To what extent does organizational culture affect employee commitment?
An explorative study in Italian companies

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ABSTRACT

One of the greatest assets companies have, in order to be successful in today's economy, is "human capital", and with that also comes the challenge to retain employees within the company itself. For this reason, it is very important to consider "organizational culture" and "employees' commitment". The aim of this research is to analyze the relationship between these two crucial aspects, with a specific focus on the Italian context. Starting from the review of the extant literature and models, this relationship has been further investigated with the support of statistical analysis to empirically assess which organizational model is more related to a higher level of employees' commitment. Based on data collected through questionnaires and interviews, the results of the empirical analyses show how the "clan organizational culture style" can generate a higher level of commitment among employees, with employees expressing their commitment in the form of "affectionate commitment". Furthermore, commitment has been found to be related to employees' age and the size of the firm where respondents work, and not to the nature of the work itself. Moreover, the findings revealed the relevance of "organizational culture" in forming "employees' commitment". Indeed, firms wanting to increase their employees' commitment have to create a challenging, fair, and pleasant work environment in which commitment can grow. Additionally, our findings may suggest future studies to focus on the relationship between employees' commitment and job opportunities, and on the motivations that guide workers' choice between different job opportunities.

Una delle più grandi risorse che le aziende hanno, per avere successo nell'economia di oggi, è il "capitale umano", e con ciò arriva anche la sfida di fare rimanere i dipendenti all'interno dell'azienda stessa. Per questo motivo è molto importante considerare la "cultura organizzativa" e l'"impegno dei dipendenti". Lo scopo di questa ricerca è quello di analizzare la relazione tra questi due aspetti cruciali, con un focus specifico sul contesto italiano. A partire dalla revisione della letteratura e dei modelli esistenti, la relazione tra le due variabili è stata ulteriormente indagata con il supporto di analisi statistiche per valutare empiricamente quale modello organizzativo sia più correlato a un livello più elevato di impegno dei dipendenti. Sulla base dei dati raccolti attraverso questionari e interviste, i risultati

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delle analisi empiriche mostrano come lo "stile di cultura organizzativa di clan" possa generare un maggiore impegno tra i dipendenti, con i dipendenti che esprimono il proprio impegno sotto forma di "impegno affettuoso". Inoltre, è stato riscontrato che l'impegno è correlato all'età dei dipendenti e alle dimensioni dell'azienda in cui lavorano gli intervistati, e non alla natura del lavoro stesso. Inoltre, i risultati hanno rivelato l'importanza della "cultura organizzativa" nella formazione dell'"impegno dei dipendenti". In effetti, le aziende che desiderano aumentare l'impegno dei propri dipendenti devono creare un ambiente di lavoro stimolante, equo e piacevole in cui l'impegno possa crescere. Inoltre, i nostri risultati potrebbero suggerire studi futuri per concentrarsi sulla relazione tra impegno dei dipendenti e opportunità di lavoro e sulle motivazioni che guidano la scelta dei lavoratori tra diverse opportunità di lavoro.

1 – Introduction

Nowadays, one of companies' greatest assets in order to achieve competitive advantage is human capital – intended as skills, knowledge, experience, and personal attributes possessed by an individual and represented by the ability to perform labor so as to produce value (Schultz, 1961; Becker, 1960; Ployhart *et al.*, 2014; Nafukho *et al.*, 2004); therefore, one of the greatest challenges a company has to face is the retention of its employees. In this perspective, firms have to compete both on the product and labor market to attract the best skills and competences. To this aim, employees should be considered an essential constituent – strategic assets – for the organization (Wright & McMahan, 2011), to whom specific training and development activities should be provided (Bulut & Culha, 2010; Owoyemi *et al.*, 2011). In addition, "organizational commitment" and "organizational culture" represent focal aspects to ensure the employees' withholding in the organization (Sheridan, 1992; Hausknecht *et al.*, 2009; Chew & Chan, 2008). Accordingly, previous literature has demonstrated that on the one hand committed employees were less likely to quit their jobs (e.g., Panaccio *et al.*, 2023); while, on the other hand, they had better job performances, higher satisfaction, and less absenteeism (Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Somers, 1995; Cohen, 2007). Since the beneficial role of commitment has been widely demonstrated, further research on this topic is needed to help companies sustain this process among their employees.

The term "commitment" can be described as

> the process through which individual interests become attached to the carrying out of socially organized patterns of behavior which are seen as fulfilling those interests, as expressing the nature and needs of the person (Kanter, 1968, p. 500).

Once applied to the working environment, this concept represents the relationship between the organization and the employee. Scholars have recognized the existence of two forms of commitment: organizational commitment and employee commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006).   The former has been defined as one's identification and involvement within the organization through their believes in the organization's goals and values, effort to act on behalf of the organization, desire to remain in the organization itself, and contribute to the organization's well-being (Beck & Wilson, 2000; Mowday *et al.*, 1979). Instead, the latter has been defined as the psychological affiliation felt by an individual towards the

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organization, which could be manifested though the degree of internalization and adoption of the organization's attribute by the individual; thereby, it could be detected in the form of the desire for association and internalization (e.g., O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Ghosh & Swamy, 2014).

Another fundamental element for companies is organizational culture. It can be defined as the underlying beliefs, assumptions, values, and ways of interacting that contribute to the unique organizational social and psychological environment. Based on shared attitudes, core mission, goals and written and unwritten rules that have been consolidated over time (Schein, 1990; Linnenluecke & Griffiths, 2010), a strong organizational culture is a powerful handle for guiding behavior (Deal & Kennedy, 1982), as it differentiates organizations among themselves, by conveying a feeling of identity to members, facilitating commitment to something larger than the individual's self-interests and enhancing the social system stability (Afshari *et al.*, 2020). Amongst different researchers, Cameron and Quinn (1999; 2011) introduced a culture model based on four core values: flexibility, stability, integration, differentiation; and depending on their combination, four different organizational cultures were theorized (clan, market, hierarchy and adhocracy culture).

Considering the importance of employees' commitment for competitive advantage, and research about the already existing correlation between the different types of organizational culture and employees' commitment (e.g., Huey Yiing & Zaman Bin Ahmad, 2009), the present research attempts to analyze this aspect in the Italian cultural context.

Therefore, the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 will present the theoretical framework, discussing the already existing literature by focusing, in particular, on the three main aspects that frame the research: employees' commitment, organizational culture and the concrete situation in the Italian context (considering the dimensions proposed by Hofstede (1980; 1994; 2011) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998). Later, Section 3 will describe the methodology adopted for the empirical part of this study, while Section 4 will provide the factual analysis of the gathered data. Section 5 and Section 6 will respectively present the discussion of the results and their implications in the Italian reality. Finally, Section 7 will conclude the paper by linking its findings to concrete applications, while still contemplating the limits and providing hints for future research (Section 8).

2 – Theoretical framework

Human resource management is a strategic factor, in order to gain or keep a competitive advantage for the organization, as managing human capital in a strategic way may sustain employees' personal success and the achieving of higher performances. Hence, the employees represent the backbone of the organization, a much needed and critical component to achieve success (Ployhart *et al.*, 2014; Nafukho *et al.*, 2004; Wright & McMahan, 2011). So, to keep the employees as a critical contributor to the organization, it is important that employers made them feel part of the organizational culture by understanding their motivations and satisfaction, inspiring enthusiasm, treating them with respect and trust, recognizing their personal success and holding them accountable for the performance goals, paying attention to work-life balance (Chan *et al.*, 2004). Hence, the importance of investing on them to make them stay within the organization by leveraging on the organizational commitment and organizational culture (Sheridan, 1992; Hausknecht *et al.*, 2009; Chew & Chan, 2008).

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2.1 – *Employee commitment*

As aforementioned, organizational commitment represents the value and interests-based relationship that arises between the employee and the organization, which is characterized by the feeling of involvement and identification and the willingness to stay within the organization, acting on its behalf (Beck & Wilson, 2000; Mowday *et al.*, 1979; Mowday, 1998; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006).

Organizational commitment may be also looked at as an organizational member's psychological attachment to the organization – and it plays a role in defining whether a member will stay with the organization and work towards its goals (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Buchanan, 1974). Previous literature highlighted how employee commitment was related to: motivation (Mowday *et al.*, 1979; Loor-Zambrano *et al.*, 2022), regular attendance (Steers & Rhodes, 1978; Somers, 1995), secure and stable workforce (Steers, 1977), creativity (Porter *et al.*, 1974; Chang *et al.*, 2014; Wu & Chen, 2018), willingness to stay even in turbulent times, to protect company assets and share company goals, increased job satisfaction (Buchanan, 1974; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992), increased job performance and decreased intention to search for alternative employers (Buchanan, 1974; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Cohen, 2007). Of course, all these factors will eventually lead to improved performance, productivity, and a competitive advantage; but, as always, moderation is the key. Because, having over-committed employees can lead to job and occupational burnout, obsessive-compulsive patterns at work, and neurotic compulsion to succeed (Lowman, 1993; Joksimovic *et al.*, 2002; Kinman & Jones, 2008).

Furthermore, when analyzing the topic of employee commitment, it is worth of notice to cite the psychological contract, to be intended as the implicit understanding between an employer and the employee (Schein, 1978; Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1994; Rousseau, 1995). The psychological contract can be defined as the employees' perception of the implicit agreement between themselves and the organization, containing a shared responsibility between the two parties (Guest, 1998; Sims, 1994; Ng *et al.*, 2014) – essentially, it is a description of what an employee expects to contribute to the employment relationship and what the employer will provide the employee in exchange for those contributions.

Studies by Low *et al.* (2016) revealed that the psychological contract influences the effective commitment of employees – therefore, the fulfilment of the expectations is more likely to give the employee a sense of emotional attachment to the organization, that is related to the affective commitment. On account of the previous considerations, it can be argued that commitment is about employees' identification and involvement, to be intended as a sense of loyalty and affection towards the organization and a feeling to be aligned with the company's values (Porter *et al.*, 1974; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Buchanan, 1974).

Going more in dept in the extant literature, the most considered research concerning employee commitment is the one of Meyer and Allen (1984; 1997) and Allen and Meyer (1990), which identifies the three main components of commitment. More precisely:

1. AFFECTION FOR THE JOB ("*affective commitment*"). It refers to the employees' emotional attachment, identification, and involvement in the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Those members who are committed on an emotional level stay with the organization because they perceive their personal employment relationship as congruent to the goals and values of the organization. The strength of affective organizational commitment is influenced by the extent to which the individual's needs and expectations about the organization are matched by their

actual experience (Cohen, 2007). Affective commitment is influenced by factors such as job challenge, role clarity, goal clarity, goal difficulty, receptiveness by management, peer cohesion, equity, personal importance, feedback, participation, and dependability. The affective component of commitment reminds of a desire to belong to the company, and it can be conceptualized as an exchange of loyalty and effort in order to achieve benefits and social rewards (Kuvaas, 2006; Bergman, 2006).

2. FEAR OF LOSS ("*continuance commitment*"). It refers to commitment related more to the negative aspects that employees will experience with leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bergman, 2006). Stemming out the Becker's side back notion (1960), continuance commitment is shown when the employee weighs up the pros and cons of leaving the organization, and the loss experienced by leaving the organization are greater than the benefits that may come from a new role; in this case, commitment is developed because of the positive extrinsic rewards obtained (i.e., money) without identifying with the organization's goals and values (Genevičiūtė-Janonienė & Endriulaitienė, 2014; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009; Meyer *et al.*, 2002).

3. OBLIGATION TO STAY ("*normative commitment*"). It shows when the employee feels a sense of obligation to the organization, even if the role covered is not the best one (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer *et al.*, 2002; Bergman, 2006). Suliman and Iles (2000) argued that the strength of normative commitment is influenced by accepted rules about reciprocal obligation between the organization and its members, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the organization gives to the individual over the years.

At this point, one important issue to discuss about commitment is: "*how can employees' commitment be developed?*". Most frequently, organizational commitment is a spontaneous process, which develops through the orientation of individuals to the organization; this process can be described based on three stages of organizational commitment – from the lowest to the highest level (O'Reilly, 1989): compliance (the individual adopts attitudes and behaviors of the surroundings because he's motivated by specific rewards), identification (when the employee starts accepting the influence of others to maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship with the organization, he/she is guided by a sense of duty and loyalty towards the organization), internalization (employees find the values of the organization more and more congruent with his/her personal values). Of course, there is no guarantee that as time goes by, all individuals will reach the internationalization stage.

Nonetheless, there are some aspects that organizations could consider in order to enhance employees' commitment: safety and security, rewards, affiliation, growth, and work/life harmony; furthermore, it has been seen that employers need to focus their attention particularly on work/life balance (Guest, 2002). Organizational commitment has also been found being related to other factors. To begin with, the financial one. Of course, whether an organization chooses to address the aforementioned needs or not, each choice has consequences; investing in them implies costs, but there are potential benefits. These benefits derived from greater work life fit include better recruiting, less absenteeism (Mowday *et al.*, 1982) lower turnover and better work and career behaviors – hence healthier employees, which translate to less health care treatment (Somers, 1995; Grawitch *et al.*, 2007; Cascio & Boudreau, 2010). Other than that, commitment has been positively related to personal characteristics such as: age, length of service in a particular organization (Luthans *et al.*, 1985), marital status (Alutto *et al.*, 1973; Cohen, 1992)

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and having inverse relation to the employee's level of education (Glisson & Durick, 1988); to job-related characteristics as task autonomy (Dunham *et al.*, 1994), feedback (Hutchison & Garstka, 1996) and job challenge (Meyer *et al.*, 1998); and to certain work experiences such as job security (Steers, 1977; Yousef, 1998), promotion opportunities (Gaertner & Nollen, 1989), training and mentoring opportunities (Scandura, 1997; Bulut & Culha, 2010; Owoyemi *et al.*, 2011).

2.2 – *Organizational culture*

As stated above, "organizational culture" is usually defined as the underlying beliefs, assumptions, values, and ways of interacting that contribute to the unique social and psychological environment of a company; it also includes the organization's vision, values, norms, systems, symbols, language, assumptions, beliefs, and habits (Wallace *et al.*, 1999; Sun, 2008; Linnenluecke & Griffiths, 2010). Moreover, organizational culture may affect how much employees identify with an organization.

To better understand this concept, Schein's onion model (1983a) can be cited. According to this model organizational culture can be divided in three levels.

The FIRST LEVEL is made of the *artefacts and symbols* which are visible by employees and third parties (i.e., technology, art, visible and audible behavior patterns, architecture).

The SECOND LEVEL is represented by the *exposed values of a govern behavior*, which explain why people act the way they do within the organization.

The THIRD LEVEL is composed by *patterns of invisible and pre-conscious basic assumptions* that are usually taken for granted and that determine how people perceive, think, and feel about things; hence, in this third level it is possible to identify relationship to the environment, nature of human relationships and activity, and the nature of reality, time and space (Schein, 1983a).

Organizational culture falls within the third and last level, given that the founder and/or company leader has a crucial role in the creation of the corporate culture because of the influence he exerts on the group by transmitting his principles, visions, values, ideals. It also determines organizational behavior, by identifying principal goals, working methods, ways to interact (Schein, 1983b). Organizational culture can be either strong or weak: on the one hand, Martins and Martins (2003) have underlined how a strong culture can have a greater influence on the members' behavior, making members more committed to the core values – as they would be accepted and retained. On the other hand, a weak organizational culture would make more difficult for its members to identify with the core values and goals, making them withdraw from subscribing to them, along with the shared believes, norms and goals (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991; Wilson, 1992).

Moving forward to the creation, maintenance, and teaching of the organizational culture. An organization's culture is shaped through the *external* and *internal challenges*, as after every challenge the organization internalize and hold on to the values and behaviors adopted to overcome the challenge itself. These values, behaviors, and ways of doing business are then taught to new members (Schein, 2010).

When creating an organizational culture, one of the most important factors include founders' values, preferences, and industry demands; this is especially true during the early years, during which the culture is shaped by the most influential individuals – most often, the founders with their personality, background, and values (Schein, 1983b, 2010). Once the culture

is created, it must be maintained and transmitted to new members (Schein, 2010). It is maintained through a process known as Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA), proposed by Schneider in 1987. This person-oriented model of organizational behavior introduces the idea that the organization is defined by the collective characteristics of people (Schneider *et al.*, 1995). It refers to the fact that first, employees are attracted to organizations where they will fit in; then, during the selection phase candidates search for companies where they can fit in, alongside companies searching for the right candidate; at last, there is the attrition phase, a natural process where the candidates who do not fit will leave the company (Schneider, 1987). Research indicates that the person-organization misfit is one of the main reasons for employees' turnover (Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005; O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991). Because of the ASA process, it is possible to say that organizational culture is a self-defending organism where elements that do not fit are kept out, and that organizations demonstrate a certain level of homogeneity regarding personality and values of organizational members (Giberson *et al.*, 2005). But, in order to maintain this type of culture, it is important that employees (especially newcomers) are proactive, seek feedback to adjust their behavior and gain a better understanding of the company culture, and build strong relationships (Bauer & Green, 1998; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). What companies can do in order to foster the organizational culture is to offer a formal orientation program to teach and introduce it to new employees; specifically, previous studies have shown that when these programs are made face-to-face, they help with new employee's integration to the team, as well as with the adaptation to the organizational goals, values and power structure (Klein & Weaver, 2000; Wesson & Gogus, 2005).

Since in the extant literature a multitude of organizational culture models could be found, Table 1 proposes a comparative overview of four models, alongside a brief description on what they mainly focus on, respectively. Each one of these models can be graphically represented using a Cartesian coordinate system; hance though different variables positioned on both the X-axis and the Y-axis.

The model of *Harrison* (1972) focuses on how decisions are made and how processes are conducted, meaning on the level of (centralization and formalization). Harrison defined four different "organization ideologies":

(1) "Power orientation", organizations in which decision-making powers are concentrated in a single individual and there is bureaucracy;

(2) "Role orientation", organizations where levels of authority are clearly specified and where conflicts are resolved through defined agreements and procedures;

(3) "Task orientation", goal-oriented organizations in which individuals are evaluated according to their level of competence and authority is legitimized only by the knowledge possessed;

(4) "Person orientation", organizations that lack a formal hierarchy and whose primary purpose is to serve the interests of the people involved.

Deal and Kennedy's (1982) focuses on the type of decision to be made – how high are the risk level and how quickly the decision-maker knows if the decision was right. Their model is based on characterizing four types of organization:

(1) "Work hard/play hard", organizations characterized by small risks and fast, intense feedback, where activity is everything and success is achieved with effort;

(2) "Process", organizations where feedback is scarce, where employees are focused on the process and the goal is to try to protect the integrity of the system;

(3) "Tough guy/macho/stars", organizations where the stakes are high and feedback is rapid, where internal competition is fierce and people are very individualistic;

(4) "Bet-your-company", organizations where the risk is high, but feedback is slow and people are not putting their careers on the line, but the company.

Table 1 – Comparative overview of four organizational culture models

Authors	Harrison	Deal and Kennedy	Schneider	Cameron and Quinn
Primary focus	Process conduction and decision making (depending on both the level of centralization of decision-making and bureaucracy)	Type of decision (to take based on the level of risk and on how quickly the organization receive feedback and reward after an action)	General way of thinking in decision making (dependent on the future or present orientation of the organization and its tendency to be personal or impersonal)	Values held dear by organization (flexibility, stability, integration, differentiation)
Dimensions of the organizational model	Formalization (low or high)	Risk (low or high)	Emotional orientation (personal or impersonal)	Structure of tasks and functions (internal focus/integration or external focus/ differentiation)
	Centralization (low or high)	Feedback (slow or fast)	Time orientation (future/possibility or present/reality)	Environment state (stability/control or flexibility/ discretion)
Types of organization	Power orientation (high formalization and high centralization)	Tough guy/macho/stars (high risk and fast feedback)	Competence (impersonal and future)	Adhocracy (external focus and flexibility)
	Role orientation (low formalization and high centralization)	Work hard/play hard (low risk and fast feedback)	Cultivation (personal and future)	Clan (flexibility and internal focus)
	Task orientation (high formalization and low centralization)	Bet-your-company (high risk and slow feedback)	Control (impersonal and present)	Market (external focus and stability)
	Person orientation (low formalization and low centralization)	Process (low risk and slow feedback)	Collaboration (personal and present)	Hierarchy (internal focus and stability)

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Schneider (1999) focuses more on the general way of thinking in the decision-making process – if the decision-maker primarily think about people or the company, and if he focuses on the present or future. For Schneider the models of organization are:

(1) "Cultivation", organizations in which the culture of faith prevails, in which there is a strong belief in success, in people and in the organization;

(2) "Collaboration", organizations where the way to success comes from the ability to create a team of people linked by mutual positive affective relationships;

(3) "Control", organizations in which there is no room for emotion and subjectivity, and characterized by an impersonal environment based on the application of procedures;

(4) "Competence", organizations where the fundamental values are knowledge and information, where formalities and emotions are not important compared to the results.

Cameron and Quinn's (2011) focuses on the values held dear by the organization: flexibility, stability, differentiation, or integration. Cameron and Quinn identify four models of organization:

(1) "Hierarchy", organizations where the workplace is formalized and structured, and held together by procedures and rules;

(2) "Market", organizations characterized by a hostile external environment, and demanding consumers, committed to increasing their competitive position;

(3) "Clan", organizations concerned with developing a humane work environment and empowering employees and facilitating their participation and loyalty;

(4) "Adhocracy", organizations focused on fostering adaptability, flexibility and creativity because the environment is characterized by uncertainty.

It is worth of notice that the models of Harrison, Deal and Kennedy, and Schneider do not have a statistically validated questionnaire. On the other hand, the Cameron and Quinn's model implements a validated questionnaire (namely, the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument- OCAI) in order to analyze the current organizational culture and which organizational aspects should be enhanced by asking people to answer six questions. For these reasons, the model of Cameron and Quinn is the one that has been chosen for the empirical research.

2.3 – *The Italian context*

The beginning of the new millennium has marked the rise of medium-sized enterprises, which had to renew their own Human Resource (HR) policies by adopting HPWP (High-Performance Work Practices), in order to adapt to both the new Italian regulations (Legge 14 febbraio 2003) and the international competition. Furthermore, during the last fifteen years most Italian companies have introduced the skill-based human resource management, which has allowed the evolution of performance evaluation and training systems, reaching international standards. The challenge in the next few years for HR will be managing the change: cultural, organizational, and processual; it will be necessary to renovate and move the hierarchies, but also approaching the work in a dissimilar way, moving from consolidated and rigid systems to a new smart attitude, meaning the ability to analyze, decide and act quickly to opportunities and changes (Francis, 2003; Reed & Vakola, 2006).

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To delineate an Italian cultural profile, we relied on two main studies.

Hofstede (2011) found six dimensions:

1. Power distance index (PDI).

2. Individualism vs collectivism (IDV).

3. Uncertainty avoidance (UAI).

4. Masculinity vs femininity (MAS).

5. Long-term orientation vs short-term orientation (LTO).

6. Indulgence vs restraint.

Similarly, *Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner* (1998) elaborated a seven-dimension model:

1. Universalism vs particularism (rules vs relationships).

2. Individualism vs communitarianism (the individual vs the group).

3. Specific vs diffuse (how people get involved).

4. Neutral vs emotional (how people express their emotions).

5. Achievement vs ascription (how people view status):

6. Sequential time vs synchronous time (how people manage time).

7. Internal direction vs outer direction.

The Italian profile can be delineated by combining the characteristics emerging from these two models.

The results of the studies on the different dimensions by the authors are indicated as the first letter of the surname (T = Trompenaars, H = Hofstede), for dimension, and the dimension number (e.g., Hofstede, dimension 1: H_d1). With that being said, it is possible to effectuate a deeper analysis to better understand the results provided by the scholars.

According to *Hofstede*, northern Italy tends to prefer equity and decentralization of power – an environment in which formal control and oversight are generally rejected, especially by young people, who prefer teamwork and an open management style (H_d1). Moreover, Hofstede categorizes Italy as a masculine society – suggesting that it is success oriented, with children being pushed to enter competition and be a winner, which can translate to a very much felt competition in the working environment (H_d4). By gaining a score of 70 in the Hofstede dimension "uncertainty avoidance", it shows that people are not at ease in ambiguous situations: formality is very important, and this is shown also in how the country is administered – civil and criminal codes are complicated by numerous clauses and a high degree of bureaucracy, which results in a hefty amount of planning, as flexible plans are stressful for Italians (H_d3). Lastly, Hofstede codifies the Italian culture as pragmatic, meaning that thrift and efforts in education are encouraged as a way to prepare for the future (H_d5) – although, apparently, Italians tend to cynicism and pessimism (H_d6).

On the other hand, *Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner* adjoin that rules are treated more as guidelines rather than universal truths, so that they can easily be broken (T_d1). With regard to the working environment, the scholar underlined how it seems like that responsibilities are normally assigned to the most qualified person, even if it is not always the easiest task to find the person responsible for a certain task in a company (T_d3). And, even if Italians tends to be affectionate people who like to dramatize, in their working life they try to reduce such

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explosions of emotional behavior (T_d4). Furthermore, in Italy, benefits are important and influence the way people think of someone. Thus, to be the manager of a team or a company, etc., it is necessary to have certain characteristics and strengths. Also, the personal style and clothing immediately says to an Italian if he likes it and will do business with you or not, as Italians tend base their first impression judgement on what they see (T_d5). The last Trompenaars' dimension shows that Italians do not believe they are controlled by faith: therefore, they will try and plan a little early to be able to control their lives to succeed a little in the future (T_d7).

Both Hofstede and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner underline how Italy tends to be an individualistic society, especially in northern big cities where it is normal to feel alone even in the crowded spaces; and that Italians consider having their own goals and ideas to be very important for personal happiness - however, they will try not to harm the community as they seek their best position (H_d2, T_d2).

3 – Research methodology

3.1 – *Theory and Hypothesis*

Based on the literature review, an empirical study has been carried out between October and November 2019, with the aim to address the following research questions:

- – Organizational culture influences employee commitment?
- – Which one of the four types of organizational culture (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, market) generates more affective commitment in the Italian context?

Upon these two main questions a series of further hypothesis has been advanced in order to better comprehend the results coming from a first-sight analysis:

Hypothesis 1 = The variables "Organizational culture" and "Employee Commitment" are statistically independent.

Hypothesis 2 = The variables "Employee Commitment" and "Type of work" are statistically independent.

Hypothesis 3 = The variables "Employee Commitment" and "Firm Size" are statistically independent.

Hypothesis 4 = The variables "Employee Commitment" and "Age" are statistically independent

Hypothesis 5 = The variables "Firm Size" and "Organizational Culture" are statistically independent

3.2 – *Data collection*

For this project, data were collected through primary research, using quantitative questions (questionnaires), while further data came from the literature review and the interviews that made with the human resources directors. At the moment of the analysis a deductive approach was used – as the research is largely based on the available theories, research, and studies (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). The use of a questionnaire provided primary source data, while guaranteeing that all respondents receive identical questions without them being misleading or

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intrusive (Cohen *et al.*, 2011). It was handed out via a link to a Google Form – which allowed the data to be collected and stored in a way that supports data analysis.

Once the questionnaire was set, the second step was to collect the representative's population target (Italian employees), with the purpose of identifying their profile, intended as the demographic profile, the organizational culture experienced and the commitment to the organization; then statistical software Systat (SYSTAT version 13, from Systat Software, Inc., San Jose California USA) was used to determine the statistical relationship between employee commitment and each of the factors (in fact, the original American version of SyStat was sold to SPSS in 1995 to be eventually acquired by the Indian company Cranes Software in 2002, and being now globally distributed through an exclusive licensing agreement by Inpixon since 2020) (Hilbe, 2008).

For this purpose, numerous human resource managers were contacted and asked to distribute the questionnaire inside their company – not only to gather useful answers for this survey, but to be able also to assess the importance given to employee commitment and organizational culture, and for the spread of organizational culture, by interviewing the human resource managers.

Unfortunately, the new privacy regulation (EU General Data Protection Regulation 2016/679, GDPR) prevented most of the companies to participate: just two companies gave the authorization to proceed, and from the two of them 50 answers were collected. So, to extend the population sample, the survey was also posted on social media groups dedicated to employees or directly connected with them. Lastly, all the data collected are anonymous, in order to comply with the privacy standard, set by the aforementioned European Regulation.

3.3 – *Instrument and measurement*

The questionnaire (APPENDIX 1) is composed by fourteen (14) questions, divided into three sections. The first section comprises the general questions: gender, age, type of work, region of origin (north/center/south and isles) and firm size; in particular, the "age" variable was added to assess if commitment changes among different age ranges - like Meyer and Allen (1984) suggested.

The second section of the questionnaire contains inquiries necessary to identify the organizational culture. For this part, questions of the OCAI questionnaire (Cameron & Quinn, 2011) were used, since every organization has its own mix of the four types of organizational culture portraited in the model; plus, it is statistically validated. Six dimensions are used to identify organizational culture, namely: dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphases, criteria of success. For each of these six dimensions, four statements are presented, each related to one of the four types of organizational culture. The participant had to assign to each of these statements an importance level ranging from one (it never happens) to four (this happens often). Later, thanks to the "find and replace" function in the Excel sheet the numbers (one to four) were substituted with points, as follows:

- One = 10 points

- Two = 15 points

- Three = 30 points

- Four = 45 points

In this way, for each of the six dimensions, a score has been assigned to each of the four types of organizational cultures.

Once the points were collected, a simple average function was created to assign a final value to each type of culture. Please, consider that to realize this study a simplified version of the OCAI questionnaire was used.

The third section (employee commitment) was used to determine commitment by using the statistically validated "three components" scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) (for the scale of Allen & Meyer see APPENDIX 2). For the questionnaire, there is one question for each type of commitment with a Boolean value (true/false) to assign; then, a fourth question was made to assess the importance of one type amongst the three.

4 – Data analysis

4.1 – *Demographic Profile of the Respondents*

The total sample is composed by 140 people.

The majority of the respondents (89%) come from the north of Italy with a male-to-female-ratio that is almost proportioned, with a slight predominance of women (57%), against the 43% of men. Furthermore, most of respondents are aged 25 to 35 (51%), but there is still a substantial number (56%) of people between 36 and 45. The data highlight a lower number of young people between 18 and 24 years (26.6%) and an even lower amount for those over the age of 46 (12.6%).

Focusing on the type of work, most of the respondents are employees (57%), followed by workmen (24%), managers (11%), supervisors and interns (4% each).

For what concerns the firm size, most of the respondents come from medium sized firms (47%), with also a considerable incidence of people working in big firms (25%). On the other hand, there is a smaller number of people coming from small and micro firms (13% each).

4.2 – *Hypothesis Testing (Structural Model)*

For the second part of the questionnaire, once the database was set, and each people's organizational culture was identified, a table was set up to analyze the data using a statistical software (SyStat). The first step of the analysis was to test the normality of the data. The test used (Shapiro-Wilk) confirmed the normal distribution of the sample. The variables used are qualitative and quantitative discrete, so contingency tables to test the hypothesis were used. The degree of connection between the variable is measured by two indexes:

– "Chi-square": has value = 0 when X and Y are independent

– "Cramer's V value" = based on the Chi-square, it assumes 0 in case of statistical independence and 1 in case of perfect dependence.

For the hypothesis testing, the general procedure will be used, which imply:

1. Formulation of the hypothesis: H_0 (null hypothesis) and H_1 (alternative hypothesis)

2. Choice of the significance level: The first type error occurs when the sample results lead to the rejection of H_0 even if it is true. The probability of Type I error (called "p-value") was set to the level $\alpha = 0.05$, meaning that if "p-value" $< \alpha$, the null hypothesis will be rejected.

To understand if there is a relationship between "Organizational culture" and "Employee Commitment" the two hypotheses formulated are:

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H$_0$ = The variables "Organizational culture" and "Employee Commitment" are statistically independent.

H$_1$ = The variables "Organizational culture" and "Employee Commitment" are statistically dependent.

The relation between the variable "organizational culture" and "employee commitment" has been tested.

Since "p-value" = 0,000 < α, the null hypothesis can be rejected, and it can be said that there is a statistical relation between the variables "Organizational culture" and "Employee Commitment" (Table 2). Subsequently, by looking at the percent of total count (Table 3) and row percent (Table 4), respectively, it can be seen that among the different type of culture, the clan culture is the one that generates most of the commitment (56,4%) and that most of the respondents show the affective commitment type.

Table 2 – Chi-Square tests of association for "organizational culture" and "employee commitment" (Number of valid cases: 140*)*

Test Statistic	Value	Df	"p-value"
Pearson Chi-Square	56,764	6,000	0,000

Table 3 – Percent of total count

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE (rows) by EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT (columns)					
	AC	CC	NC	Total	N.
A	7,857	4,286	0,000	12,143	17
C	36,429	17,857	2,143	56,429	79
H	4,286	5,714	8,571	18,571	26
M	2,143	2,143	8,571	12,857	18
Total	**50,714**	**30,000**	**19,286**	**100,000**	
N.	71,000	42,000	27,000		140

Note: A=Adhocracy; C=Clan; H=Hierarchy; M=Market; AC= Affective Commitment; CC= Continuance Commitment; NC=Normative Commitment; N=number of observations.

Table 4 – Row Percent

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE (rows) by EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT (columns)					
	AC	CC	NC	Total	N.
A	64,706	35,294	0,000	100	17
C	64,557	31,646	3,797	100	79
H	23,077	30,769	46,154	100	26
M	16,667	16,667	66,667	100	18
Total	**50,714**	**30,000**	**19,286**	**100**	
N.	71,000	42,000	27,000		140

Now, the type of commitment has been tested with the other variables.

To understand if there is a relationship between "Employee Commitment" and "Type of work" the two hypotheses formulated are:

H_0 = The variables "Employee Commitment" and "Type of work" are statistically independent.

H_1 = The variables "Employee Commitment" and "Type of work" are statistically dependent.

Because "p-value" = 0.285 > α, this indicates that the variables "type of work" and "employee commitment" are statistically independent (Table 5).

Table 5 – Chi-Square tests of association for "type of work" and "employee commitment"

Test Statistic	Value	Df	"p-value"
Pearson Chi-Square	9,717	8,000	0,285

To understand if there is a relationship between "Employee Commitment" and "Firm Size" the two hypotheses formulated are:

H_0 = The variables "Employee Commitment" and "Firm Size" are statistically independent.

H_1 = The variables "Employee Commitment" and "Firm Size" are statistically dependent.

The "p-value" = 0.002 < α, this indicates that there is a statistical relationship between the variables "Firm Size" and "Employee Commitment" (Table 6). And, by the row percent (Table 7) it can be seen that the type of firm that is able to generate a continuance commitment is the micro-firm type.

Table 6 – "Chi-Square" tests of association for "firm size" and "employee commitment"

Test Statistic	Value	Df	"p-value"
Pearson Chi-Square	21,218	6,000	0,002

Table 7 – Row Percent

FIRM SIZE (rows) by EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT (columns)					
	AC	CC	NC	Total	N.
0 – 9	36,842	57,895	5,263	100	19
10 – 49	47,368	21,053	31,759	100	19
50 – 249	65,152	22,727	12,121	100	66
> 250	33,333	33,333	33,333	100	36
Total	**50,714**	**30,000**	**19,286**	**100**	
N.	71,000	42,000	27,000		140

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To understand if there is a relationship between "Employee Commitment" and "Age" the two hypotheses formulated are:

H$_0$ = The variables "Employee Commitment" and "Age" are statistically independent.

H$_1$ = The variables "Employee Commitment" and "Age" are statistically dependent.

With a "p-value" = 0.002 < α, it shows that there is a statistical relationship between the variables "Age" and "Employee Commitment" (Table 8). And, once again, by inspecting the row percent (Table 9) we can see that a continuance commitment is shown more by young (age 18-24) people rather that seniors.

Table 8 – Chi-Square tests of association for "age" and "employee commitment"

Test Statistic	Value	Df	"p-value"
Pearson Chi-Square	21,342	8,000	0,002

Table 9 – Row Percent

AGE (rows) by EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT (columns)					
	AC	CC	NC	Total	N.
18 - 24	31,579	52,632	15,789	100	19
25 - 35	45,833	34,722	19,444	100	72
36 - 45	72,500	15,000	12,500	100	40
46 - 55	28,571	14,286	57,143	100	7
56+	50,000	0,000	50,000	100	2
Total	**50,714**	**30,000**	**19,286**	**100**	
N.	71,000	42,000	27,000		140

To understand if there is a relationship between "Firm Size" and "Organizational Culture" the two hypotheses formulated are:

H0 = The variables "Firm Size" and "Organizational Culture" are statistically independent.

H1 = The variables "Firm Size" and "Organizational Culture" are statistically dependent

The "p-value" = 0.000 < α indicates that there is a statistical relationship between the variables "Firm Size" and "Organizational Culture" (Table 10), while the row percent (Table 11) shows that in micro firm clan (31%) and adhocracy (47%) are the prevalent, in small and medium firm clan culture is the most experienced and in big firm hierarchy culture is the prevalent.

Table 10 – Chi-Square tests of association for "firm size" and "organizational culture"

Test Statistic	Value	Df	"p-value"
Pearson Chi-Square	36,572	9,000	0,000

Table 11 – Row Percent

FIRM SIZE (rows) by ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE (columns)					
	AC	CC	NC	Total	N.
0 – 9	31,579	47,368	21,053	0,000	100
10 – 49	0,000	63,158	10,526	26,316	100
50 – 249	9,091	72,727	9,091	9,091	100
> 250	13,889	27,778	38,889	19,444	100
Total	**12,143**	**56,429**	**18,571**	**12,857**	**100**
N.	17,000	79,000	26,000	18,000	

5 – Discussion

At first, the link between the types of commitment and the organizational culture was tested, according to two main research questions:

1. Does organizational culture influence employees' commitment?

2. Which one of the four types of organizational culture generates more affective commitment in the Italian context?

The *first question* can be answered by looking at the chi-square test, with the "p-value" = 0.000, which shows statistical dependence between the two variables: meaning that, in the sample population, organizational culture influences employees' commitment. The tests were run not only to assess the relationship between employee commitment and organizational culture, but the relationship with the demographic data as well to gain a better insight and to link the findings with the literature review – since the relationship has been proven to be significant with the factors "age" and "firm size", and not significant with the factor "type of work".

The *second question* can be answered by looking at the results of the test that link *affective commitment* with clan culture; later, other tests were run, and they turned out to be significant with regard to the relationship with age and firm's size. These results also confirmed Trompenaars' suggestion that Italians try to integrate aspects of work in their private life, in order not to exclude their family from their so-called second life (1998). The findings show that affective commitments can be mostly found among people aged 25 to 45; while, for what concerns the firm's size, affective commitment is mostly found in medium-sized ones, hence, the relationship between the firm size and the organizational culture was tested: the results show that medium sized firms are associated with clan culture, which could explain the presence of affective commitment.

About other types of commitment, by looking at the analysis, it can be said that *normative commitment* is found in hierarchy and market cultures, especially in big firms and among people

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aged 46 to 55, as these types of cultures are associated with stability and control (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

This result does not come as a surprise, as working in big firms need a structured environment that translates into fixed flows of information inside the organization (which implies the importance of hierarchy) and a result-oriented behavior to sustain the national and international competition that a big firm usually faces (market culture). And, lastly, about continuance commitment it can be said that because it is linked to the weighting of the pros and cons of leaving the organization, with losses increasing with age and experience, it is compatible with the test results that links continuance commitment with the age range 18 to 24 – linking it, instead, with clan cultures and micro firms.

6 – Implications

Further reasoning can be made on the obtained results. For example, about *affective commitment*: Meyer and Allen (1984) argued that as employees gain experience other employment opportunities may increase, and this will decrease the weight of one essential cost of leaving (i.e., having no job).

Their explanation is supported by the ones of Mowday *et al.* (1982) and Rusbult and Farrell (1983), who emphasized the importance of the availability of attractive alternative job opportunities. Nowadays, for people aged 25 to 45, as in this study, the competitiveness of the labor market creates a large pool of candidates to choose from; enabling firms to request more experience and qualifications from candidates, so that attractive job opportunities are offered to people with at least 1-2 years of experience. This implies that if a person is able to choose from attractive alternative job opportunities, he/she will be more likely to choose the one that suits him/her the best – from these considerations derive the significative presence of affective commitment.

Regarding *normative commitment*, it could be generated by the hefty amount of investment usually made by big firms in the formation of employees; hence, the high training level in big firms affects a sense of obligation toward the organization, because of the money invested on them. And for what concerns the age range (18 – 24), Meyer and Allen (1984) argued that younger employees may be committed because of their awareness that, with less work experience, they often have fewer job opportunities. Indeed, an ISTAT report published in 2017, regarding data collected in 2015, shows that even if in 2015, 60.2% of companies operating in Italy with at least 10 employees have carried out training activities (+5% compared to 2010), however, large companies (250+ employees) are the ones most active in training (90%). With regards to the importance of professional skills, 41.3% of companies stated that the main element for the future development of the company is the increase of technical-operational knowledge closely related to the company's core business, followed by relationship skills (39.7%) and teamwork (31.6%).

At last, the presence of *continuance commitment* could be possibly searched within the nature of micro firms. In fact, the 2013 ISTAT report "Micro-firms in Italy" studied this type of companies with regard to their activity sector; and the results showed that micro-firms lack in the investment in human capital (in 2011, only 32.6% of micro-enterprises carried out training activities). In 2011, the micro-enterprises employed over 23% of workers (3.8 million), with seven out of ten micro-enterprises being active in the service sector, real estate, and professional services, while their presence is relatively lower in industrial activities and related services.

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7 – Conclusions

At first the key points of the study (employee commitment, organizational culture and the Italian socioeconomical and cultural context) had been delineated. The literature review focused mainly on the conceptual description of employee commitment and organizational culture – as it has been shown that organizational culture influences workers' commitment either directly or indirectly through values and beliefs enacted in organizational policies and practices (Black, 1999; Huey Yiing & Zaman Bin Ahmad, 2009). This influence occurs when organizational members find the organizational values and beliefs to be either congruent or incongruent with their personal values and beliefs (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This theoretical link between organizational culture and organizational commitment suggests that employee commitment is an outcome of organizational culture.

Then, for the empirical study, the aim was the analysis of employees' commitment in Italian companies, and its relationship with organizational culture (nonetheless, the analysis of its relationship with other factors was also considered). The research shows that respondents are more affectively committed to organizations where clan culture is perceived to be the dominant one. Also, commitment is found to be not related to the nature of work, whilst it is, indeed, related to the age and the firm size where respondents work – thus, the background of these findings has to be searched in the socioeconomic and cultural Italian scenario.

In conclusion, this research provided a summary of the impact of employees' commitment to organizations, while providing an insight into its relationship with different factors as well. The results obtained out of this research show the relevance of organizational culture in forming employees' commitment; hence, firms wanting to increase their employees' commitment should check if their attitudes and assumption are conformed to the country's culture, and create a challenging, fair, and pleasant work environment – these considerations can contribute to add some aspects of the *clan culture*, which is especially true in the Italian context.

8 – Limitations and recommendation for future research

This study has some limitations that must be pointed out as they set obstacles for the analysis of the data and results. *Firstly*, one of them is the low response rate (140 responses), determined by the challenge of acquiring data. Furthermore, the quantitative research was carried out through a structured questionnaire due to the limited time available, while a semi-structured questionnaire with open questions, therefore more qualitative, could have allowed a more detailed and exhaustive analysis. *Secondly*, other limitations were due to the new privacy regulation of European Union (i.e., General Data Protection Regulation 2016/679), which prevented most of the companies contacted to participate. Getting more answers would have been more useful to the research and would have allowed a greater generalization of the results.

The analysis also presents a bias in the origin of the respondents (89% from northern Italy), which further limit the generalizability of the findings. Replications in larger and representative samples would allow a greater generalization of the results.

There are numerous recommendations to be made for future research. The questionnaire could be improved to reach higher levels of precision and efficiency, by adding, for example, questions about the firm's sector of activity, and qualitative questions to provide the research with more comprehensive and enriched data. Besides, a more qualitative centered approach could provide much more enlightening responses coming from the employees.

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Unstructured interviews could bring more depth to the results, while opening up the project for the possibility of unexpected gains and answers; and additional insights into the employees' experiences and opinions could provide more opportunities to future studies on the topic, and how this could be approached. Furthermore, other that better explain the relationship between employees' commitment and organizational culture, a broader the sample can be considered more informative and applicable to the human resources practices on a more global level by analyzing more in depth the relationship between commitment, culture, firm size and sector of activity, leading in this way to more interesting results.

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APPENDIX 1 – THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Questions

1. Provenance/Origin
   a. North
   b. Centre

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  c. South and Isles
2. Type of work
    a. Intern
    b. Laborer
    c. Employee
    d. Manager
    e. Executive
3. Age
    a. 18-24
    b. 25-35
    c. 36-45
    d. 46-55
    e. 56+
4. Gender
    a. Male
    b. Female

Corporate culture questions (OCAI framework)

Think about how you live your working days, how things work, and rank the statements in order of importance, from 1 to 4 (all numbers must be used, i.e., only one answer per column)

1= no, this is not how it works here/never
2 = this happens very rarely
3 = this happens occasionally
4 = This happens often

1. Dominant characteristics
    a. I feel like in an extended family. I even share personal aspects with my colleague.
    b. The environment is dynamic and entrepreneurial. We are encouraged to take initiative and risks.
    c. It is important to achieve results. I am in a very competitive environment.
    d. Everything is controlled by formal procedures. the work environment is very structured.
2. Organizational leadership
    a. Leaders are mentors; they create a stimulating environment for work and personal growth.
    b. Leaders have an innovative approach and take risks.
    c. Leaders generally are aggressive and pressure us to achieve results.
    d. Leaders are generally able to manage the organization effectively without hiccups.
3. Management of employees
    a. Emphasis is placed on teamwork and participation in the daily life of the enterprise.
    b. Individual risk-taking and innovative approaches are encouraged.
    c. The demands are high and there is a strong competitiveness.
    d. Conformity, predictability and stability in relationships are sought.
4. What "holds the organization together"?
    a. Loyalty and mutual trust.
    b. Commitment to innovation and development; it is important to be progressive.
    c. Emphasis on success and achievement of goals.
    d. Formal rules and policies
5. Emphasis on strategy
    a. The company values human development: mutual trust and participation are important.
    b. New challenges and opportunities are always being created, enabling resource acquisition.

     c.   Achieving market dominance is paramount.

     d.   Control, efficiency, and overall stability are important.

6. Factors of success
   a. The company defines success on the basis of human resource development, teamwork and employee commitment.
   b. Success is innovation, whether of product or process.
   c. Success is the achievement of market supremacy.
   d. Success is the achievement of efficiency: reliability, planning and cost minimization.

Employee dedication

This is the last section in the questionnaire, in which you must express your feelings toward the company. Please, bear in mind that the questionnaire is completely anonymous!

1. I feel the problems of this organization as if they were my own.
   a. True
   b. False
2. I continue to work here only out of necessity/difficulty in finding other employment.
   a. True
   b. False
3. I owe a lot to this company and would feel guilty in leaving it.
   a. True
   b. False
4. Select the sentence that represents you the most.
   a. I would feel guilty if I left this organization now / I feel obligated to stay.
   b. I feel this organization's problems as if they were my own.
   c. I continue to work here only out of necessity/difficulty in finding other employment.

APPENDIX 2 – COMMITMENT SCALE ITEMS

Instructions

Listed below there is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization you are currently working for, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

    1 = strongly disagree
    2 = disagree
    3 = slightly disagree
    4= undecided
    5 = slightly agree
    6 = agree
    7 = strongly agree
       Revised Version (Meyer, Allen, and Smith, 1993)

Affective Commitment Scale

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)

5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Continuance Commitment Scale

1. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
4. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
5. If I had not already put so much of myself (effort) into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
6. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

Normative Commitment Scale

1. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)
2. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
3. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
4. This organization deserves my loyalty.
5. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
6. I owe a great deal to my organization.

Note. (R) indicates a reverse-keyed item.
Scores on these items should be reflected (i.e., 1 =7, 2 = 6, 3 = 5, 4 = 4, 5 = 3, 6 = 2, 7 = 1) before computing scale scores.