogenous variables

Married

| Variables Entered | Beta | R ² | Adjusted R ² | Change in R ² | F | P | F Change | (F Change) P |
|---------------------|---------|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------|------|----------|--------------|
| Step 1 | | .150 | .077 | .150 | 2.052 | .005 | 2.052 | .005 |
| Age | -.096 | | | | | | | |
| childno | .119* | | | | | | | |
| eass | -.007 | | | | | | | |
| ebach | .010 | | | | | | | |
| ecollege | -.021 | | | | | | | |
| ehigh | .011 | | | | | | | |
| etech | -.062 | | | | | | | |
| Extrinsic mot. | -.090 | | | | | | | |
| Fin2perc | .239*** | | | | | | | |
| Income | .055 | | | | | | | |
| Intrinsic mot. | .039 | | | | | | | |
| Oadmin | .001 | | | | | | | |
| Oclerk | -.046 | | | | | | | |
| Ocraft | -.118 | | | | | | | |
| Omanager | .013 | | | | | | | |
| Ooplab | -.033 | | | | | | | |
| Osales | -.070 | | | | | | | |
| Osupfor | .002 | | | | | | | |
| Otech | .085 | | | | | | | |
| Primary wage earner | -.037 | | | | | | | |
| Sex | -.061 | | | | | | | |

Table 5A (con't.)

Regression 2b: Hierarchical Regression of lack of alternatives on Exogenous variables

Married

| Variables Entered | Beta | R ² | Adjusted R ² | Change in R ² | F | P | F Change | (F Change) P |
|---------------------|--------|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------|------|----------|--------------|
| Step 1 | | .226 | .160 | .226 | 3.412 | .000 | 3.412 | .000 |
| Age | -.058 | | | | | | | |
| childno | .086 | | | | | | | |
| eass | -.072 | | | | | | | |
| ebach | -.154* | | | | | | | |
| ecollege | .103 | | | | | | | |
| ehigh | .111 | | | | | | | |
| etech | .057 | | | | | | | |
| Extrinsic mot. | .155** | | | | | | | |
| Fin2perc | .162** | | | | | | | |
| Income | -.095 | | | | | | | |
| Intrinsic mot. | -.095 | | | | | | | |
| Oadmin | -.073 | | | | | | | |
| Oclerk | -.142 | | | | | | | |
| Ocraft | -.032 | | | | | | | |
| Omanager | -.054 | | | | | | | |
| Ooplab | .129 | | | | | | | |
| Osales | -.013 | | | | | | | |
| Osupfor | .125 | | | | | | | |
| Otech | -.059 | | | | | | | |
| Primary wage earner | .017 | | | | | | | |
| Sex | .039 | | | | | | | |

Table 5A (con't.)

Regression 2c: Hierarchical Regression of personal sacrifice on Exogenous variables

Married

| Variables Entered | Beta | R ² | Adjusted R ² | Change in R ² | F | P | F Change | (F Change) P |
|---------------------|--------|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------|------|----------|--------------|
| Step 1 | | .180 | .110 | .180 | 2.566 | .000 | 2.566 | .000 |
| Age | .023 | | | | | | | |
| childno | .053 | | | | | | | |
| eass | -.120 | | | | | | | |
| ebach | -.009 | | | | | | | |
| ecollege | .060 | | | | | | | |
| ehigh | .105 | | | | | | | |
| etech | .056 | | | | | | | |
| Extrinsic mot. | .236** | | | | | | | |
| Fin2perc | .124 | | | | | | | |
| Income | -.035 | | | | | | | |
| Intrinsic mot. | -.031 | | | | | | | |
| Oadmin | -.039 | | | | | | | |
| Oclerk | -.037 | | | | | | | |
| Ocraft | .099 | | | | | | | |
| Omanager | -.080 | | | | | | | |
| Ooplab | .083 | | | | | | | |
| Osales | -.019 | | | | | | | |
| Osupfor | .083 | | | | | | | |
| Otech | -.121 | | | | | | | |
| Primary wage earner | -.047 | | | | | | | |
| Sex | .033 | | | | | | | |

Table 5A (con't.)

Regression 3: Hierarchical Regression of Intent to Leave on Exogenous variables and Commitment variables

Married

| Variables Entered | Beta | R ² | Adjusted R ² | Change in R ² | F | P | F Change | (F Change) P |
|---------------------|----------|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|--------|------|----------|--------------|
| Step 1 | | .266 | .257 | .266 | 31.725 | .000 | 31.725 | .000 |
| Affcom | -.487*** | | | | | | | |
| Lackalt | -.196** | | | | | | | |
| Persac | .073 | | | | | | | |
| Step 2 | | .362 | .298 | .096 | 5.709 | .000 | 1.729 | .027 |
| Affcom | -.475*** | | | | | | | |
| Lackalt | -.221** | | | | | | | |
| Persac | .087 | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.147** | | | | | | | |
| childno | .034 | | | | | | | |
| eass | -.032 | | | | | | | |
| ebach | -.051 | | | | | | | |
| ecollege | -.115 | | | | | | | |
| ehigh | -.120* | | | | | | | |
| etech | -.037 | | | | | | | |
| Extrinsic mot. | .021 | | | | | | | |
| Fin2perc | .186* | | | | | | | |
| Income | .032 | | | | | | | |
| Intrinsic mot. | -.011 | | | | | | | |
| Oadmin | .004 | | | | | | | |
| Oclerk | .004 | | | | | | | |
| Ocraft | -.079 | | | | | | | |
| Ooplab | -.046 | | | | | | | |
| Oproff | -.093 | | | | | | | |
| Osales | -.028 | | | | | | | |
| Osupfor | .003 | | | | | | | |
| Otech | .006 | | | | | | | |
| Primary wage earner | .033 | | | | | | | |
| Sex | -.105 | | | | | | | |

*** p<.001

** p<.01

p<.05

Table 5B
Regression 1: Hierarchical Regression of Intent to Leave on Exogenous variables

Single

| Variables Entered | Beta | R ² | Adjusted R ² | Change in R ² | F | P | F Change | (F Change) P |
|---------------------|---------|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------|------|----------|--------------|
| Step 1 | | .426 | .251 | .426 | 2.439 | .003 | 2.439 | .003 |
| Age | -.144 | | | | | | | |
| childno | -.198 | | | | | | | |
| eass | -.033 | | | | | | | |
| ebach | .042 | | | | | | | |
| egrad | .101 | | | | | | | |
| ehigh | -.066 | | | | | | | |
| etech | -.073 | | | | | | | |
| Extrinsic mot. | .082 | | | | | | | |
| Fin2perc | .376*** | | | | | | | |
| Income | -.245 | | | | | | | |
| Intrinsic mot. | -.029 | | | | | | | |
| Oadmin | .037 | | | | | | | |
| Ocraft | .019 | | | | | | | |
| Omanager | .054 | | | | | | | |
| Ooplab | .124 | | | | | | | |
| Oproff | -.060 | | | | | | | |
| Osales | .265 | | | | | | | |
| Osupfor | -.087 | | | | | | | |
| Otech | .164 | | | | | | | |
| Primary wage earner | .260 | | | | | | | |
| Sex | -.032 | | | | | | | |

Table 5B (con't.)

Regression 2a: Hierarchical Regression of affective commitment on Exogenous variables

Single

| Variables Entered | Beta | R ² | Adjusted R ² | Change in R ² | F | P | F Change | (F Change) P |
|---------------------|--------|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------|------|----------|--------------|
| Step 1 | | .357 | .161 | .357 | 1.821 | .033 | 1.821 | .033 |
| Age | .057 | | | | | | | |
| childno | -.011 | | | | | | | |
| eass | -.248* | | | | | | | |
| ebach | -.031 | | | | | | | |
| egrad | -.097 | | | | | | | |
| ehigh | -.050 | | | | | | | |
| etech | -.154 | | | | | | | |
| Extrinsic mot. | -.199 | | | | | | | |
| Fin2perc | -.191 | | | | | | | |
| Income | .092 | | | | | | | |
| Intrinsic mot. | -.167 | | | | | | | |
| Oadmin | .158 | | | | | | | |
| Ocraft | -.031 | | | | | | | |
| Omanager | .222 | | | | | | | |
| Ooplab | .014 | | | | | | | |
| Oproff | .266 | | | | | | | |
| Osales | .205 | | | | | | | |
| Osupfor | .170 | | | | | | | |
| Otech | .242 | | | | | | | |
| Primary wage earner | -.216 | | | | | | | |
| Sex | .070 | | | | | | | |

Table 5B (con't.)
Regression 2b: Hierarchical Regression of lack of alternatives on Exogenous variables

Single

| Variables Entered | Beta | R ² | Adjusted R ² | Change in R ² | F | P | F Change | (F Change) P |
|---------------------|-------|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|------|------|----------|--------------|
| Step 1 | | .170 | -.083 | .170 | .673 | .844 | .673 | .844 |
| Age | .238 | | | | | | | |
| childno | -.087 | | | | | | | |
| eass | .007 | | | | | | | |
| ebach | -.151 | | | | | | | |
| egrad | -.086 | | | | | | | |
| ehigh | -.106 | | | | | | | |
| etech | -.108 | | | | | | | |
| Extrinsic mot. | .154 | | | | | | | |
| Fin2perc | .212 | | | | | | | |
| Income | .114 | | | | | | | |
| Intrinsic mot. | -.088 | | | | | | | |
| Oadmin | .011 | | | | | | | |
| Ocraft | -.044 | | | | | | | |
| Omanager | .053 | | | | | | | |
| Ooplab | .125 | | | | | | | |
| Oproff | .094 | | | | | | | |
| Osales | -.056 | | | | | | | |
| Osupfor | .047 | | | | | | | |
| Otech | .053 | | | | | | | |
| Primary wage earner | .117 | | | | | | | |
| Sex | .125 | | | | | | | |

Table 5B (con't.)

Regression 2c: Hierarchical Regression of personal sacrifice on Exogenous variables

Single

| Variables Entered | Beta | R ² | Adjusted R ² | Change in R ² | F | P | F Change | (F Change) P |
|---------------------|-------|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------|------|----------|--------------|
| Step 1 | | .342 | .141 | .342 | 1.706 | .051 | 1.706 | .051 |
| Age | .028 | | | | | | | |
| childno | -.174 | | | | | | | |
| eass | -.055 | | | | | | | |
| ebach | -.281 | | | | | | | |
| egrad | -.249 | | | | | | | |
| ehigh | .043 | | | | | | | |
| etech | -.159 | | | | | | | |
| Extrinsic mot. | .286* | | | | | | | |
| Fin2perc | .254* | | | | | | | |
| Income | .121 | | | | | | | |
| Intrinsic mot. | -.046 | | | | | | | |
| Oadmin | -.058 | | | | | | | |
| Ocraft | -.057 | | | | | | | |
| Omanager | .174 | | | | | | | |
| Ooplab | .121 | | | | | | | |
| Osales | .026 | | | | | | | |
| Osupfor | -.020 | | | | | | | |
| Otech | -.014 | | | | | | | |
| Primary wage earner | .013 | | | | | | | |
| Sex | .053 | | | | | | | |

Table 5B (continued)
 Regression 3: Hierarchical Regression of Intent to Leave on Exogenous variables and Commitment variables

Single

| Variables Entered | Beta | R ² | Adjusted R ² | Change in R ² | F | P | F Change | (F Change) P |
|---------------------|----------|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|--------|------|----------|--------------|
| Step 1 | | .363 | .341 | .363 | 16.537 | .000 | 16.537 | .000 |
| Persac | -.191 | | | | | | | |
| Affcom | -.564*** | | | | | | | |
| Lackalt | -.004 | | | | | | | |
| Step 2 | | .669 | .548 | .305 | 5.548 | .000 | 2.897 | .001 |
| Persac | -.266* | | | | | | | |
| Affcom | -.515*** | | | | | | | |
| Lackalt | -.001 | | | | | | | |
| Age | -.059 | | | | | | | |
| childno | -.250** | | | | | | | |
| ebach | .119 | | | | | | | |
| ecollege | .207 | | | | | | | |
| egrad | .129 | | | | | | | |
| ehigh | .057 | | | | | | | |
| etech | -.086 | | | | | | | |
| Extrinsic mot. | .056 | | | | | | | |
| Fin2perc | .346*** | | | | | | | |
| Income | -.165 | | | | | | | |
| Intrinsic mot. | -.127 | | | | | | | |
| Oadmin | .102 | | | | | | | |
| Ocraft | -.012 | | | | | | | |
| Omanager | .214 | | | | | | | |
| Ooplab | -.084 | | | | | | | |
| Oproff | .138 | | | | | | | |
| Osales | .143 | | | | | | | |
| Osupfor | -.004 | | | | | | | |
| Otech | .285 | | | | | | | |
| Primary wage earner | .152 | | | | | | | |
| Sex | .019 | | | | | | | |

*** p<.001

** p<.01

* p<.05

Table 6a
Hierarchical Regression testing for interaction of single parent group and extrinsic motivation on Lack of Alternatives commitment

| Model 3 | Unstandardized B | Std. Error | Standardized Beta | t | Sig. |
|----------------------|------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|------|
| (Constant) | 2.716 | 2.680 | | 1.609 | .312 |
| Primary wage earner | .238 | .505 | .027 | .472 | .637 |
| Fin2perc | .051 | .015 | .192 | 3.379 | .001 |
| Sex | .091 | .509 | .010 | .178 | .859 |
| Age | .014 | .033 | .024 | .441 | .660 |
| Income | -.005 | .011 | -.034 | -.459 | .646 |
| Ehigh | 1.012 | 1.143 | .053 | .885 | .377 |
| Ecollege | 1.036 | .796 | .096 | 1.302 | .194 |
| Etech | 1.114 | 1.194 | .052 | .933 | .352 |
| Eass | .024 | .852 | .002 | .029 | .977 |
| Ebach | -1.158 | .613 | -.116 | -1.889 | .060 |
| Ooplab | 3.611 | 1.281 | .156 | 2.819 | .005 |
| Ocraft | 1.476 | 1.572 | .051 | .939 | .348 |
| Oclerk | -.199 | .808 | -.016 | -.246 | .806 |
| Osupfor | 4.297 | 1.464 | .156 | 2.935 | .004 |
| Osales | .185 | 1.021 | .010 | .181 | .856 |
| Otech | .201 | 1.088 | .010 | .185 | .853 |
| Omanager | .590 | .723 | .053 | .816 | .415 |
| Oproff | 1.265 | .682 | .131 | 1.855 | .064 |
| Single group | .028 | .630 | .003 | .044 | .965 |
| Extrinsic motivation | .116 | .043 | .145 | 2.717 | .007 |

Table 6a (continued)

Hierarchical Regression testing for interaction of single parent group and extrinsic motivation on Lack of Alternatives commitment

| Model 4 | Unstandardized B | Std. Error | Standardized Beta | t | Sig. |
|---|---------------------|------------|----------------------|--------|------|
| (Constant) | 1.739 | 2.855 | | .609 | .543 |
| Primary wage earner | .244 | .505 | .028 | .483 | .630 |
| Fin2perc | .051 | .015 | .194 | 3.413 | .001 |
| Sex | .130 | .511 | .014 | .254 | .800 |
| Age | .013 | .033 | .022 | .402 | .688 |
| Income | -.005 | .011 | -.030 | -.403 | .687 |
| Ehigh | 1.108 | 1.147 | .058 | .966 | .335 |
| Ecollege | 1.079 | .797 | .100 | 1.354 | .177 |
| Etech | 1.196 | 1.197 | .056 | .999 | .318 |
| Eass | .052 | .853 | .004 | .062 | .951 |
| Ebach | -1.193 | .614 | -.119 | -1.944 | .053 |
| Ooplab | 3.621 | 1.281 | .157 | 2.827 | .005 |
| Ocraft | 1.426 | 1.573 | .049 | .907 | .365 |
| Oclerk | -.274 | .812 | -.022 | -.337 | .736 |
| Osupfor | 4.314 | 1.464 | .156 | 2.947 | .003 |
| Osales | .266 | 1.025 | .014 | .259 | .796 |
| Otech | .256 | 1.089 | .013 | .235 | .815 |
| Omanager | .606 | .723 | .054 | .839 | .402 |
| Oproff | 1.243 | .682 | .128 | 1.822 | .069 |
| Single group | .070 | .631 | .007 | .112 | .911 |
| Extrinsic motivation | .139 | .048 | .174 | 2.867 | .004 |
| Parent indicator and extrinsic motivation product | -.094 | .095 | -.060 | -.994 | .321 |

Table 6b
Hierarchical Regression testing for interaction of single parent group and extrinsic motivation on personal sacrifice commitment

| Model 3 | Unstandardized B | Std. Error | Standardized Beta | t | Sig. |
|----------------------|---------------------|------------|----------------------|--------|------|
| (Constant) | 1.943 | 2.947 | | .659 | .510 |
| Primary wage earner | -.516 | .555 | -.053 | -.929 | .353 |
| Fin2perc | .050 | .017 | .170 | 3.025 | .003 |
| Sex | .121 | .560 | .012 | .217 | .829 |
| Age | .048 | .036 | .072 | 1.328 | .185 |
| Income | .008 | .012 | .048 | .654 | .513 |
| Ehigh | 2.434 | 1.256 | .114 | 1.938 | .054 |
| Ecollege | 1.427 | .875 | .119 | 1.632 | .104 |
| Etech | 1.182 | 1.313 | .049 | .900 | .369 |
| Eass | -.081 | .937 | -.005 | -.086 | .932 |
| Ebach | -.015 | .674 | -.001 | -.022 | .983 |
| Ooplab | 2.990 | 1.408 | .117 | 2.124 | .034 |
| Ocraft | 2.902 | 1.729 | .089 | 1.679 | .094 |
| Oclerk | .248 | .889 | .018 | .279 | .780 |
| Osupfor | 3.093 | 1.609 | .101 | 1.922 | .055 |
| Osales | .549 | 1.123 | .027 | .489 | .625 |
| Otech | -1.679 | 1.196 | -.076 | -1.404 | .161 |
| Omanager | .279 | .795 | .023 | .352 | .725 |
| Oproff | 1.268 | .750 | .118 | 1.692 | .092 |
| Single group | .062 | .693 | .006 | .089 | .929 |
| Extrinsic motivation | .225 | .047 | .253 | 4.784 | .000 |

Table 6b (continued)
 Hierarchical Regression testing for interaction of single parent group and extrinsic motivation on personal sacrifice commitment

| Model 4 | Unstandardized B | Std. Error | Standardized Beta | t | Sig. |
|---|------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|------|
| (Constant) | 2.450 | 3.142 | | .780 | .436 |
| Primary wage earner | -.519 | .556 | -.054 | -.933 | .351 |
| Fin2perc | .049 | .017 | .169 | 3.002 | .003 |
| Sex | .101 | .562 | .010 | .180 | .857 |
| Age | .048 | .036 | .073 | 1.344 | .180 |
| Income | .078 | .012 | .046 | .626 | .532 |
| Ehigh | 2.385 | 1.262 | .111 | 1.889 | .060 |
| Ecollege | 1.405 | .877 | .117 | 1.602 | .110 |
| Etech | 1.139 | 1.317 | .048 | .865 | .388 |
| Eass | -.095 | .939 | -.006 | -.101 | .919 |
| Ebach | .004 | .676 | .000 | .005 | .996 |
| Ooplalab | 2.985 | 1.410 | .116 | 2.117 | .035 |
| Ocraft | 2.928 | 1.732 | .090 | 1.691 | .092 |
| Oclerk | .287 | .894 | .021 | .321 | .748 |
| Osupfor | 3.084 | 1.611 | .101 | 1.914 | .056 |
| Osales | .507 | 1.128 | .025 | .450 | .653 |
| Otech | -1.707 | 1.199 | -.078 | -1.424 | .155 |
| Omanager | .271 | .796 | .022 | .340 | .734 |
| Oproff | 1.280 | .751 | .119 | 1.704 | .089 |
| Single group | .039 | .695 | .004 | .057 | .955 |
| Extrinsic motivation | .214 | .053 | .240 | 4.005 | .000 |
| Parent indicator and extrinsic motivation product | .049 | .104 | .028 | .468 | .640 |

Table 6c
Hierarchical Regression testing for interaction of married group and intrinsic motivation on affective commitment

| Model 3 | Unstandardized B | Std. Error | Standardized Beta | t | Sig. |
|----------------------|------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|------|
| (Constant) | 34.878 | 5.372 | | 6.493 | .000 |
| Primary wage earner | -1.221 | .918 | -.077 | -1.330 | .184 |
| Fin2perc | -.130 | .027 | -.269 | -4.761 | .000 |
| Sex | -.504 | .934 | -.031 | -.539 | .590 |
| Age | .0023 | .059 | .002 | .040 | .968 |
| Income | .0010 | .021 | .004 | .048 | .962 |
| Ehigh | .850 | 2.091 | .024 | .407 | .685 |
| Ecollege | .702 | 1.458 | .036 | .481 | .631 |
| Etech | -2.413 | 2.191 | -.062 | -1.101 | .271 |
| Eass | -1.274 | 1.567 | -.053 | -.813 | .417 |
| Ebach | .804 | 1.120 | .044 | .717 | .474 |
| Ooplab | -1.968 | 2.337 | -.047 | -.842 | .400 |
| Ocraft | -5.467 | 2.881 | -.103 | -1.898 | .059 |
| Oclerk | -2.420 | 1.483 | -.106 | -1.632 | .104 |
| Osupfor | .636 | 2.684 | .013 | .237 | .813 |
| Osales | -1.628 | 1.871 | -.049 | -.870 | .385 |
| Otech | 3.456 | 2.003 | .096 | 1.725 | .085 |
| Omanager | .847 | 1.325 | .042 | .639 | .523 |
| Oproff | 1.314 | 1.248 | .075 | 1.053 | .293 |
| Single group | -.317 | 1.154 | -.018 | -.275 | .783 |
| Extrinsic motivation | -.032 | .082 | -.020 | -.396 | .693 |

Table 6c (continued)
 Hierarchical Regression testing for interaction of married group and intrinsic motivation
 on affective commitment

| Model 4 | Unstandardized B | Std. Error | Standardized Beta | t | Sig. |
|---|---------------------|------------|----------------------|--------|------|
| (Constant) | 46.690 | 8.689 | | 5.374 | .000 |
| Primary wage earner | -1.282 | .916 | -.081 | -1.400 | .163 |
| Fin2perc | -.125 | .027 | -.258 | -4.562 | .000 |
| Sex | -.481 | .931 | -.029 | -.517 | .605 |
| Age | -.00008 | .059 | .000 | -.001 | .999 |
| Income | .004 | .021 | .014 | .184 | .854 |
| Ehigh | .622 | 2.089 | .018 | .298 | .766 |
| Ecollege | .618 | 1.455 | .032 | .425 | .671 |
| Etech | -2.672 | 2.190 | -.068 | -1.220 | .223 |
| Eass | -1.094 | 1.566 | -.045 | -.699 | .485 |
| Ebach | .776 | 1.117 | .043 | .695 | .488 |
| Ooplab | -1.890 | 2.330 | -.045 | -.811 | .418 |
| Ocraft | -5.131 | 2.879 | -.097 | -1.782 | .076 |
| Oclerk | -2.116 | 1.490 | -.093 | -1.421 | .156 |
| Osupfor | 1.060 | 2.687 | .021 | .394 | .694 |
| Osales | -1.819 | 1.869 | -.055 | -.973 | .331 |
| Otech | 3.624 | 2.000 | .101 | 1.813 | .071 |
| Omanager | .999 | 1.324 | .049 | .754 | .451 |
| Oproff | 1.391 | 1.245 | .079 | 1.118 | .265 |
| Single group | -.426 | 1.152 | -.024 | -.369 | .712 |
| Extrinsic motivation | -.292 | .171 | -.185 | -1.708 | .089 |
| Parent indicator and extrinsic motivation product | .339 | .196 | .189 | 1.727 | .085 |

Table 7a
Regression of affective commitment on extrinsic motivation

| Model | Unstandardized B | Std. Error | Standardized Beta | t | Sig. |
|----------------------|---------------------|------------|----------------------|--------|------|
| (Constant) | 35.248 | 6.167 | | 5.716 | .000 |
| Extrinsic Motivation | -.140 | .077 | -.096 | -1.816 | .070 |

Table 7b
Regression of lack of alternatives on intrinsic motivation

| Model | Unstandardized B | Std. Error | Standardized Beta | t | Sig. |
|----------------------|---------------------|------------|----------------------|--------|------|
| (Constant) | 6.540 | 3.473 | | 1.883 | .061 |
| Intrinsic Motivation | -.008 | .045 | -.087 | -1.688 | .092 |

Table 7c
Regression of personal sacrifice on intrinsic motivation

| Model | Unstandardized B | Std. Error | Standardized Beta | t | Sig. |
|----------------------|---------------------|------------|----------------------|-------|------|
| (Constant) | 16.826 | 2.246 | | 7.493 | .000 |
| Intrinsic Motivation | -.003 | .049 | -.026 | -.520 | .603 |

Table 8

Regression of intent to leave on commitment variables

| Model | Unstandardized B | Std. Error | Standardized Beta | t | Sig. |
|----------------------|---------------------|------------|----------------------|---------|------|
| (Constant) | 21.319 | 1.200 | | 17.768 | .000 |
| Lack of Alternatives | -.178 | .075 | -.135 | -2.381 | .018 |
| Personal Sacrifice | -.010 | .068 | -.008 | -.142 | .887 |
| Affective Commitment | -.374 | .032 | -.510 | -11.812 | .000 |

Table 9a
 Analysis of Variance-Effects of occupational level on commitment

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-----------------------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|------|
| Affective commitment | | | | | |
| Between Groups | 1381.87 | 6 | 230.31 | 4.007 | .001 |
| Within Groups | 21267.88 | 370 | 57.48 | | |
| Total | 22649.76 | 376 | | | |
| Lack of alternatives | | | | | |
| Between Groups | 191.18 | 6 | 31.86 | 1.752 | .108 |
| Within Groups | 6728.78 | 370 | 18.19 | | |
| Total | 6919.96 | 376 | | | |
| Personal sacrifice | | | | | |
| Between Groups | 282.48 | 6 | 47.08 | 2.123 | .050 |
| Within Groups | 8205.27 | 370 | 22.18 | | |
| Total | 8487.75 | 376 | | | |

Table 9b
Analysis of Variance-Effects of occupational level on commitment
Table of Means

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|-----------------------------|-----|--------|----------------|
| Affective commitment | | | |
| Operator-laborer-craftsman | 21 | 21.86 | 9.40 |
| Clerical | 50 | 21.46* | 6.78 |
| Sales | 21 | 23.33 | 7.11 |
| Technical | 20 | 26.60 | 8.01 |
| Administrator | 83 | 25.05 | 7.52 |
| Supervisor/manager | 79 | 26.75 | 7.29 |
| Professional | 103 | 26.40* | 7.83 |
| Total | 377 | 25.11 | 7.76 |
| Lack of alternatives | | | |
| Operator-laborer-craftsman | 21 | 13.67 | 4.23 |
| Clerical | 50 | 11.28 | 4.25 |
| Sales | 21 | 10.76 | 5.05 |
| Technical | 20 | 11.25 | 3.40 |
| Administrator | 83 | 10.39 | 4.23 |
| Supervisor/manager | 79 | 10.77 | 4.38 |
| Professional | 103 | 11.03 | 4.19 |
| Total | 377 | 11.01 | 4.29 |
| Personal sacrifice | | | |
| Operator-laborer-craftsman | 21 | 19.00* | 4.65 |
| Clerical | 50 | 16.34 | 4.71 |
| Sales | 21 | 16.44 | 5.57 |
| Technical | 20 | 14.35* | 5.06 |
| Administrator | 83 | 15.60* | 4.10 |
| Supervisor/manager | 79 | 15.60 | 5.20 |
| Professional | 103 | 15.75 | 4.54 |
| Total | 377 | 15.91 | 4.75 |

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 10a
 Analysis of Variance-Effects of educational level on commitment

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-----------------------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|------|
| Affective commitment | | | | | |
| Between Groups | 722.20 | 3 | 240.73 | 4.061 | .007 |
| Within Groups | 22822.85 | 385 | 59.28 | | |
| Total | 23545.05 | 388 | | | |
| Lack of alternatives | | | | | |
| Between Groups | 288.79 | 3 | 96.26 | 5.382 | .001 |
| Within Groups | 6885.78 | 385 | 17.89 | | |
| Total | 7174.57 | 388 | | | |
| Personal sacrifice | | | | | |
| Between Groups | 249.99 | 3 | 83.33 | 3.766 | .011 |
| Within Groups | 8519.37 | 385 | 22.13 | | |
| Total | 8769.37 | 388 | | | |

Table 10b
 Analysis of Variance-Effects of educational level on commitment
 Table of Means

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|-----------------------------|------------|--------------|----------------|
| Affective commitment | | | |
| High school & some college | 100 | 24.59 | 7.20 |
| Technical/trade & associate | 63 | 22.41* | 7.41 |
| Baccalaureate | 97 | 26.07* | 8.23 |
| Masters or graduate | 129 | 26.18** | 7.80 |
| Total | 389 | 25.14 | 7.79 |
| Lack of alternatives | | | |
| High school & some college | 100 | 12.30*** | 4.42 |
| Technical/trade & associate | 63 | 11.15 | 3.98 |
| Baccalaureate | 97 | 9.91*** | 4.27 |
| Masters or graduate | 129 | 10.85* | 4.16 |
| Total | 389 | 11.03 | 4.30 |
| Personal sacrifice | | | |
| High school & some college | 100 | 17.28* | 4.67 |
| Technical/trade & associate | 63 | 15.40 | 4.55 |
| Baccalaureate | 97 | 15.46* | 4.87 |
| Masters or graduate | 129 | 15.47* | 4.67 |
| Total | 389 | 15.92 | 4.75 |

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 11

Fit Statistics for Factor Analytic Models

| Comparative Fit Indices for Alternative Models | | | | | | |
|--|----------|----|---------|-------|------|------|
| | χ^2 | Df | P Value | RMSEA | GFI | CFI |
| Null Model | 694.179 | 91 | | .158 | .716 | 0.00 |
| Model 1 | 169.792 | 13 | .000 | .213 | .932 | .740 |
| Model 2 | 33.455 | 12 | .001 | .082 | .983 | .964 |
| Model 3 | 18.239 | 11 | .076 | .05 | .988 | .988 |
| Model 4 | 13.267 | 10 | .209 | .035 | .993 | .995 |

Table 12
Regression Weights for Model 4

| <u>Parameter</u> | Unstandardized Estimate | Standard Error | Standardized Estimate | Critical Ratio |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|----------------|-----------------------|----------------|
| persac <----- sex | 0.097 | 0.619 | 0.010 | 0.157 |
| lackalt <----- sex | -0.020 | 0.565 | -0.002 | -0.035 |
| affcom<----- sex | -1.082 | 0.992 | -0.068 | -1.091 |
| persac <----- educ | -0.163 | 0.321 | -0.039 | -0.509 |
| lackalt <----- educ | -0.342 | 0.293 | -0.088 | -1.168 |
| affcom<----- educ | -0.056 | 0.514 | -0.008 | -0.109 |
| persac <----- age | 0.044 | 0.044 | 0.063 | 0.994 |
| lackalt <----- age | -0.001 | 0.040 | -0.001 | -0.014 |
| affcom<----- age | -0.125 | 0.070 | -0.111 | -1.775 |
| persac <----- childno | 0.348 | 0.276 | 0.075 | 1.261 |
| lackalt <----- childno | 0.224 | 0.303 | 0.044 | 0.741 |
| affcom<----- childno | 0.966 | 0.485 | 0.118 | 1.993 |
| persac <----- occup | -0.103 | 0.187 | -0.040 | -0.551 |
| lackalt <----- occup | 0.069 | 0.171 | 0.030 | 0.406 |
| affcom<----- occup | 0.503 | 0.300 | 0.122 | 1.677 |
| persac <----- fin2perc | 0.034 | 0.020 | 0.109 | 1.695 |
| lackalt <----- fin2perc | 0.037 | 0.018 | 0.128 | 2.010 |
| affcom<----- fin2perc | -0.114 | 0.032 | -0.225 | -3.543 |
| persac <----- Income | -0.010 | 0.015 | -0.049 | -0.683 |
| lackalt <----- Income | -0.026 | 0.013 | -0.140 | -1.959 |
| affcom<----- Income | 0.019 | 0.024 | 0.056 | 0.785 |
| persac <----- primary | -0.268 | 0.621 | -0.028 | -0.432 |
| lackalt <----- primary | 0.381 | 0.567 | 0.043 | 0.672 |
| affcom<----- primary | -0.583 | 0.995 | -0.037 | -0.586 |
| persac <----- extmot | 0.222 | 0.055 | 0.247 | 4.045 |
| lackalt <----- extmot | 0.142 | 0.050 | 0.172 | 2.830 |
| affcom<----- extmot | -0.127 | 0.088 | -0.088 | -1.449 |
| persac <----- intmot | -0.025 | 0.056 | -0.026 | -0.444 |
| lackalt <----- intmot | -0.081 | 0.051 | -0.093 | -1.586 |
| affcom<----- intmot | 0.079 | 0.089 | 0.051 | 0.880 |
| itl <----- persac | -0.092 | 0.078 | 0.080 | 1.181 |
| itl <----- lackalt | -0.319 | 0.086 | -0.255 | -3.725 |
| itl <----- affcom | -0.313 | 0.037 | -0.422 | -8.350 |
| itl <----- fin2perc | 0.068 | 0.020 | 0.189 | 3.398 |
| itl <----- age | -0.094 | 0.042 | -0.118 | -2.239 |

Table 13

Results of t-test for primary and secondary wage earners

| | | N | Mean | Std.Dev. | F | t | df | Sig. |
|---------------------|-----------|-----|-------|----------|--------|--------|-----|------|
| Extrinsic Mot. | Primary | 215 | 40.18 | 5.25 | .274 | 2.566 | 389 | .011 |
| | Secondary | 176 | 38.79 | 5.44 | | | | |
| Intrinsic Mot. | Primary | 215 | 46.51 | 5.16 | 1.244 | .446 | 389 | .656 |
| | Secondary | 176 | 46.28 | 4.83 | | | | |
| Intent to Leave | Primary | 215 | 9.89 | 5.71 | .070 | .343 | 389 | .732 |
| | Secondary | 176 | 9.70 | 5.69 | | | | |
| Fin2perc | Primary | 215 | 46.64 | 16.04 | .568 | 2.415 | 389 | .016 |
| | Secondary | 176 | 42.60 | 17.00 | | | | |
| Income | Primary | 209 | 53.22 | 30.14 | 39.102 | -6.356 | 380 | .000 |
| | Secondary | 173 | 70.86 | 22.59 | | | | |
| Affective. Comm. | Primary | 215 | 25.38 | 7.77 | .063 | .648 | 389 | .517 |
| | Secondary | 176 | 24.86 | 7.81 | | | | |
| Lack of Alt. | Primary | 215 | 11.09 | 4.10 | 2.866 | .212 | 389 | .832 |
| | Secondary | 176 | 11.00 | 4.57 | | | | |
| Personal Sac. | Primary | 215 | 16.33 | 4.80 | .176 | 1.829 | 389 | .068 |
| | Secondary | 176 | 15.45 | 4.67 | | | | |
| Age | Primary | 213 | 37.37 | 7.09 | .051 | .318 | 381 | .751 |
| | Secondary | 170 | 37.13 | 7.44 | | | | |

Appendix B

Models 1-4

Figure 1: Model 1

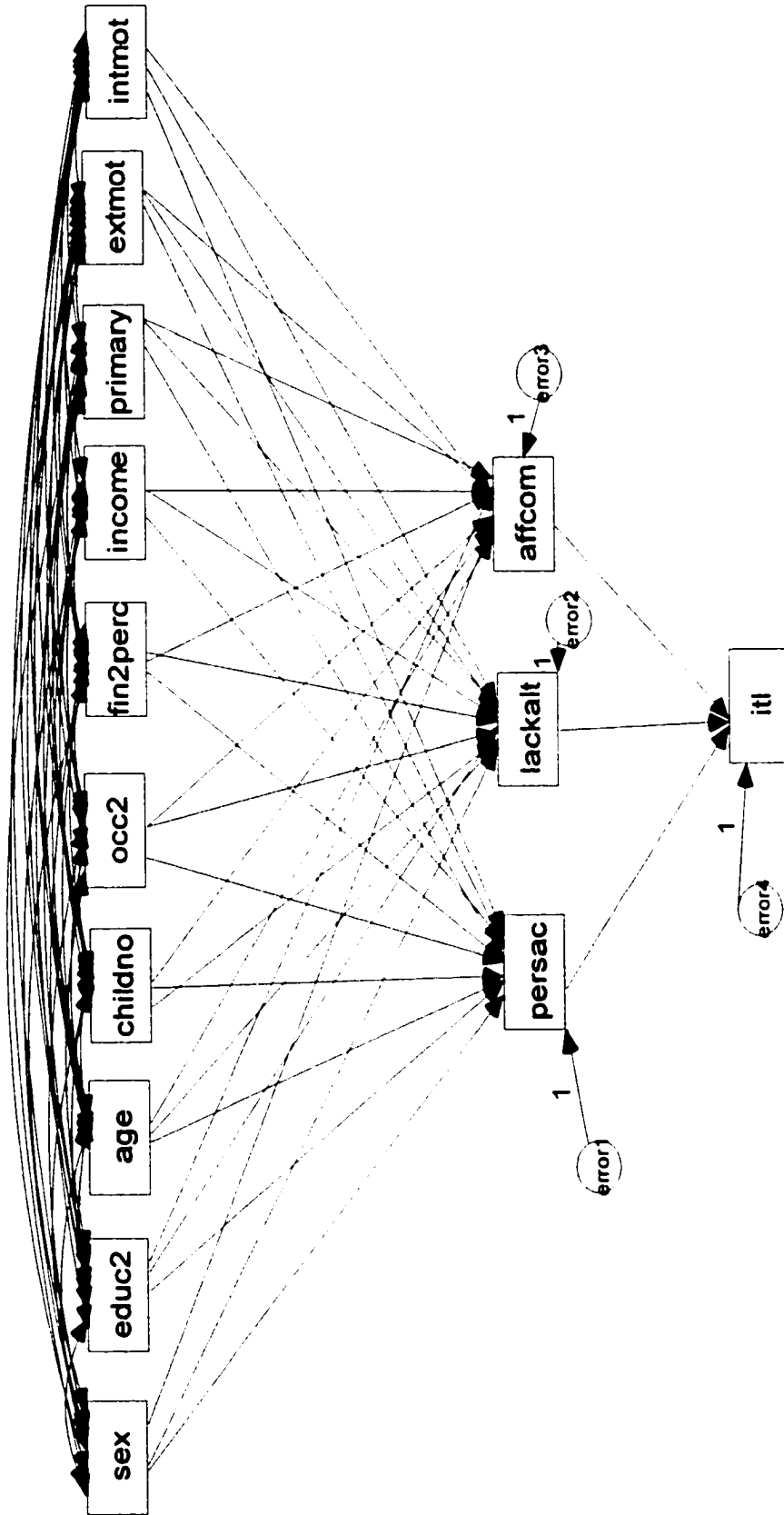


Figure 2: Model 2

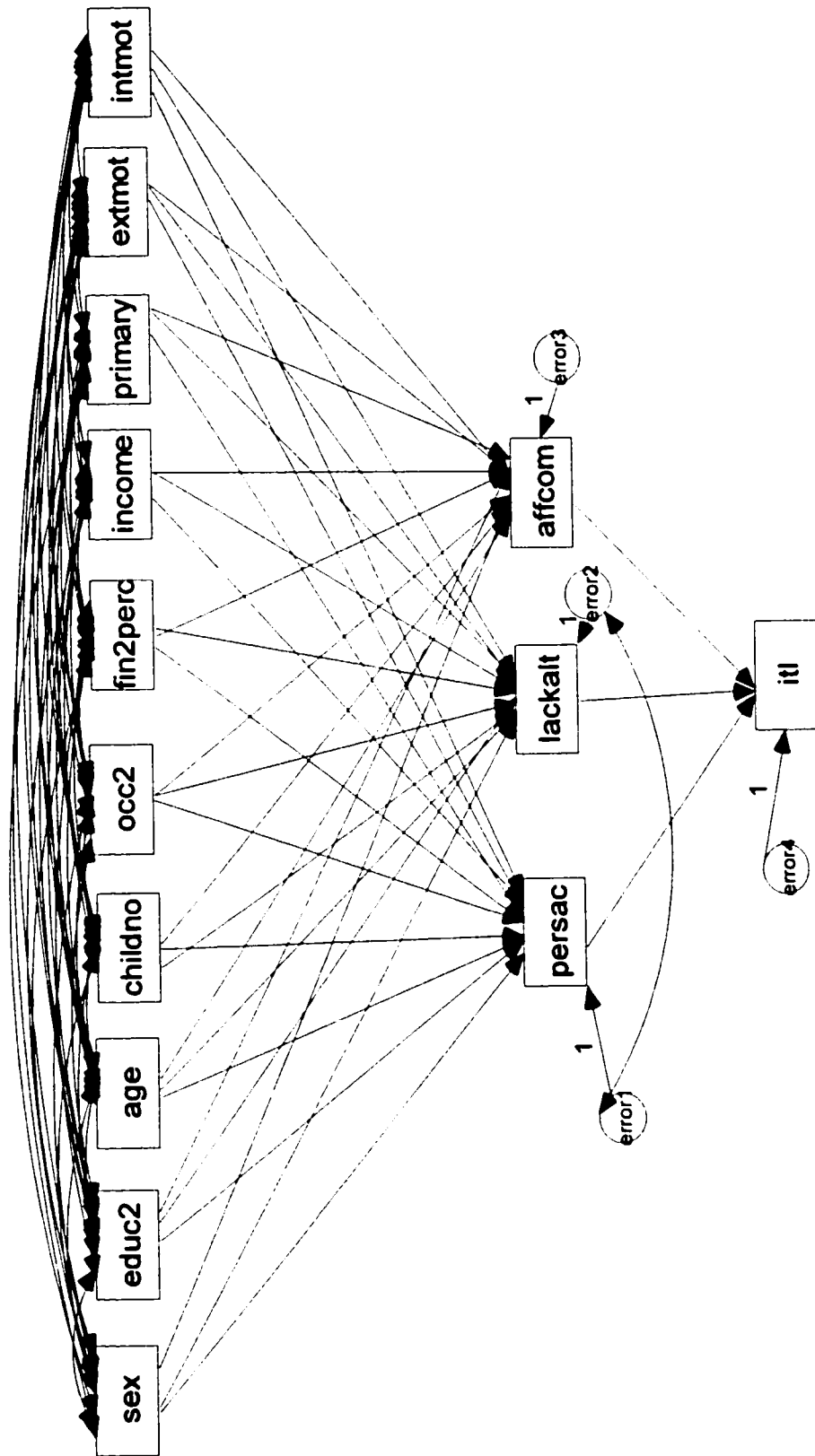


Figure 3: Model 3

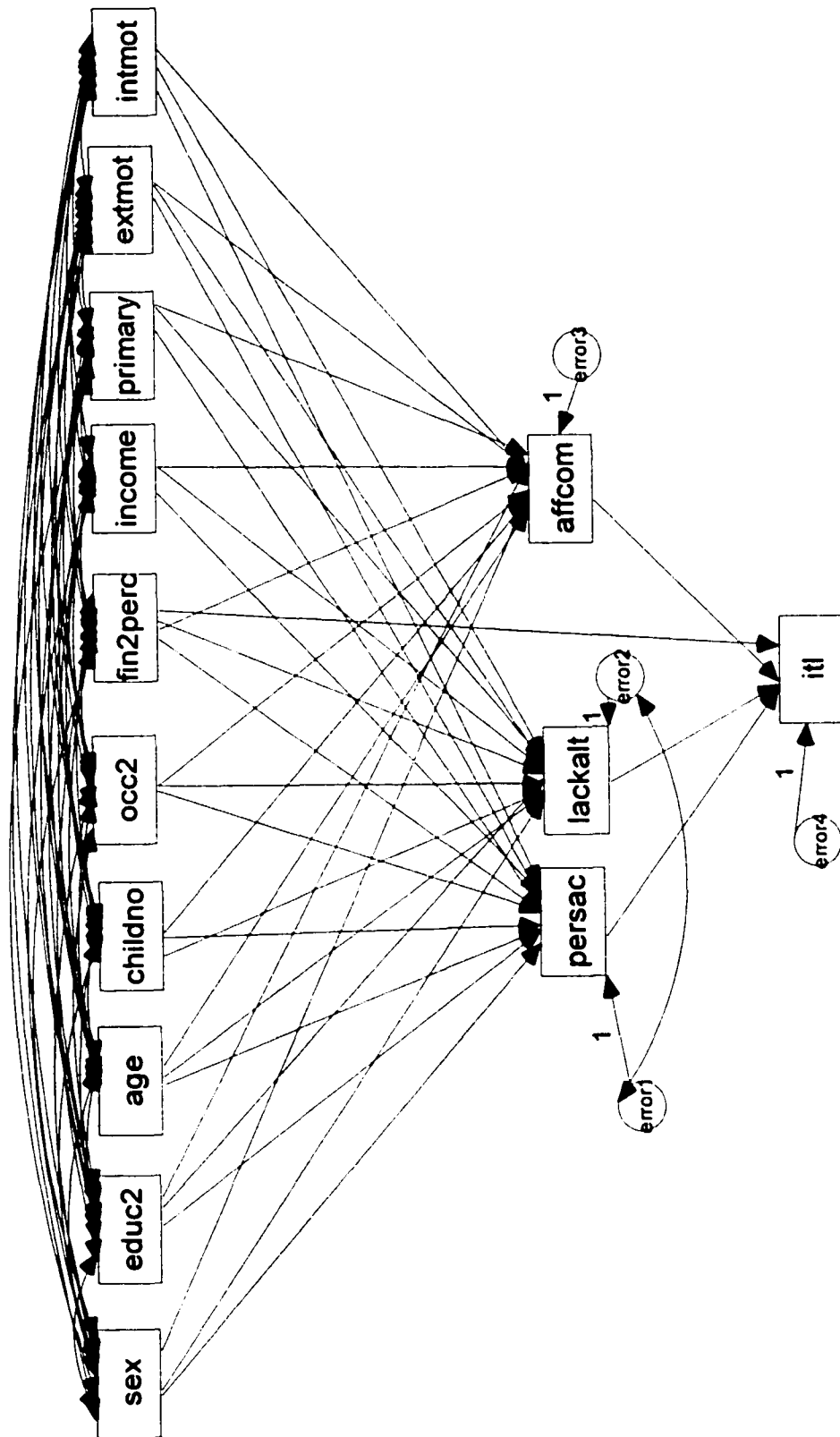
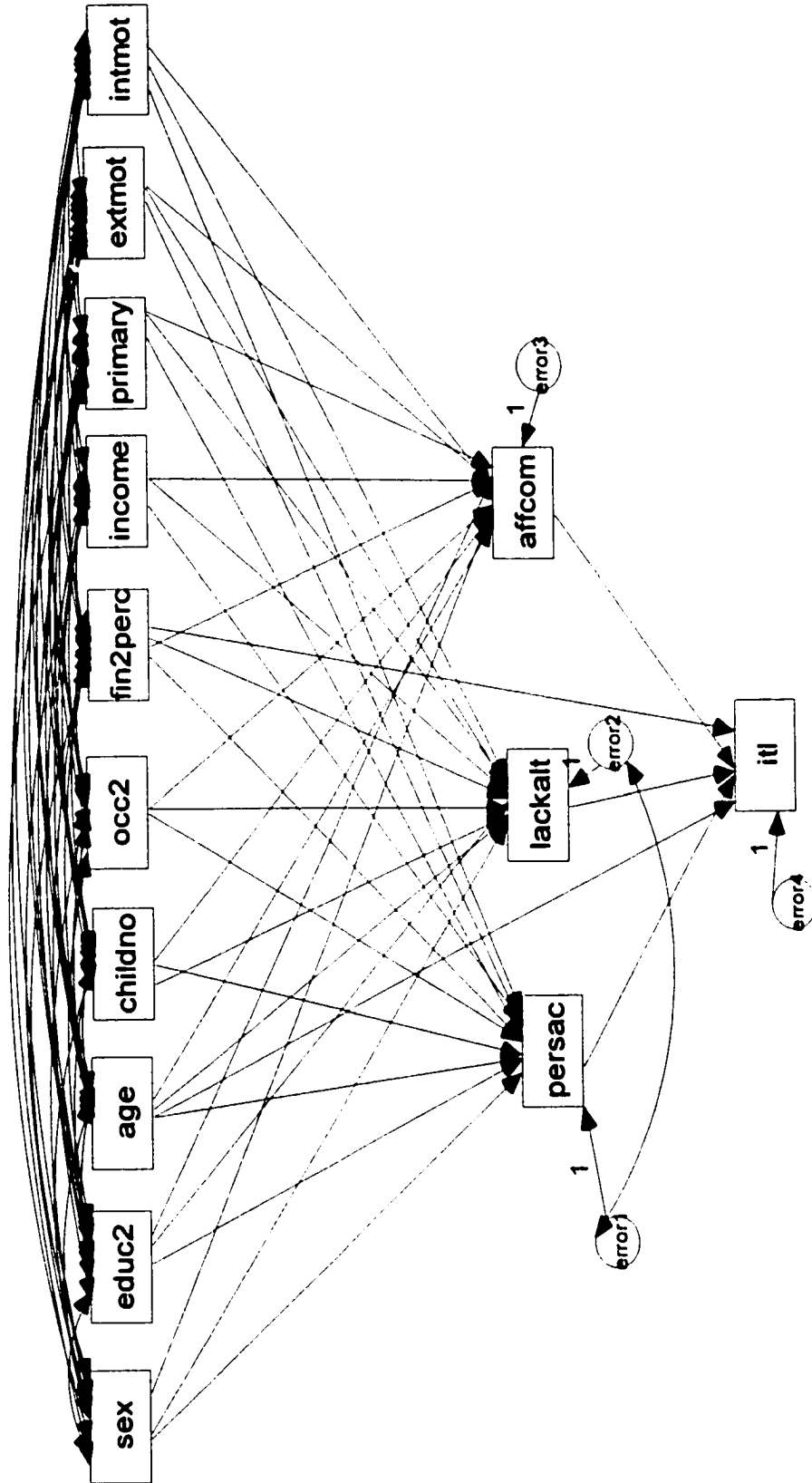


Figure 4: Model 4



Appendix C

Attention Working Parents:

Do you work full time and have at least one child under 18 years of age? If so, please participate in a survey of parental issues, and your opinions about your job and company. Any information you provide will be anonymous and will be kept strictly confidential. The survey is being conducted by Margarita Almonte in affiliation with Baruch College of the City University of New York. You can access the survey from your home computer by logging onto <http://www.ercdataplus.com/parents>. You may also obtain a paper copy by calling (212) 340-2297 or email Almontem@aol.com.

Appendix D

Working Parents Study

Dear Parent:

If you work at least 30 hours per week and have one or more children under 18 years of age, I need your assistance. I am asking you to participate in research that is part of the requirements of the Doctoral program in Industrial and Organizational Psychology at Baruch College of the City University of New York. The research focuses on some of the issues that affect working parents, and will contribute to a better understanding of parental issues in the workplace. You will be asked to complete a survey of your opinions about your job and organization. The survey also contains some questions regarding your personal life situation. **All of the information you provide will be kept strictly confidential. Do not write your name on the questionnaire.** The information you provide will be used solely for research purposes. This survey will not be shared with your employer and will not affect your job in any way. Completing the survey will indicate that you voluntarily choose to participate in this research project. Please answer all of the questions to the best of your knowledge. The survey will take approximately 15 minutes.

If you have any questions about this survey or if you would like a summary of the findings of this study, please contact Margarita Almonte at (212) 340-2297 during weekdays or at the following email address: Almontem@aol.com.

Please return completed copies in the stamped envelope provided to:

**Margarita Almonte
405 Tarrytown Road #256
White Plains, NY 10607**

You have rights as a research volunteer. Taking part in this study is voluntary. If you do not take part, you will have no penalty and lose no benefits. You may stop taking part in this study at any time. **You may stop taking part in this study at any time**, with no penalty or loss of any benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you have any questions about **your rights as a research volunteer**, call or write:

Paul Kran
Baruch College
Sponsored Programs and Research
17 Lexington Avenue Rm. 1521 Box A 1621
New York, NY 10010
(212) 802-3028

Thank you very much for your participation and cooperation.

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about your organization, please answer each item by circling the number that best indicates how you feel.

| | Strongly Disagree | | | | | | Strongly Agree |
|--|-------------------|---|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| 1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

The following statements are intended to obtain an idea about your feelings for your job. Please answer the following statements by indicating the extent to which each statement describes you.

| | Never or almost never true of me | Usually not true of me | Usually true of me | Always or almost always true of me |
|--|----------------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------------|
| 14. I am not that concerned with what other people think of my work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. I prefer having someone set clear goals for me in my work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. The more difficult the problem, the more I enjoy trying to solve it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 17. I am keenly aware of the income goals I have for myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. I want my work to provide me with opportunities for increasing my knowledge and skills. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. To me, success means doing better than other people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. I prefer to figure things out for myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. No matter what the outcome of a project, I am satisfied if I feel I gained a new experience. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. I enjoy relatively simple, straight forward tasks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. I am keenly aware of the promotion goals I have for myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. Curiosity is the driving force behind much of what I do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. I'm less concerned with what work I do than what I get for it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. I enjoy tackling problems that are completely new to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27. I prefer work I know I can do well over work that stretches my abilities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. I'm concerned about how other people are going to react to my ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | Never or almost never true of me | Usually not true of me | usually true of me | Always or almost always true of me |
|---|----------------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------------|
| 29. I seldom think about salary and promotions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 30. I'm more comfortable when I can set my own goals. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 31. I believe that there is no point in doing a good job if nobody else knows about it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 32. I am strongly motivated by the money I can earn. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 33. It is important for me to be able to do what I most enjoy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 34. I prefer working on projects with clearly specified procedures. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 35. As long as I can do what I enjoy, I am not that concerned about exactly what I am paid. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 36. I enjoy doing work that is so absorbing that I forget about every thing else. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 37. I am strongly motivated by the recognition I can earn from other people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 38. I have to feel that I am earning something for what I do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 39. I enjoy trying to solve complex problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 40. It is important for me to have an outlet for self expression. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 41. I want to find out how good I really can be at my work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 42. I want other people to find out how good I really can be at my work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 43. What matters most to me is enjoying what I do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | Not at all likely | | Somewhat likely | | Quite likely | | Extreme-ly likely |
|--|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|----------------|------------------|-------------------|
| 44. How likely is it that you will actively look for a new job in the next year? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neither Agree Nor Disagree | Slightly Agree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree |
| 45. I often think about quitting. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 46. I will probably look for a new job next year. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Listed below are a number of things that might be a source of concern or worry for someone. For each item, please indicate whether you never worry, worry a little, worry sometimes, worry a lot, or worry all the time about it. (Check one response for each item.)

| Worry about... | Never worry | Worry A little | Worry Sometimes | Worry a lot | Worry all the time |
|--|-------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------|--------------------|
| 47. Making ends meet | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 48. Paying for housing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 49. Paying for food | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 50. Paying for utilities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 51. Paying for recreation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 52. Paying for health care | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 53. Paying off debts | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 54. Paying for clothing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 55. Paying for transportation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 56. Paying for insurance | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 57. Paying for education | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 58. Getting ahead financially | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 59. Saving for the future | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 60. Having a steady income | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 61. Having an income that increases with inflation | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 62. Maintaining your current standard of living | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 63. Paying for Childcare | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

64. When you think about your income and expenses would you say that your income is greater than your expenses, your income and expenses are about the same, or that your expenses are greater than your income? (CIRCLE ONE RESPONSE.)

- a) Our INCOME is much greater than expenses
- b) Our INCOME is somewhat greater than expenses
- c) Our INCOME and EXPENSES are about the same
- d) Our EXPENSES are somewhat greater than our income
- e) Our EXPENSES are much greater than our income

Demographics Questions for Working Parents

Dear participant, please answer the following questions to the best of your knowledge by circling your choice.

1. Sex
 - a) Male
 - b) Female

2. What is your marital status?
 - a) Married
 - b) Single (never married)
 - c) Divorced
 - d) Separated Widowed

3. How old are you? _____

4. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
 - a) Junior high school (up to 8th grade)
 - b) High school (up to 12th grade)
 - c) Some college
 - d) Technical or trade school
 - e) Associate degree
 - f) Baccalaureate degree
 - g) Master's degree or graduate education

5. On average, how many hours per week do you work? _____

6. How long have you been with your current company/organization? _____ years.

7. What is your occupation? _____
8. What is your current job title? _____
9. Please circle your level at work.
 - a) Administrator (Having primary, but non-supervisory, responsibility for a project or ongoing function of the organization)
 - b) Clerical-Secretarial (Including bookkeeper, receptionist, key punch operator, etc.).
 - c) Craftsman (Manual work for which special training, apprenticeship, or licensing is required).
 - d) Manager (Supervising others who, in turn, supervise others).
 - e) Operator-Laborer (Manual work that requires only training specific to the job).
 - f) Professional (Doctor, Lawyer, Engineer, Scientist, C.P.A., Architect, Registered Nurse, etc.).
 - g) Salesperson (Retail Trade, Insurance, Real Estate, etc.).
 - h) Supervisor or Foreman
 - i) Technical-Semi-professional (White collar work that requires some college and / or a technical degree).
 - j) Other _____

10. Living arrangement:
- a) Living with another adult, with dependent children
 - b) Living alone, with dependent children.
11. Is your spouse or significant other employed?
- a) Yes, full-time
 - b) Yes, part-time
 - c) No
 - d) Not Applicable
12. Who is the primary wage-earner in your family?
- a) Myself
 - b) My spouse
 - c) Our salaries contribute equally
13. How many children under 18 years of age live with you ? _____
14. What are their ages? _____
15. What was your **total family income**, from all sources, for 1999 before taxes? (Circle one response.)
- a) \$10,000 or less
 - b) \$10,001 - \$20,000
 - c) \$20,001 - \$30,000
 - d) \$30,001 - \$40,000
 - e) \$40,001 - \$50,000
 - f) \$50,001 - \$60,000
 - g) \$60,001 - \$70,000
 - h) \$70,001 - \$80,000
 - i) \$80,001 - \$90,000
 - j) \$90,001 - \$100,000
 - k) more than \$100,000

Thank you very much for your participation.

Appendix E

Path Analysis Information

Assumptions underlying the use of a model are based on theoretical considerations discussed in the literature review. The diagram is a useful device for displaying graphically the pattern of causal relations among a set of variables. In the causal model, a distinction is made between exogenous and endogenous variables. An exogenous variable is a variable whose variability is assumed to be determined by causes outside the causal model. Consequently, the determination of an exogenous variable is not under consideration in the model. No attempt is made to explain the variability of an exogenous variable or its relations with other exogenous variables. An endogenous variable is one whose variation is explained by exogenous or endogenous variables in the system.

The path analytic technique is a network of linear relationships among observed variables that tests the extent to which the theoretical model represents the data. It is a procedure of least likelihood estimation which provides a test of the parameter estimates. The path coefficients between the variables reflect the strength of the linkage between those variables.

The arrows between the variables are causal paths. These arrows are standardized regression coefficients which tell to what extent a change on the variable at the tail of the arrow is transmitted to the variable at the head of the arrow. Because they are partial regression coefficients, this is the change that occurs with all other variables on the diagram held constant. The changes are measured in standard deviation units because the coefficients are standardized. These coefficients are also known as beta weights. The

causal paths in the diagram can be solved as beta weights in a series of multiple regression analyses because all the variables are measured.

The causal flow of this model is unidirectional. An endogenous variable treated as dependent in one set of variables may also be conceived as an independent variable in relation to other variables. For example, such is the case with the Lack of alternatives and Personal sacrifice variables; they are dependent on the exogenous variables sex, education, age, occupational level, and extrinsic motivation but serve as independent variables in relation to intention to leave. However, because the model is unidirectional, intention to leave cannot serve as an independent variable for the exogenous variables (sex, education, age, occupational level, and extrinsic motivation).

Variables can have direct or indirect effects on one another. A direct effect is indicated by a path coefficient (depicted by a single causal arrow) that links two variables. An indirect effect is indicated by path coefficients leading from an X to a Y variable that occurs in a manner that is not direct. In other words, the effect of extrinsic motivation to intention to leave is transmitted via a mediating variable (e.g. affective commitment). Thus, all things being equal, if extrinsic motivation changes, it will have an effect on affective commitment which will lead to a change on intention to leave.

In order to assess how well the model fits the data, several indices can be used. The most commonly used statistic, which is calculated by Amos, is the chi-square goodness-of-fit. The underlying assumption of the chi-square statistic is that it is able to recreate the observed covariance matrix. If the observed covariance matrix is significantly different from the predicted covariance matrix, the model is not considered

to be acceptable for the data. In model testing, chi-square values that reach significance will result in the model being rejected due to improper fit. In addition, the GFI coefficient (goodness of fit index), CFI (comparative fit index), and the RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation) are examined. The GFI is based on a ratio of squared discrepancies to observed variances (Loehlin, 1992). The GFI has values that range from 0 to 1. Conventionally, indices of .9 and above are considered to represent fits that are above average. The CFI is derived from the comparison of an hypothesized model with the independence model and also has values that range from 0 to 1. However, values of .95 and above are considered representative of a well-fitting model (Byrne, 2001). The RMSEA is an index of absolute fit of the model being tested. Values of .05 and below indicate a good fit and values of .06 to .08 indicate acceptable fit. RMSEA values of .09 and above indicate mediocre or poor fit. On occasions where the model in question is judged to be inadequate, several approaches can be taken to modify the model. The model can be modified by freeing certain parameters that were originally fixed. If a parameter is fixed, it is given a value of 0 and not estimated. If the parameter is freed, it is estimated by Amos. The parameters that can be freed are determined by examining the modification indices. The modification indices are a calculation of how much the chi-square value will be improved by freeing each path in the model. Generally, paths that contain modification values above 4 should be freed. The model can be modified as long as it can be interpreted conceptually. Modification indices were examined throughout the process and, as a result, certain parameters were added.

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