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SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
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HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT BİLİM DALI

**CROSS-CULTURAL RESEARCH ON
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT:
A RESEARCH ON AN INTERNATIONAL
ORGANIZATION LOCATED IN TURKEY**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

MUSTAFA KORKMAZ

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ABSTRACT

This thesis investigates the relationship between national culture and organizational commitment. The main idea of this thesis is to explore the influences of the cultures on the organizational commitment components. Firstly, culture dimensions and clusters are explained in accordance with recent researches, and then the relationship is demonstrated.

Thesis is based on exploring national culture, organizational commitment and cross-cultural organizational commitment researches. National cultures are explored from two aspects; Geert Hofstede's Value Survey Module (Hofstede, 1980) and Schwartz's Culture-Level Dimensions of Values (Schwartz, 1994). Organizational commitment based on Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment is explained and discussed. These are the affective, the continuance, and the normative components. Later on various recent researches are explored in terms of cross cultural organizational commitment research.

Two propositions and fifty-four hypotheses are developed related with the aim of the study. The samples for this study were drawn from an international organization located in Istanbul. The population comprised of twelve nations.

The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics by frequency distributions, percentages, means, and standard deviations. In order to investigate correlation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment with its sub components' among employees, the Zero Partial Correlation analysis was utilized. Furthermore, in order to observe the effects of moderators the Partial Correlation analysis was applied with controlling the moderators. To investigate correlation between culture clusters and organizational commitment with its sub components' among employees, the Spearman Rank Order Correlation analysis was utilized.

At the end of the study, several findings are explored and discussed. All discussed analyses are interpreted from the point of Human Resources Management view.

Keywords

Affective Autonomy, Affective Commitment, Collectivism, Conservatism, Continuance Commitment, Culture Clusters, Egalitarianism, Femininity, Harmony, Hierarchy, Individualism, Intellectual Autonomy, Long-Term Orientation, Masculinity, Mastery, National Culture, Normative Commitment, Organizational Commitment, Power Distance, and Uncertainty Avoidance.

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ACRONYMS & ABBREVIATIONS

AAU	: Affective Autonomy
AC	: Affective Commitment
CC	: Continuance Commitment
CON	: Conservatism
EC	: European Commission
EGA	: Egalitarianism
GNP	: Gross National Product
HAR	: Harmony
HIE	: Hierarchy
HRM	: Human Resources Management
IAU	: Intellectual Autonomy
IDV	: Individualism Index
LO	: Long-Term Orientation Index
MAS	: Masculinity Index
MAST	: Mastery
NC	: Normative Commitment
OC	: Organizational Commitment
OCQ	: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire
PD	: Power Distance

PDI : Power Distance Index

TCM : Three Component Model

UAI : Uncertainty Avoidance Index

U.K. : United Kingdom

U.S. : United States

1. INTRODUCTION

Scholars produce and disseminate the majority of organizational science within the U.S. During this “domestic phase” of management thought (Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991), researchers observed and measured the attitudes and behavior of employees in U.S.-based organizations and largely ignored the world outside of the U.S. Whether or not theories developed in the U.S. applied to other cultures was not of great concern to academics (Randall, 1993). As Hofstede (1980, p.373) stated, “There is a silent assumption of universal validity of culturally restricted findings” in scholarly journals.

The assumption has been increasingly challenged over the last decade (Randall, 1993). Culture’s influence for organizational behavior operates at such a deep level that people are not aware of its influences. These unexamined patterns of the behavior seem so natural that most of the social behavior researchers fail to take them into account. As a result, many aspects of organizational theories produced in one culture may be inadequate in other cultures (Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991).

The main challenge was the effects of the different cultures on the organizational commitment level of the committed people. Management thought and practices were mainly based on ideas from the U.S. Assuming the ideas, which were explored in the U.S., were misleading the researchers depending on which kind of culture they have studying on. Researchers are beginning to realize that they have underestimated the extent to which culture profoundly influences management thought and practice (Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991). It is now recognized that management theories developed in one culture may simply not apply to other cultures.

The recent organizational commitment studies spread out of the U.S. by the 1980s. Applied researches outside of the U.S. have been tried to explore the relationship between the organizational commitment, its antecedents and its consequences in a specific cultural environment. But none of them deal with the direct relationship between culture and organizational commitment.

The main idea of this thesis is to explore the influences of the cultures on the organizational commitment components. Firstly, culture dimensions and clusters are

explained in accordance with recent researches, and then the relationship is demonstrated.

In this thesis, there are five main parts, which are Introduction, Literature Review, Methodology, Analyses, Conclusions and Discussions:

Literature Review has three subtitles, which are based on exploring national culture, organizational commitment and cross-cultural organizational commitment researches. As the first topic; meaning, definition and theories of national culture are explained. National cultures are explored from two aspects, which are the most known two cultural surveys; Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1991) Value Survey Module and Schwartz's (1994) Culture-Level Dimensions of Values. Although, A number of scholars have had concerns about whether Hofstede's data, based as it is on some seemingly ambiguous items administered to IBM employees during the late 1960s and early 1970s, represents the world very well. Furthermore, due to the results obtained with the Chinese Value Survey (The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987 cited in Zakour, 2004) across 22 countries and Schwartz's Value Survey across 41 cultural groups and 38 nations, Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1991) Value Survey Module is still valid. Schwartz's (1994) Culture-Level Dimensions of Values study is complementary portion of this research.

Second topic is different aspects of organizational commitment; which are meaning and definition, historical overview, theories, focus of organizational commitment, integration of multidimensional approach, antecedents, and consequences of organizational commitments. Later on practice of organizational commitment are explained and discussed. Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three-Component Model of organizational commitment perspective is the standing point in this thesis. Just Meyer and Allen (1991) emphasized on the three components, which are affective, continuance, and normative components, in their survey rather than the others. The other commitment researchers dealt with one or two components of organizational commitment.

Then, this part will be concluded with overview of cross-cultural commitment researches in the light of recent studies. One of the most known studies on cross-cultural commitment researches is Randall's (1983) study is the guidance for this research.

Methodology includes data collection procedures, method of data analyses, variables, operational definitions, propositions and hypotheses, research instruments, scales, sample design, sample size and limitations of the study.

The Fourth main part is Findings. This section includes information about analyses of the data. First portion includes findings on the demographic factors and the findings on the propositions and hypotheses. All the collected and analyzed data are discussed in the perspective of hypothesis and under the context of theories in this section.

Conclusions and Discussions is the last main topic. All discussed analyses are interpreted from the point of Human Resources Management view. This part also includes suggestions to the following researches.

This thesis investigates the relationship between national culture and organizational commitment. The purpose of this thesis is to analyze the relationship between national culture and organizational commitment. Also this study investigates the effects of demographic factors (such as tenure, age, gender, marital status, etc.) on the relation of national culture and organizational commitment.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Culture

In many organizations, cross-cultural management is being popular due to the increasing cultural diversity. To manage the cultural diversity, we should have to learn culture itself. If we are going to address cultural factors in the management and implications on organizational commitment, then it may be useful to clarify what we mean by “culture.”

Culture has been defined in various ways by different people. Some of these definitions are provided. Kluckhohn (1951, p.86 cited in Hofstede, 1980, p.25) described culture as “Culture consists in patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values.”

Kroeber and Parsons (1958, p.583 cited in Hofstede, 2001, p.9) arrived at a cross-disciplinary definition of culture as “transmitted and created content and patterns of values, ideas and other symbolic-meaningful systems as factors in the shaping of human behavior and the artifacts produced through behavior”. Triandis (1972, p.4 cited in Hofstede, 1980, p.25) distinguishes “subjective” culture from its expression in “objective” artifacts and defines the former as “a cultural group’s characteristics way of perceiving the man-made part of its environment”. Tung (1995, p.491 cited in Tung, 2004) combined some of them into the following definition: “Culture is an evolving set of shared beliefs, values, attitudes, and logical processes which provide cognitive maps for people within a given societal group to perceive, think, reason, act, react, and interact. This definition implies that culture is not static; rather, it evolves over time”

Hofstede (2001, p.9), whose study will be this thesis focus point, defined culture as “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another.” Schwartz (1999) mentioned, “Cultural values represent the implicitly or explicitly shared abstract ideas about what is good,

right, and desirable in a society. The ways that social institutions (i.e. the family, education, economic, political, religious systems) function, their goals and their modes of operation, express cultural value priorities”.

This research based on Geert Hofstede’s (1980, 1991) Value Survey Module and Schwartz’s (1994) Culture-Level Dimensions of Values studies. Because these studies do not only contain general terms to explore the culture, but also give numerical values, while trying to identify the culture. However, a number of scholars have had concerns about whether Hofstede’s data, based as it is on some seemingly ambiguous items administered to IBM employees during the late 1960s and early 1970s, represents the world very well.

Schwartz (1994) developed a set of items in collaboration with colleagues around the world and administered them to teachers in various nations. Correlations between these measures and Hofstede’s indicate that although these new measures may have some advantages, Hofstede’s data is more dependable than many had thought. Furthermore, due to the results obtained with the Chinese Value Survey (The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987 cited in Zakour, 2004) across 22 countries Geert Hofstede’s (1980, 1991) Value Survey Module is still valid.

And even the most comprehensive study (Hofstede, 1991) lacks data from important regions of the world (i.e. the former Eastern Europe bloc). Schwartz (1999) noted that national boundaries do not necessarily correspond to the boundaries of organically developed, relatively homogeneous societies with a shared culture. Schwartz’s (1994) Culture-Level Dimensions of Values study is complementary portion of this research. Taking into the consideration of Schwartz’s (1994) Culture-Level Dimensions of Values study is intended to overcome these limitations in the theory and research discussed here.

2.1.1. Overview of the Most Known Cultural Dimensions

Several sets of dimensions have been developed to characterize the concept of national culture. Table 1 provides an overview of the most known cultural dimensions found in several fields of studies.

Table 1 Overview of the Most Known Cultural Dimensions

Cultural Dimensions	Authors
Power Distance	Hofstede (1980)
Individualism/Collectivism	Hofstede (1980)
Masculinity/Femininity	Hofstede (1980)
Uncertainty Avoidance	Hofstede (1980)
Long-term Orientation	Hofstede (1991)
Conservatism	Schwartz (1994)
Intellectual Autonomy	Schwartz (1994)
Affective Autonomy	Schwartz (1994)
Hierarchy	Schwartz (1994)
Egalitarianism	Schwartz (1994)
Mastery	Schwartz (1994)
Harmony	Schwartz (1994)
Confucian Work Dynamism	The Chinese Culture Connection (1987 cited in Zakour, 2004)
Universalism/Particularism	Trompenaars, Hampden-Turner (1998 cited in Zakour, 2004)
Individualism/Communitarianism	
Neutral/Emotional	
Specific/Diffuse	
Achievement/Ascription	
Attitudes to Time	
Attitudes to Environment	
Communication Context	Hall (1981)
Perception of Space	Hall (1981)
Monochronic and Polychronic Time	Hall (1981)
Nature of People	Kluckhohn, Strodtbeck (1961 cited in Zakour, 2004)
Person's Relationship to Nature	
Person's Relationship to Other People	
Primary Mode of Activity	
Conception of Space	
Person's Temporal Orientation	

Source: Based on Zakour, A. B. (2004). Cultural Differences and Information Technology Acceptance. 7th Annual Conference of the Southern Association for Information Systems, Savannah Marriott Riverfront, February, 27-28, 2004, 156-161. Retrieved on October 25, 2004, from <http://sais.aisnet.org/sais2004/zakour.pdf>, p.157.

Geert Hofstede's (1980) *Culture's Consequences*, one of the most cited sources in the Social Science Citation Index, is the most influential work to date in the study of cross-cultural management. The hallmark of this work is Hofstede's four dimensions of national cultural variability, i.e. power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism,

and masculinity, derived from his unique and extensive empirical investigations at IBM subsidiaries in 53 countries and regions. In Hofstede's initial study (1980), forty countries were included; in his later study (1983), ten more countries and three regions were added. In 1991, Hofstede published *Cultures and Organizations*, a revised and popularized version of *Culture's Consequences*. The Chinese Value Survey (The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987 cited in Zakour, 2004) reproduced three of Hofstede's (1980) dimensions plus a new one. Later, Hofstede (1991) mentioned the fifth dimension of the culture, which is mentioned as Long-term Orientation.

Hofstede's (1980) massive project using survey data from 116.000 employees of a major multinational corporation is a major contribution to cross-cultural study. This systematic and scientific study is important both because of its impressive magnitude and because of the investigator's well-thought-out conceptual analysis of the data. Each questionnaire used in the survey has over than 100 standardized questions. Hofstede (1991) noted that criticizing the samples, as the white collar IBMers is a misguiding the researchers. Because he also agreed with the people who say "IBMers do not form representative for their countries". However, Hofstede (1991) mentioned that the samples from cross-national comparison need to be representative, as long as they are functionally equivalent. The samples are so similar in respects other than nationality, like common corporate culture, matched occupations and education levels.

Shalom H. Schwartz's (1994) *Beyond Individualism/Collectivism* is the second influential study in the cross-cultural management. Schwartz (1994) mentioned Conservatism, Intellectual Autonomy, Affective Autonomy, Hierarchy, Egalitarianism, Mastery, and Harmony as the dimensions of the culture. In Schwartz's (1994), data were gathered during the 1988-1992 period from 86 samples drawn from 41 cultural groups in 38 nations. Some 80% of the sample included between 150 and 300 respondents, with 4 smaller samples (minimum 76) and 11 larger (maximum 1868).

Although, some of scholars have had concerns about Hofstede's data, the results represent the world very well. Schwartz (1994) study demonstrated correlations between his defined dimensions and Hofstede's dimensions as well as The Chinese Value Survey (The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987 cited in Zakour, 2004).

Hofstede's data is more dependable than many had thought. Using the five dimensions of a national culture established by Hofstede (1980, 1991) and the seven dimensions of a national culture established by Schwartz (1994), the objective of this exploratory study is to investigate the relationship culture and organizational commitment.

The current research will utilize the following Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1991) dimensions; Power Distance, Individualism/Collectivism, Masculinity/Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Long-Term Orientation, and Schwartz's (1994) dimensions; Conservatism, Intellectual Autonomy, Affective Autonomy, Hierarchy, Egalitarianism, Mastery, and Harmony. Another reason for just utilizing these dimensions can be explained by numerical values. Because, only these dimensions have numerical values, the others just are explored by general terms. These numerical values are used to defining the nations place in the specific cultural dimension rather than trying to re-explore.

In this thesis structure will be established by firstly giving general explanation and the terms on the above mentioned dimensions, and then the consequences are explained. Later numerical values of the national culture are demonstrated. At the end nations are explored in the light of these dimensions.

2.1.2. Hofstede's Culture Dimensions

2.1.2.1.Power Distance

An important dimension of national culture that Hofstede (1980) identified is power distance. This is a reflection of the degree to which power in organizations is unequally distributed. More specifically, power distance is associated with the degree of centralization of authority and extent of autocratic leadership. Power distance reflects the degree to which centralization and autocratic leadership are inherent in the mental programming of members of the society - not only among those who have power but also among those who are at the bottom of the power hierarchy.

As Hofstede (1980) suggests, subordinates are accessory to the exercise of power in such a system. The functioning of the system is a reflection of their collective

complicity. Societies in which power is distributed unequally can continue to maintain this inequality because such a situation satisfies the psychological need for dependence among people who do not have power. The Philippines and Mexico have the highest score on this dimension.

The power distance norm is culturally determined; its origins lie in the early socialization by the family, the school, and various other institutions. Once instilled as a component of a people's culture, its influence spills over into other sectors. To the extent that it is an important aspect of culture, power distance is likely to have pervasive influence within work organizations. An interesting finding is that lower-education and lower-status occupations are associated with high power distance values and that occupations characterized by higher education and higher status have low power distance values. Country differences appear to be the greatest for the more educated than for the less-educated occupations, whereas occupational differences appear to be much larger in small power distance countries than in large power distance countries.

Hofstede (1980) has spelled out some behavioral implications of differences in power distance. He suggests that in systems where superiors maintain a great power distance, subordinates tend to polarize toward either dependence or counter dependence. At the same time, where superiors maintain a lesser power distance, subordinates have a preference for the consultative style. Table 2 shows the consequences for organizations arising from differences in power distances. From societal and organizational standpoints, one implication of differences in power distance is that some cultures require less legitimization of power than others.

Hofstede (1980) finds that, across the sample of countries studied, about 43% of the variance is predicted from the country's geographical latitude; 51% from a combination of latitude and population; and 58% from latitude, population size, and wealth. According to Hofstede (1980), in the latitude-power distance relationship, the key intervening variable is need for technology as a condition for survival. In cold climates, the need for technology was greater than in warmer climates. This sets up a causal chain leading to the emergence of a certain kind of social structure.

Table 2 Consequences of Power Distance Dimension for Organizations

Low PDI	High PDI
Less centralization	Greater centralization
Flatter organization pyramids	Tall organization pyramids
Smaller proportion of supervisory personnel	Large proportion of supervisory personnel
Smaller wage differentials	Large wage differentials
High qualification of lower strata	Low qualification of lower strata
Manual work same status as clerical work	White-collar jobs valued more than blue-collar jobs

Source: Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*, Beverly Hills, Sage, 135.

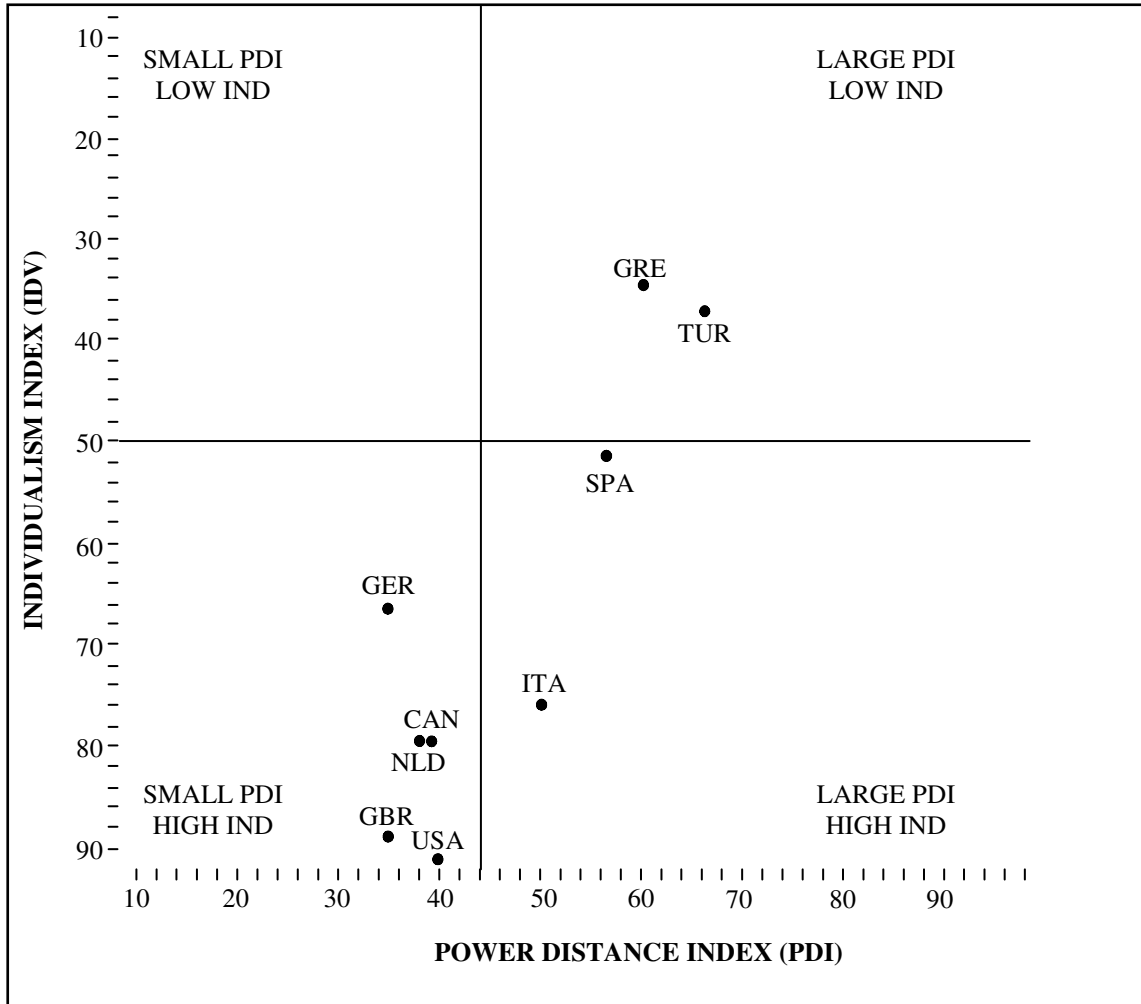
Figure 1 demonstrates the position of the countries in the Power Distance Index (PDI) versus Individualism Index (IDV) scale. In the light of this dimension results demonstrated that Turkey has the largest PDI (66) where Germany and the U.K. have the smallest (35). The large PDI countries are Turkey, Greece, Spain and Italy respectively. The small PDI countries are Germany, the U.K., the Netherlands, Canada, and the USA respectively.

To summarize, power is an important variable that varies cross-culturally. Such cross-cultural variation, in turn, has important positive and normative implications from the standpoint of organizations - as alluded to earlier. Table 7 shows the country numerical values related with one of the Hofstede Dimensions, Power Distance.

2.1.2.2. Individualism versus Collectivism

Individualism-collectivism is another dimension that Hofstede (1980) identified - one that is an important component of culture. This describes the relationship between an individual and society as a whole. Although some cultures view individualism positively, others view it with disapproval and even contempt. Issues of collectivity versus individualism carry strong moral overtones. Thus, Americans view individualism as a contributor to greatness, but Chinese do not (Hofstede, 1980).

Figure 1 The Position of the Countries on their Individualism Index (IDV) versus their Power Distance Index (PDI)



Source: Based on Hofstede, G. (1982). Dimensions of National Cultures. In Rath, R., Asthana, H. S., Sinha, D. & Sinha, J. B. P. (Eds.). Diversity and Unity in Cross-Cultural Psychology, Lisse, Swets and Zeitlinger, 178.

The degree of or collectivism present will probably have several consequences for organizational functioning. In countries where collectivism predominates, people's involvement is likely to be moral; by contrast, it will tend to be calculative where an individualistic ethos exists. Both moral and social orientations may be discerned in the same relationship, but one orientation may tend to dominate. In addition, people may transfer part of their extended family allegiances to the organizations to which they belong. Japan is an example of this phenomenon. The individualism-collectivism has become associated with the normative organization theories coming from different

countries. Hofstede (1980) notes that the United States' extreme position on the individualism dimension causes doubt concerning the relevancy of its theories cross-culturally.

Table 3 Consequences of Individualism-Collectivism Dimension for Organizations

Low IDV Countries	High IDV Countries
Involvement of individuals with organizations primarily moral	Involvement of individuals with organizations primarily calculative
Employees expect organizations to look after family – and can become very alienated if organization dissatisfies them	Organizations are not expected to look after like a employees from the cradle to the grave
Organization has great influence on members' well-being	Organization has moderate influence on members' well-being
Employees expect organization to defend their	Employees are expected to defend their own interests
Policies and practices based on loyalty and sense of duty	Policies and practices should allow for individual initiative
Promotion from inside } Promotion on seniority } Localism	Promotion from inside and outside } Promotion on market value } Cosmopolitanism
Less concern with fashion in management ideas	Managers try to be up-to-date and endorse modern management ideas
Policies and practices vary according to relations (particularism)	Policies and practices apply to all (universalism)

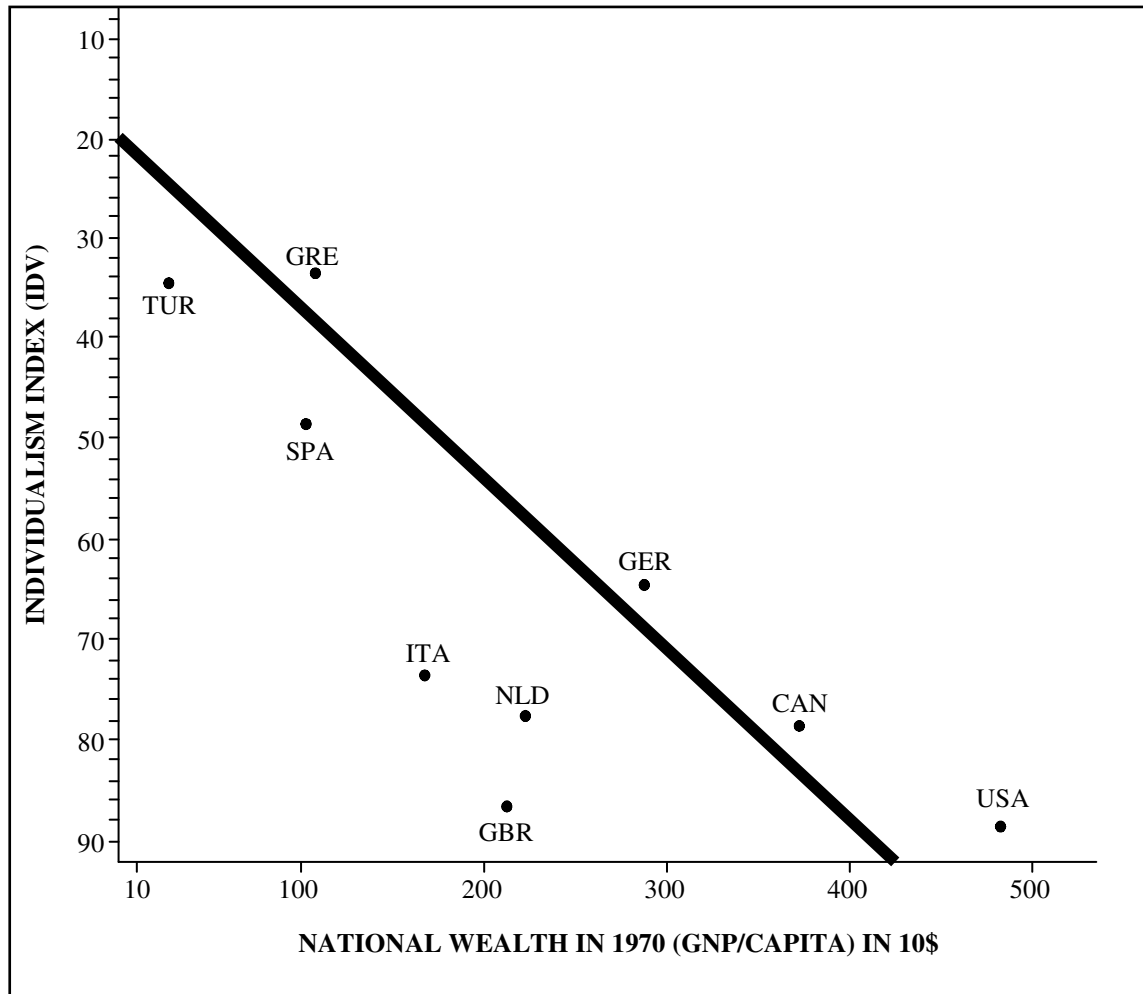
Source: Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*, Beverly Hills, Sage, 238-239.

Hofstede (1980) states that a country's degree of individualism is related statistically to its wealth. There is a 0.82 correlation between the individualism and wealth as measured by GNP per capita. Figure 2 shows the relationship between the individualism and national wealth.

Apart from wealth, Hofstede (1980) has noted that geographical latitude and the organization's size also play a role in predicting individualism. Like the dimensions already mentioned, the individualism norm resembles a value system shared by the majority of a country's middle class. The nucleus family is often considered a central

element in fostering the development of this norm. Where the nucleus family dominates, there is less emphasis on broader social groupings. Table 3 shows the organizational consequences arising out of differences on this dimension.

Figure 2 The Position of the Countries on their Individualism Index (IDV) versus their 1970 National Wealth



Source: Based on Hofstede, G. (1983). Dimensions of National Cultures in Fifty Countries and Three Regions. In Deregowski, J. B., Dziurawiec, S. & Annis, R. C. (Eds.). *Expiscations in Cross-Cultural Psychology*, Lisse, Swets and Zeitlinger, 344.

Many of the indexes identified by Hofstede (1980) are also related to each other. The power distance index, for example, correlates negatively with individualism. There are some exceptions, though. Latin European countries such as France, Belgium and Italy have a combination of high power distance and high individualism.

Figure 1 demonstrates the position of the countries in the Individualism Index (IDV) versus Power Distance Index (PDI) scale. In the light of this dimension results demonstrated that Greece has the lowest IDV (35) where the USA has the highest (91). The low IDV countries are Greece and Turkey respectively. The high IDV countries are the USA, the U.K., Canada, the Netherlands, Italy, Germany and Spain respectively.

Hofstede (1980) suggests that in these countries people have a need for dependence on superiors; at the same time, they stress their personal independence from the organization to which they belong. Table 7 shows the country numerical values related with one of the Hofstede Dimensions, Individualism versus Collectivism.

2.1.2.3.Masculinity versus Femininity

This dimension considers the degree of masculinity of a society's dominant values – values such as assertiveness, acquisition of money, and not caring for others. Hofstede (1980) defines it as; this dimension deals with the respondents showing a more or less traditionally masculine pattern. His findings reveal that countries closer to the equator tend to be more masculine; countries closer to the poles are more feminine. The relationship becomes stronger when the poorer and wealthier countries are considered separately.

Hofstede (1980) explains differences in this dimension in terms of the necessity for men and women to master complex skills in moderate climates. The masculinity-femininity index is also related to population growth: it is negative for the wealthier countries and positive for the poorer ones. Although this ecological, indicators explain a portion of the variance; much of the societal masculinity-femininity difference must be historically and traditionally determined. Historical factors play an important role, but among modern nations, there is no trend toward convergence in the direction of masculinity or femininity. From an organizational perspective, this dimension indicates the importance of earnings, recognition, achievement, and challenge in a particular country. This dimension is measured by a factor derived from the work importance scores.

Table 4 Consequences of Masculinity Dimension for Organizations

Low MAS Countries	High MAS Countries
Some young men and women want careers, do not	Young men expect to make a career; those who others don't see themselves as failures
Organization should not interfere with people's private lives	Organizational interests are a legitimate reason for interfering with people's private lives
More women in more qualified and better-paid	Fewer women in more qualified and better-paid jobs jobs
Women in more qualified jobs not particularly assertive	Women in more qualified jobs are very assertive
Lower job stress	Higher job stress
Less industrial conflict	More industrial conflict
Appeal of job restructuring permitting group integration	Appeal of job restructuring permitting individual achievement

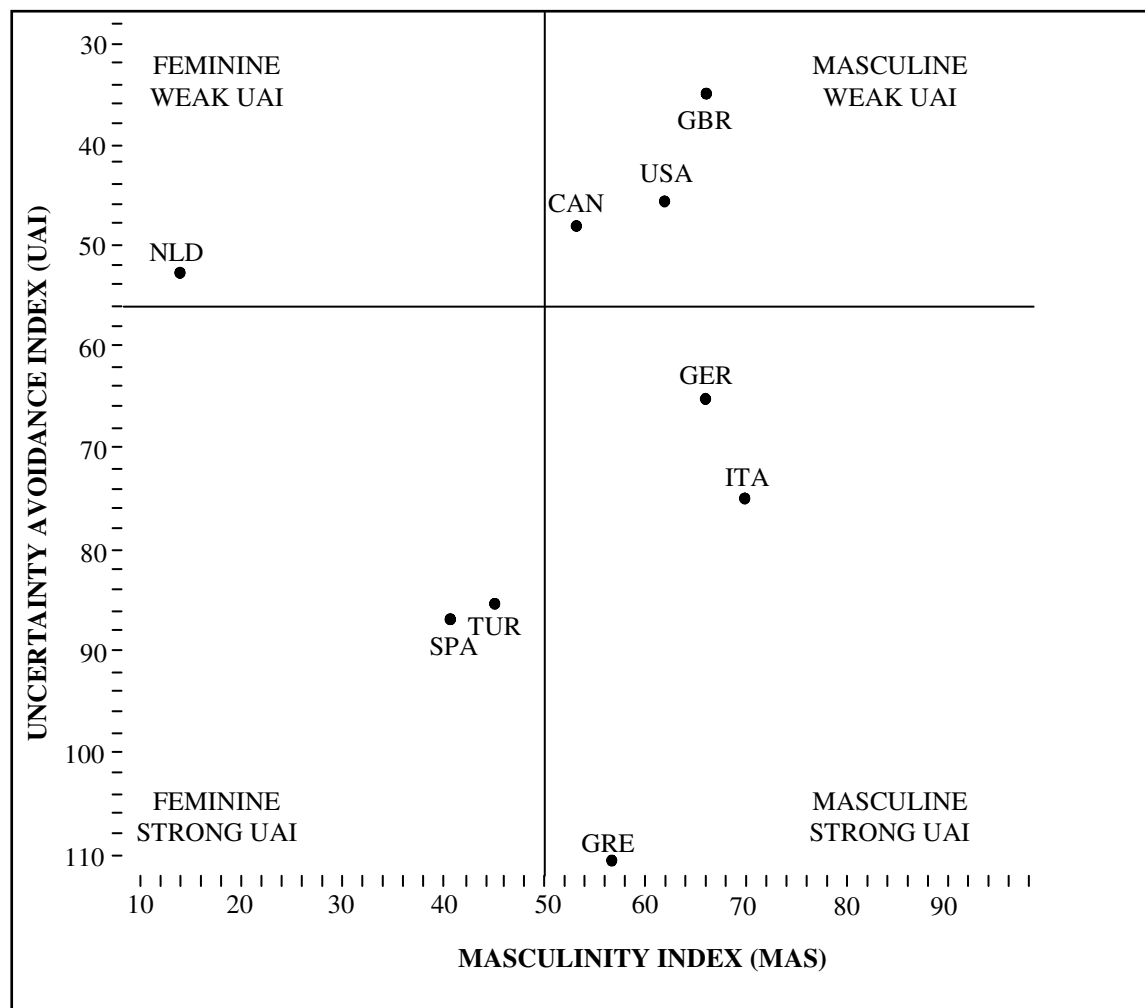
Source: Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*, Beverly Hills, Sage, 296.

Advancement and earnings correlate positively with this factor, whereas social and environmental factors are negatively related. One aspect of this dimension is its implications for work reform. The concept of a humanized job depends on one's definition of what is human. In a masculine culture, a humanized job should lead to opportunities for recognition, advancement, and challenge; in a feminine culture, the emphasis will be more on cooperation and a good working atmosphere. The masculinity index shows Japan as the country leads the index. German-speaking countries (Austria, Switzerland, and Germany) also score high. Table 4 shows the organizational consequences arising out of differences in masculinity.

Figure 3 demonstrates the position of the countries in the Masculinity Index (MAS) versus Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) scale. In the light of this dimension results demonstrated that the Netherlands has the lowest MAS (14) where Italy has the highest (70). The more Feminine countries are the Netherlands, Spain and Turkey respectively. The more Masculine countries are Italy, the U.K., Germany, the USA,

Greece and Canada respectively. Table 7 shows the country numerical values related with one of the Hofstede Dimensions, Masculinity/Femininity.

Figure 3 The Position of the Countries on their Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) versus their Masculinity Index (MAS)



Source: Based on Hofstede, G. (1982). Dimensions of National Cultures. In Rath, R., Asthana, H. S., Sinha, D. & Sinha, J. B. P. (Eds.). Diversity and Unity in Cross-Cultural Psychology, Lisse, Swets and Zeitlinger, 183.

2.1.2.4. Uncertainty Avoidance

This dimension identifies the extent to which a society tends to consider itself threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations. To this degree, it tends to avoid such situations by establishing greater career stability, formal rules, intolerance of deviant ideas or behaviors, and a belief in absolute truths. At the same time, such societies have

high level of anxiety and aggressiveness, which creates a strong inner urge to work hard.

Table 5 Consequences of Uncertainty Avoidance Dimension for Organizations

Low UAI	High UAI
Less structuring of activities	More structuring of activities
Fewer written rules	More written rules
More generalists and amateurs	Larger number of specialists
Organizations can be pluriform	Organizations should be as uniform as possible (standardization)
Managers more involved in strategy	Managers more involved in details
Managers more interpersonal oriented and flexible in their style	Managers more task-oriented and consistent in their style
Managers more willing to make individual and risky decisions	Managers less willing to make individual and risky decisions
High labor turnover	Lower labor turnover
More ambitious employees	Less ambitious employees
Lower satisfaction scores	Higher satisfaction scores
Less power through the control of uncertainty	More power through the control of uncertainty
Less ritual behavior	More ritual behavior

Source: Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*, Beverly Hills, Sage, 187.

The uncertainty avoidance norm is also a kind of value system shared by the majority of the middle class. The primary focus of this norm is on the prevention of anxiety. As Hofstede (1980) suggests, technology, rules, and rituals provide the means for such anxiety reduction. In countries where uncertainty avoidance is high, anxiety is released through aggressiveness and emotions for which society has created an outlet. In countries where uncertainty avoidance is low, anxiety is released through passive relaxation; overt demonstration of aggressiveness and emotion is not socially approved. In a similar vein, tolerance toward people who have different ideas is more often present in countries that have low uncertainty avoidance.

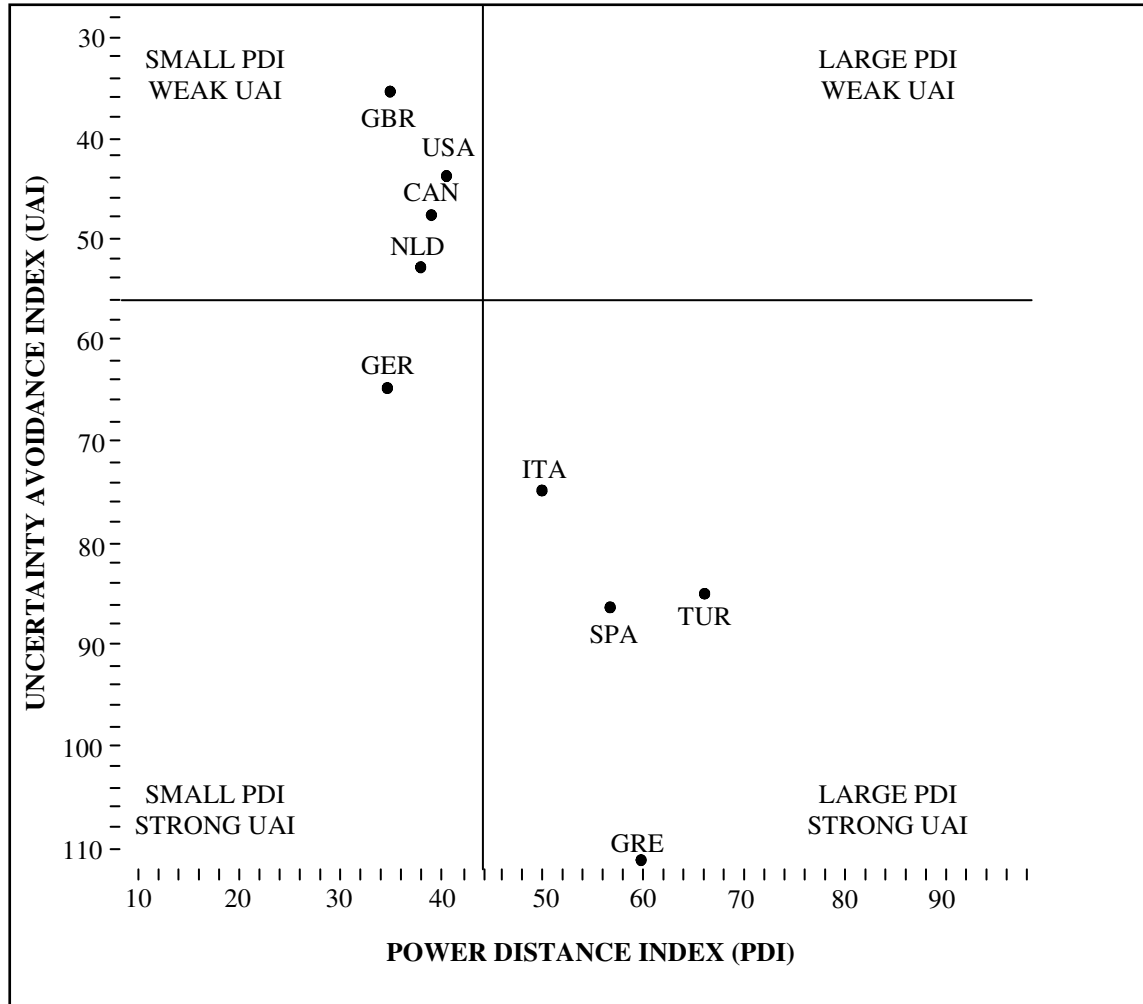
Plotting the uncertainty avoidance index for fifty countries against the power distance, several clusters of countries are found that are characterized by strong uncertainty avoidance and large power distance. A large cluster of countries with strong uncertainty avoidance and large power distance comprises the Latin countries (Latin Europe, and Latin America), Mediterranean countries such as former Yugoslavia, Greece, and Turkey, plus Japan and Korea. On the other hand, the Asian countries appear in two clusters with large power distance and medium-to-weak uncertainty avoidance. Denmark, Sweden, the U.K., and Ireland are typically of small power distance and weak uncertainty avoidance countries.

Hofstede (1980) notes that the origin of the uncertainty avoidance norm is much less clear than that of the power distance norm. Differences in uncertainty avoidance among countries may reflect differences in religion, population diversity, and a high rate of societal change. This dimension is measured by a three-item index that deals with the importance of not breaking rules, staying with the company, and the amount of job stress experienced. Table 5 shows the consequences of uncertainty avoidance on organizations.

From an organizational perspective, this norm probably most significantly affects the structuring of activities. Thus, in countries where uncertainty avoidance is high, there may be more structuring of activities as manifested by written rules. Management in high uncertainty avoidance countries may also be relatively task oriented. This dimension also may affect the exercise of the power in organizations. Various forms of ritual behavior found in high uncertainty avoidance countries are also likely to show up in these societies.

Figure 4 demonstrates the position of the countries in the Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) versus Power Distance Index (PDI) scale. In the light of this dimension results demonstrated that the U.K. has the weakest UAI (35) where Greece has the strongest (112). The weak UAI countries are the U.K., the USA, Canada and the Netherlands respectively. The strong UAI countries are Greece, Spain, Turkey, Italy and Germany respectively. Table 7 shows the country numerical values related with one of the Hofstede Dimensions, Uncertainty Avoidance.

Figure 4 The Position of the Countries on their Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) versus their Power Distance Index (PDI)



Source: Based on Hofstede, G. (1982). Dimensions of National Cultures. In Rath, R., Asthana, H. S., Sinha, D. & Sinha, J. B. P. (Eds.). Diversity and Unity in Cross-Cultural Psychology, Lisse, Swets and Zeitlinger, 181.

2.1.2.5. Long versus Short Term Orientation

A vital feature of Hofstede's (1991) Cultures and Organizations book is the inclusion of Long-Term Orientation (also known as the Confucian Dynamism) as a fifth dimension of national culture variance. According to Hofstede (1991), the fifth dimension deals with time orientation and consists of two contrasting poles: Long-term orientation versus Short-term orientation.

The new dimension, Long-term orientation versus Short-term orientation, was found in the answers of student samples from 23 countries around 1985 to the Chinese Value Survey, an instrument developed by Michael Harris Bond in Hong Kong from values suggested by Chinese scholars (Hofstede, 1991).

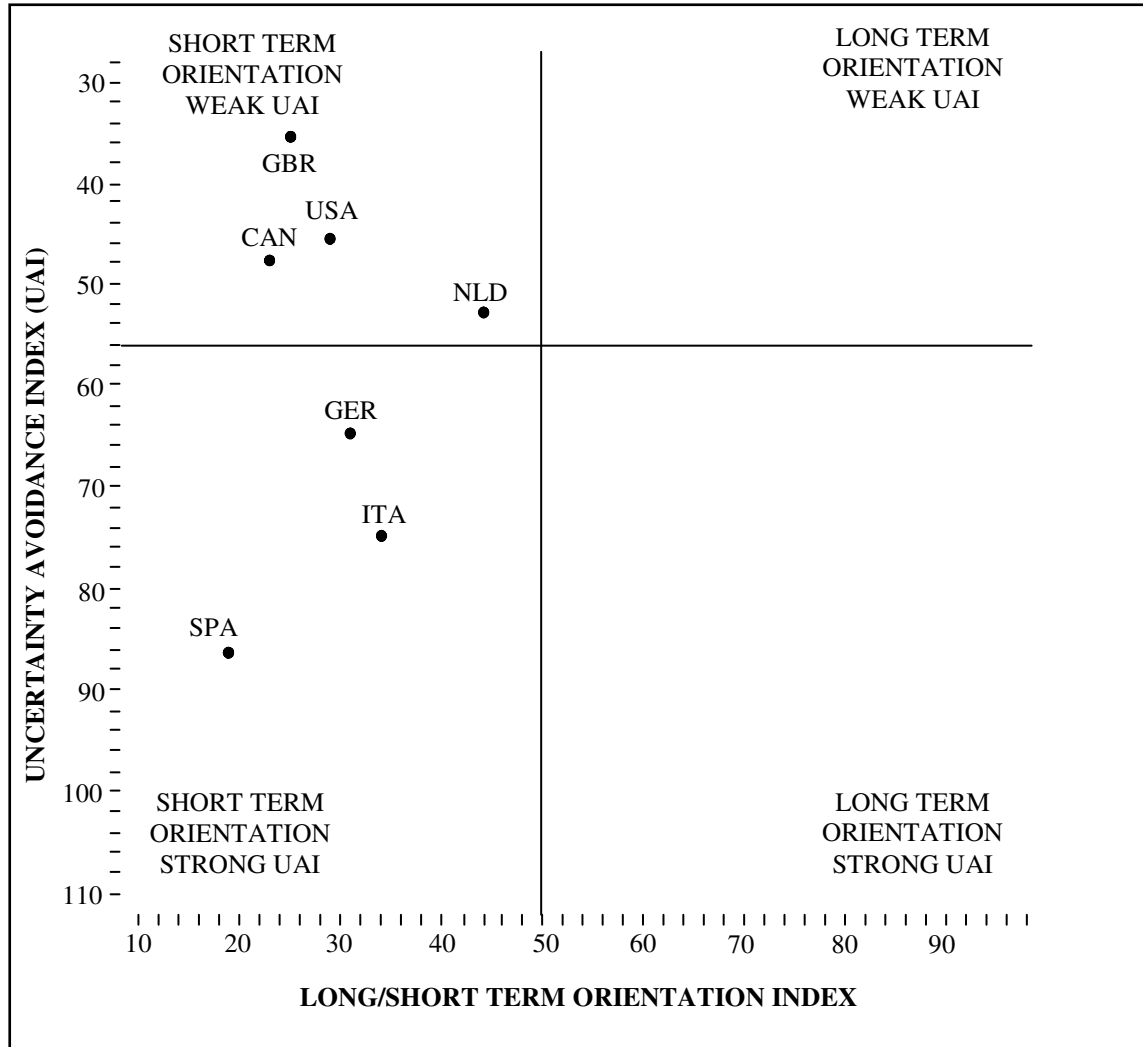
Table 6 Consequences of Long Term Orientation Dimension for Organizations

Low Long Term	High Long Term
Emphasis on quick results	Emphasis on persistence
Status not a major issue in relationships	Relationships ordered by status
Personal steadfastness and stability important	Personal adaptability important
Protection of one's face is important	Face considerations common but seen as a weakness
Leisure time important	Leisure time not too important
Spend	Save, be thrifty
Invest in mutual funds flexible in their style	Invest in real estate
Bottom line important	Relationships and market position important
Belief in absolutes about good and evil	Good or evil depends on circumstances

Source: Based on Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. London: McGraw-Hill, 165-166, and Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 354-355.

According to Hofstede (1991), the long-term orientation refers to a positive, dynamic and future oriented culture linked with four positive Confucian values: persistence (perseverance), ordering relationships by status and observing this order, thrift, and having a sense of shame. Short-term orientation, however, represents a negative, static, and traditional and past-oriented culture associated with four negative Confucian values: personal steadiness and stability, protecting your face, respect for tradition, and reciprocation of greetings, favors, and gifts. Chinese societies (China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore), Japan, Korea, Thailand, etc. are ranked as more future and long-term oriented cultures, whereas Pakistan, Nigeria, Philippines, Canada, Zimbabwe, U.K., the USA, New Zealand, Australia, and Germany more past and short-term oriented cultures.

Figure 5 The Position of the Countries on their Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) versus their Long/Short Term Orientation Index



Source: Based on Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations across Nations*, Thousand Oaks, California, Sage, pp. 500-501.

Hofstede (1991) stated that Michael Harris Bond calls it Confucian work dynamism - Confucian because Confucian the items on both poles of the dimension remind him of some of the teachings of Confucius, and dynamism because the positive pole groups future-oriented items and the negative pole groups past- and present-oriented items. In practical terms, the dimension refers to a long-term versus short-term orientation in life.

Furthermore, Hofstede uses the index of Long-Term Orientation (Confucian Dynamism) to explain the economic growth of nations. Hofstede distinguished between the good and bad aspects of Confucianism, and it was only the good aspects of Confucianism making up the Confucian ethic that were related to economic growth in Asian nations.

Figure 5 demonstrates the position of the countries in the Long/Short-Term Orientation Index versus Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) scale. In the light of this dimension results demonstrated that Spain has the lowest Short-Term Oriented Index (19) where the Netherlands has the highest (44). All the countries related with this research are Short-Term Oriented countries. Short-Term Oriented countries are Spain, Canada, the U.K., the USA, Germany, Italy and the Netherlands respectively. There is no Long-Term Oriented country. Table 7 shows the country numerical values related with one of the Hofstede Dimensions, Long/Short-Term Orientation.

Table 7 Hofstede Culture Dimensions

Countries	Power Distance Index	Uncertainty Avoidance Index	Individualism/Collectivism Index	Masculinity/Femininity Index	Long/Short-Term Orientation Index
Canada	39	48	80	52	23
Germany	35	65	67	66	31
U.K.	35	35	89	66	25
Greece	60	112	35	57	-
Italy	50	75	76	70	34
Netherlands	38	53	80	14	44
Spain	57	86	51	42	19
Turkey	66	85	37	45	-
USA	40	46	91	62	29

Source: Based on Hofstede, G. (2001). Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations across Nations, Thousand Oaks, California, Sage, pp. 500-501.

2.1.3. Schwartz's Culture Dimensions

2.1.3.1. Conservatism versus Intellectual and Affective Autonomy

The first basic issue confronting all societies is to define the nature of the relation between the individual and the group. This dimension is frequently labeled as individualism versus collectivism (Hofstede, 1980, 1991). In cultures at the Conservatism pole of the dimension, Schwartz (1994) noted that the person is viewed as embedded in a collectivity, finding meaning in life largely through social relationships, through identifying with the group and participating in its shared way of life. Schwartz (1999) noted that this value type emphasizes maintenance of the status quo, propriety, and restraint of actions or inclinations that might disrupt the solitary group or the traditional order. Exemplary specific values are social order, respect for tradition, family security, and self-discipline (Smith & Schwartz, 1997).

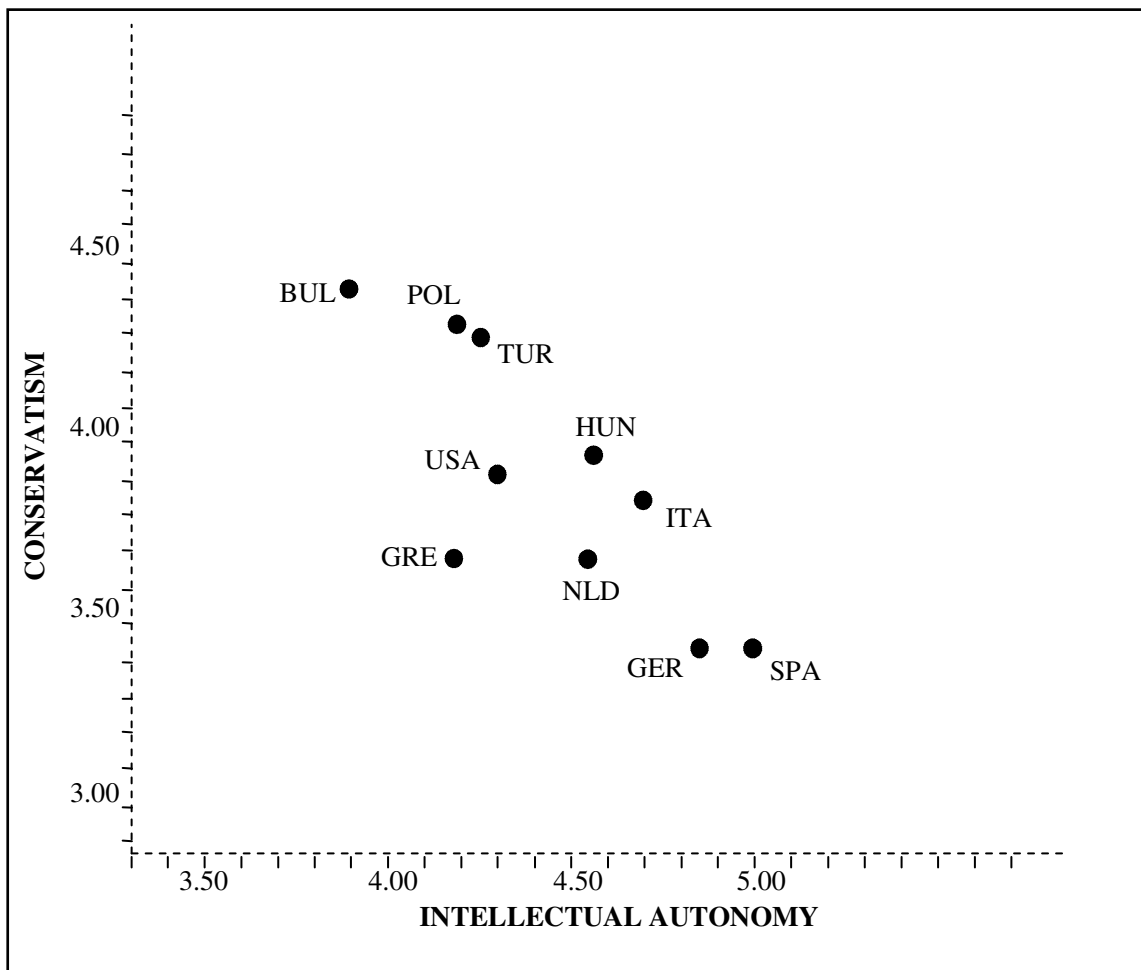
The culture level value type on the upper right, labeled "Conservatism" is constituted precisely of those values likely to be important in societies based on close-knit harmonious relations, in which the interests of the person are not viewed as distinct from those of the group. These are sociocentric values, appropriate in settings where the self lacks autonomous significance but has meaning as part of the collectivity. Cultures that emphasize Conservatism values are primarily concerned with security, conformity, and tradition (Schwartz, 1994).

The opposite pole of this dimension is defined as autonomous. In cultures at the Autonomous pole of this dimension, Schwartz (1994) mentioned that the person is viewed as autonomous, bounded entity who finds meaning in his or her own uniqueness, who seeks to express his or her own internal attributes (preferences, traits, feelings, motives) and encouraged to do so (Smith & Schwartz, 1997). It is possible to distinguish conceptually between two types of Autonomy; the first refers to ideas and thought, the second to feelings and emotions (Schwartz, 1999).

Schwartz (1994) distinguishes two related types of Autonomy: Intellectual Autonomy emphasizes the independent ideas and rights of the individual to pursue his/her own intellectual directions (exemplary values include curiosity,

broadmindedness, and creativity). Schwartz (1999) redefined Intellectual Autonomy as a cultural emphasis on the desirability of individuals independently pursuing their own ideas and intellectual directions. Conservatism, Intellectual Autonomy and Affective Autonomy related values appear in Figure 11.

Figure 6 The Position of the Countries on their Conservatism Index versus their Intellectual Autonomy Index



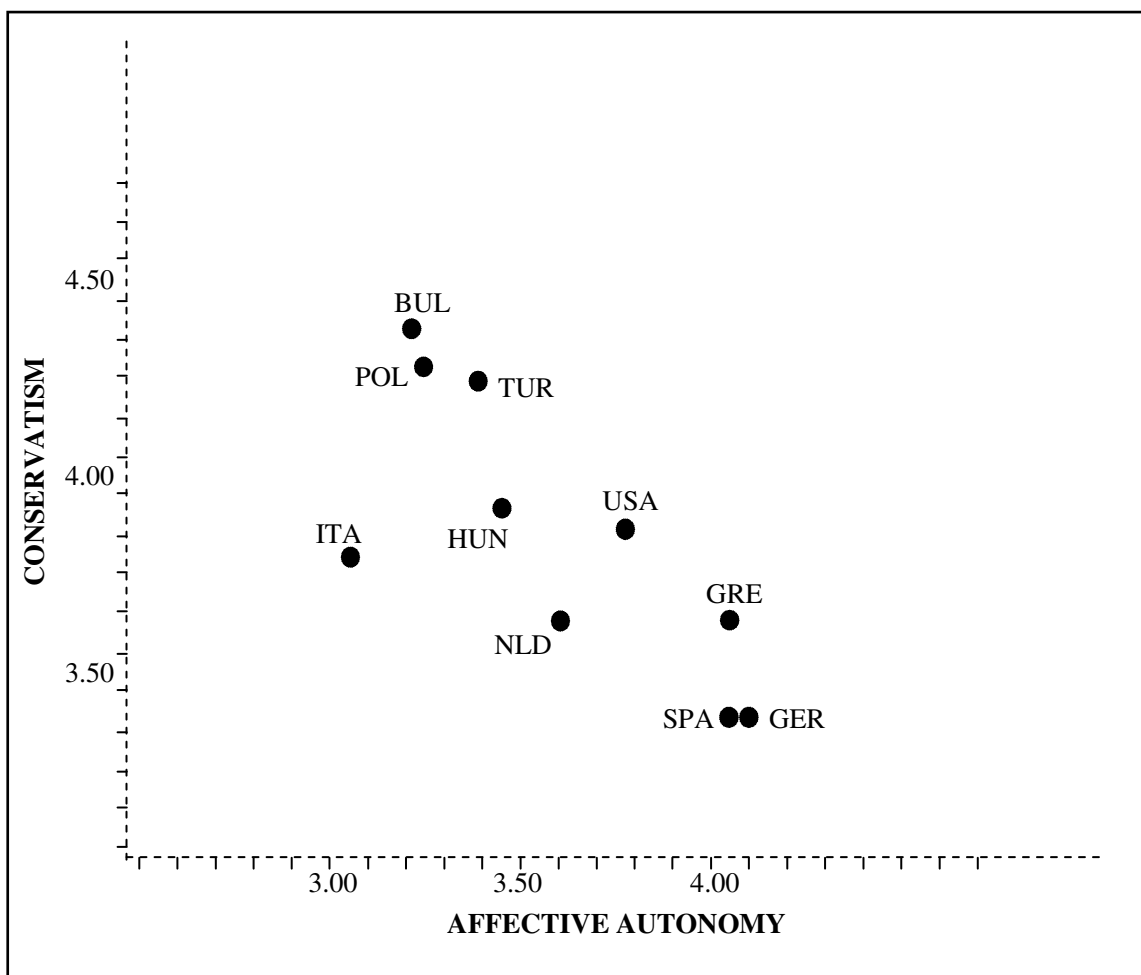
Source: Created based on values in Schwartz, S.H. (1994). Beyond Individualism/Collectivism: New Cultural Dimensions of Values. In U.Kim, H.C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S. Choi & G. Yoon (Eds.). Individualism and Collectivism: Theory, Method, and Applications. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 112-115.

Figure 6 demonstrates the position of the countries in the Conservatism Index versus Intellectual Autonomy Index scale. In the light of this dimension results demonstrated that Spain and Germany have the weakest Conservatism Index (3.42)

where Bulgaria has the strongest (4.43). However, Bulgaria has the weakest Intellectual Autonomy Index (3.78) where Spain has the strongest (4.90).

Affective Autonomy emphasizes the individual's independent pursuit of affectively positive experience (pleasure, exciting life, varied life) (Smith & Schwartz, 1997). Schwartz (1999) redefined Affective Autonomy as a cultural emphasis on the desirability of individuals independently pursuing affectively positive experience.

Figure 7 The Position of the Countries on their Conservatism Index versus their Affective Autonomy Index



Source: Created based on values in Schwartz, S.H. (1994). Beyond Individualism/Collectivism: New Cultural Dimensions of Values. In U.Kim, H.C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S. Choi & G. Yoon (Eds.). Individualism and Collectivism: Theory, Method, and Applications. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 112-115.

Figure 7 demonstrates the position of the countries in the Conservatism Index versus Affective Autonomy Index scale. In the light of this dimension results demonstrated that Spain and Germany have the weakest Conservatism Index (3.42) where Bulgaria has the strongest (4.43). However, Italy has the weakest Affective Autonomy Index (2.95) where Germany has the strongest (4.03).

Opposite Conservatism, as hypothesized, those values are likely to be important in societies that view the person as an autonomous entity entitled to pursue his or her individual interests and desires. Two related aspects of Autonomy values appear to be distinguishable: a more intellectual emphasis on self-direction and a more affective emphasis on stimulation and hedonism.

Schwartz (1994) stated that the mean priority scores for the Intellectual and the Affective Autonomy value subtypes are correlated across cultures ($r=.49$), and they are strongly negatively correlated with priority scores for the Conservatism value type, whether considered separately ($r=-.74$ and $-.80$, respectively) or combined as a general Autonomy type ($r=-.89$). Table 8 shows the country numerical values related with the Schwartz Dimensions, Conservatism, Intellectual Autonomy and Affective Autonomy.

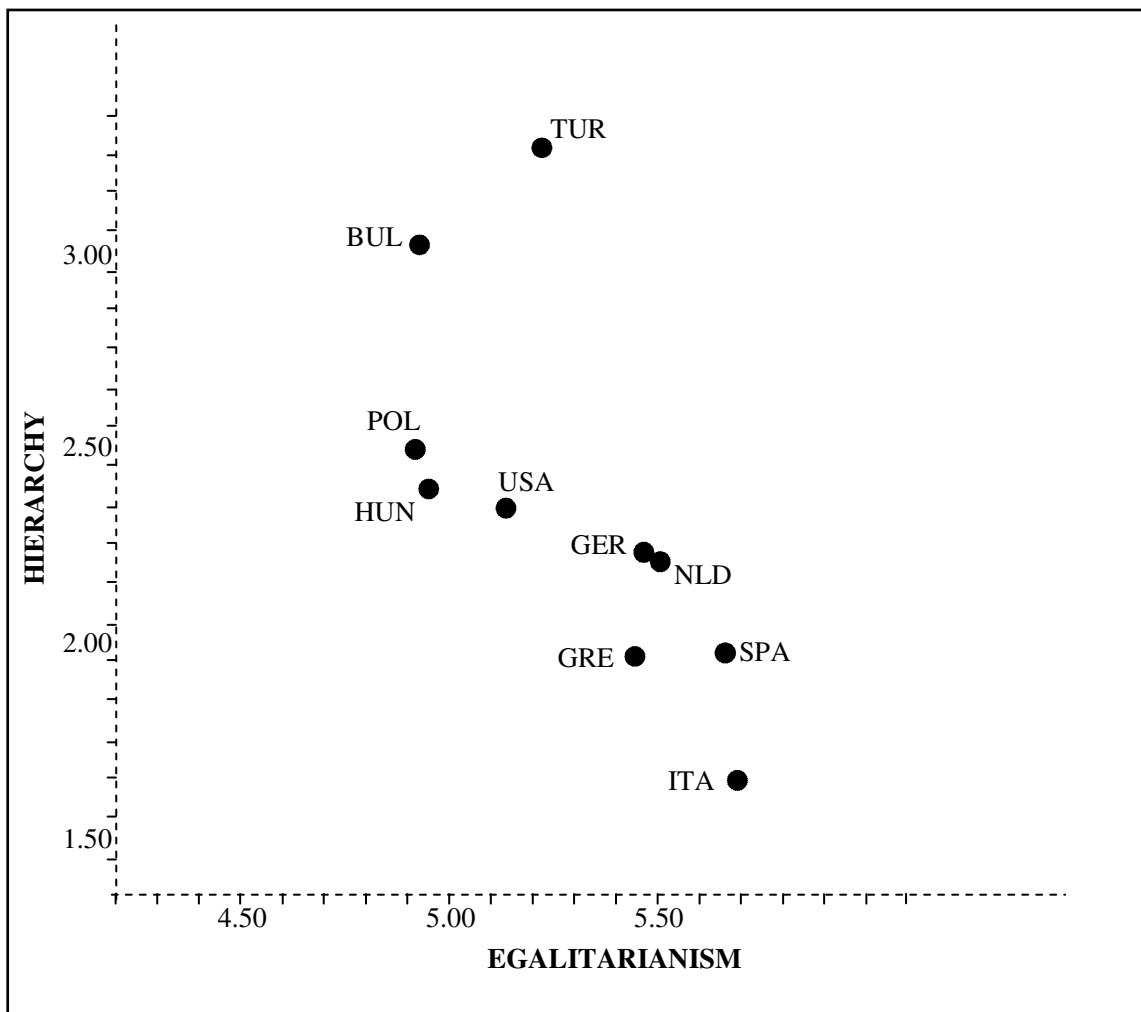
2.1.3.2.Hierarchy versus Egalitarianism

The second basic issue that confronts all societies is to guarantee responsible behavior that will preserve the social fabric. People must be induced to consider the welfare of others, coordinate with them, and thereby manage the unavoidable social interdependencies. Schwartz (1994) noted that one polar resolution of this issue uses power differences, relying on hierarchical systems of ascribed roles to ensure socially responsible behavior.

People are socialized to comply with the obligations and rules attached to their roles and sanctioned if they do not. The value type expressive of this view is Hierarchy. This value type emphasizes the legitimacy of an unequal distribution of power, roles, and resources (social power, authority, humility, wealth) (Smith & Schwartz, 1997).

An alternative solution to the problem of responsible social behavior is to induce societal members to recognize one another as moral equals who share basic interests as human beings. Schwartz (1994) mentioned that High Egalitarianism cultures portray individuals as moral equals who shares basic interests as human beings.

Figure 8 The Position of the Countries on their Hierarchy Index versus their Egalitarianism Index



Source: Created based on values in Schwartz, S.H. (1994). Beyond Individualism/Collectivism: New Cultural Dimensions of Values. In U.Kim, H.C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S. Choi & G. Yoon (Eds.). Individualism and Collectivism: Theory, Method, and Applications. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 112-115.

People are socialized to internalize a commitment to voluntary cooperation with others and to feel concern for everyone's welfare. The value type expressive of this

view is Egalitarianism. This value type emphasizes transcendence of selfish interests (equality, social justice, freedom, responsibility, honesty). Egalitarianism values are a focus of socialization in cultures where the person is viewed as autonomous rather than independent, because autonomous persons have no natural commitment to others (Smith & Schwartz, 1997). Hierarchy and Egalitarianism related values appear in Figure 11.

Figure 8 demonstrates the position of the countries in the Hierarchy Index versus Egalitarianism Index scale. In the light of this dimension results demonstrated that Italy has the weakest Hierarchy Index (1.69) where Turkey has the strongest (3.30). However, Poland has the weakest Egalitarianism Index (4.82) where Italy has the strongest (5.57).

As hypothesized, Schwartz (1994) stated that a distinct region of values that express a preference for Hierarchy emerges closer to Conservatism ($r=.34$) than to the combined Autonomy index ($r=-.28$). The value “humble” falls in this region, together with the power values from which it was consistently distant in individual-level analyses. This location of humble reinforces the interpretation of the culture-level Hierarchy value type as emphasizing the legitimacy of hierarchical role and resource allocation. This value type forms the hypothesized broad self-enhancement region together with the next type, Mastery, the type with which it is correlated most positively ($r=.41$). Table 8 shows the country numerical values related with the Schwartz Dimensions, Hierarchy and Egalitarianism.

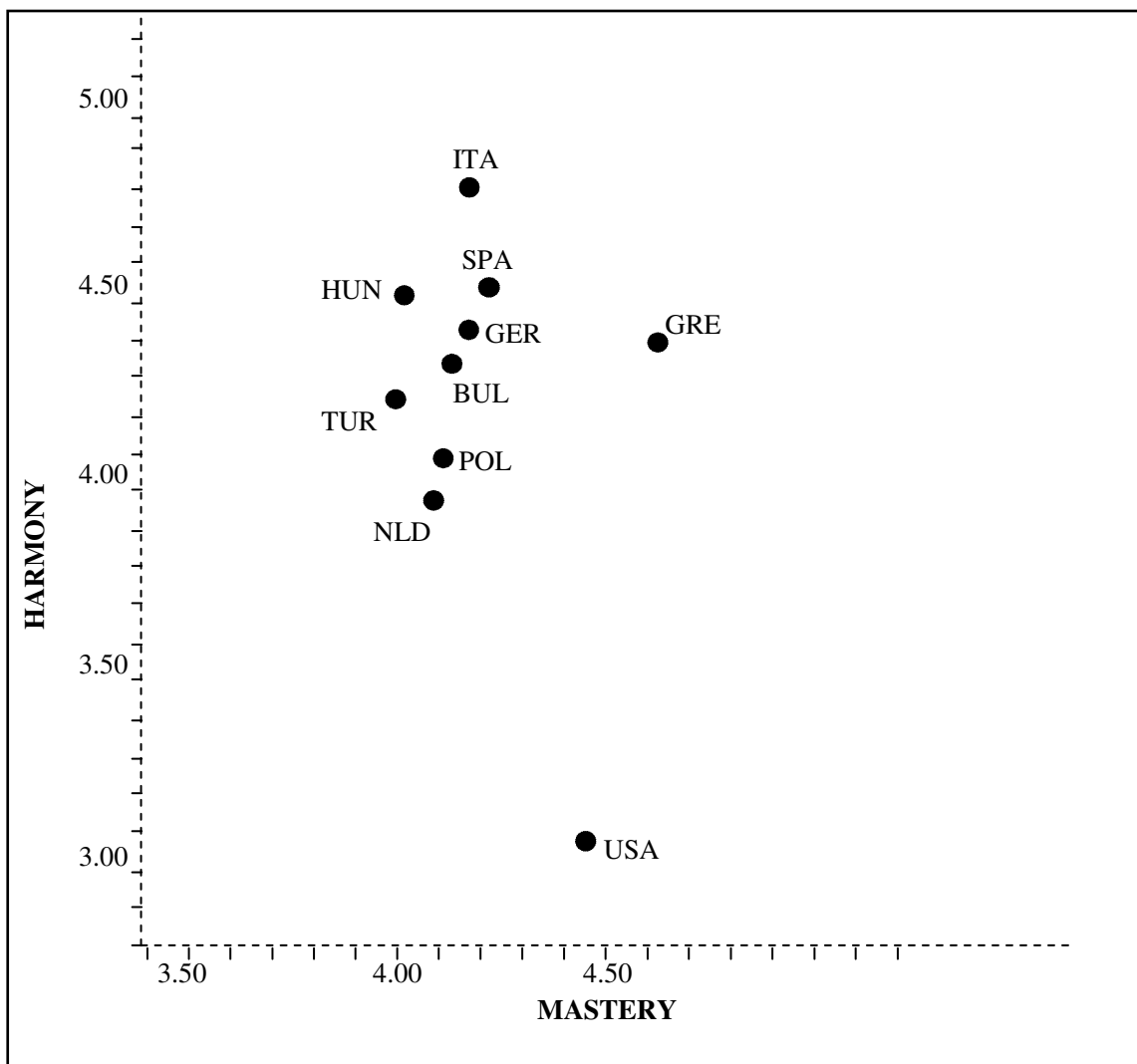
2.1.3.3.Mastery versus Harmony

The third basic issue that confronts all societies is the relation of humankind to the natural and social world. In high Mastery cultures, Schwartz (1994) noted that people actively seek to master and change the natural and social world, to assert control and exploit it in order to further personal or group interests. The value type emphasizes getting ahead through active self-assertion (ambition, success, daring, competence) (Smith & Schwartz, 1997).

High Harmony cultures accept the world as it is, trying to preserve rather than to change or exploit it (Schwartz, 1994). This value type emphasizes fitting

harmoniously into the environment (unity with nature, protecting the environment, world of beauty). In contemporary national cultures, the potential adaptation of submitting to the environment is uncommon (Smith & Schwartz, 1997). Mastery and Harmony related values appear in Figure 11.

Figure 9 The Position of the Countries on their and Harmony Index versus their Mastery Index



Source: Created based on values in Schwartz, S.H. (1994). Beyond Individualism/Collectivism: New Cultural Dimensions of Values. In U.Kim, H.C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S. Choi & G. Yoon (Eds.). Individualism and Collectivism: Theory, Method, and Applications. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 112-115.

The values in this region emphasize active mastery of the social environment through self-assertion. Although this value type and the Intellectual Autonomy type both include values that represent self-direction at the individual level, Schwartz (1994) stated that these two culture-level value types are not related ($r=-.02$). Mastery values promote active efforts to modify one's surroundings and get ahead of other people, whereas Intellectual Autonomy values emphasize flexibility of thought and feeling but not active social behavior. Mastery is related to Affective Autonomy ($r=.37$) because the two types share an emphasis on stimulating activity (Schwartz, 1994). Table 8 shows the country numerical values related with the Schwartz Dimensions, Mastery and Harmony.

Table 8 Schwartz Culture Dimensions

Countries	Conservatism	Affective Autonomy	Intellectual Autonomy	Hierarchy	Mastery	Egalitarianism	Harmony
Bulgaria	4.43	3.13	3.78	3.07	4.04	4.83	4.32
Germany	3.42	4.03	4.75	2.27	4.07	5.37	4.42
Greece	3.68	3.96	4.09	2.01	4.53	5.35	4.39
Hungary	3.97	3.34	4.44	2.42	3.96	4.87	4.51
Italy	3.82	2.95	4.60	1.69	4.08	5.57	4.80
Netherlands	3.68	3.51	4.44	2.26	3.98	5.39	3.98
Poland	4.31	3.13	4.09	2.53	4.00	4.82	4.10
Spain	3.42	3.97	4.90	2.03	4.11	5.55	4.53
Turkey	4.27	3.25	4.12	3.30	3.90	5.12	4.26
USA	3.90	3.65	4.20	2.39	4.34	5.03	3.70

Source: Based on Schwartz, S.H. (1994). Beyond Individualism/Collectivism: New Cultural Dimensions of Values. In U.Kim, H.C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S. Choi & G. Yoon (Eds.). Individualism and Collectivism: Theory, Method, and Applications. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 112-115.

Figure 9 demonstrates the position of the countries in the Mastery Index versus Harmony Index scale. In the light of this dimension results demonstrated that Turkey has the weakest Mastery Index (3.90) where Greece has the strongest (4.53). However, the USA has the weakest Harmony Index (3.70) where Italy has the strongest (4.80).

2.1.3.4.The Structure of Value Relations

According to Schwartz's (1994) Culture-Level Dimensions of Values theory, the seven value types are postulated to form three bipolar dimensions that express the contradictions between the alternative resolutions to each of the three issues just described: Autonomy versus Conservatism, Hierarchy versus Egalitarianism, and Mastery versus Harmony.

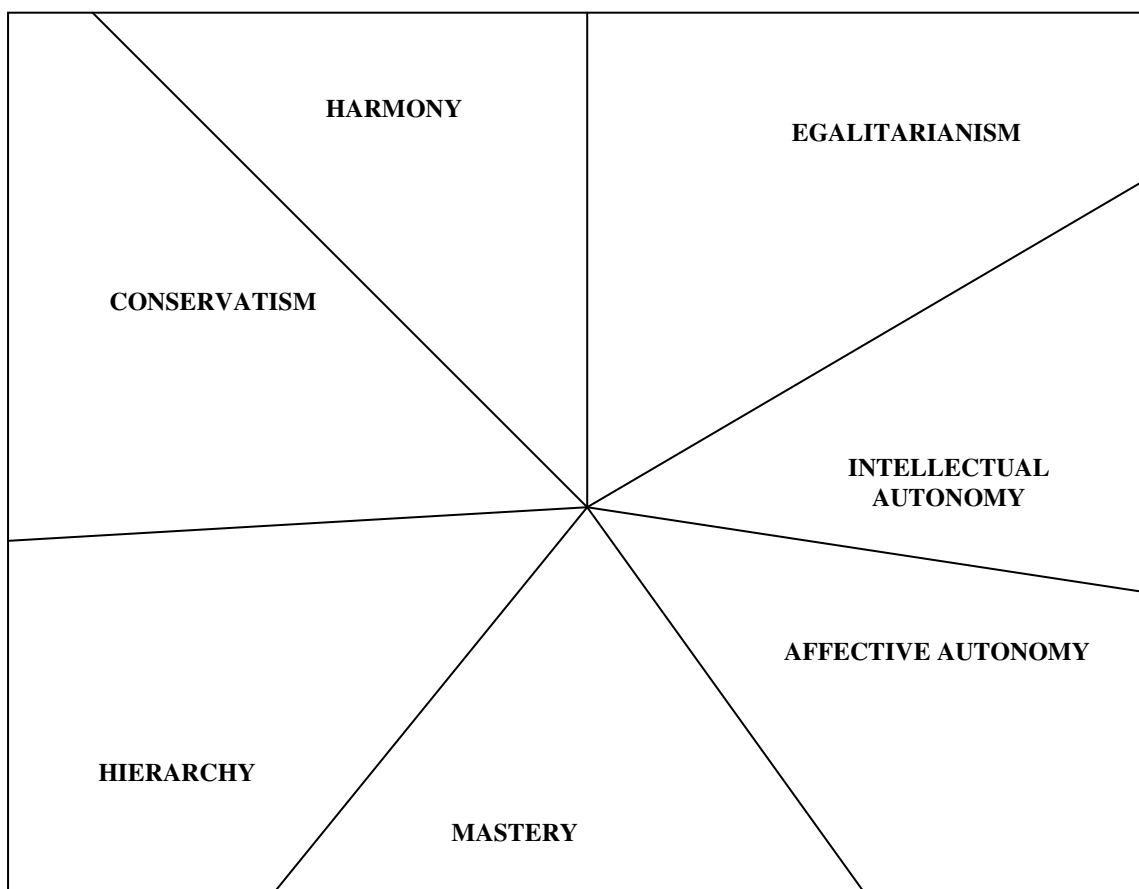
Because of these contradictions, an emphasis on one value type is postulated to be accompanied in a culture by a de-emphasis on the polar type. The value types are also interrelated on the basis of the compatibilities among them. That is, certain value types share similar assumptions that make it possible for them to be emphasized simultaneously in a particular culture. These dynamic relations of contradiction and compatibility among the seven cultural value types are postulated to lead to the integrated structure of value systems shown in Figure 10 (Schwartz, 1999).

Schwartz (1999) explored the relationship among these seven cultural value types as follows: Hierarchy and Conservatism values relate positively because a view of the social actor (individual or group) as embedded in a collectivity of interdependent mutually obligated others underlies them both. Egalitarianism and Autonomy values relate positively because a view of the social actor as an autonomous entity underlies them both. The Intellectual subset of values is more related to Egalitarianism than the Affective Autonomy subset. This is because it is critical to view social actors as autonomous decision makers who can choose to undertake social responsibilities if one is to accept the nature of human relationships as contractual, the assumption implicit in Egalitarianism (Schwartz, 1999).

Schwartz (1999) noted that Mastery values relate positively to Autonomy values, because both types presume the legitimacy of changing the status quo and they both emphasize stimulating activity. However, the interests whose assertive and even exploitative pursuits are justified by Mastery values are not necessarily those of the autonomous self or other individual actor. They may equally be the shared interests of the collectivities in which one is embedded (i.e. tribe, family, work group). Hence

Mastery values do not necessarily oppose Conservatism values. Mastery values are also linked to Hierarchy values, because efforts to get ahead are often at the expense of others and result in unequal allocations of roles and resources that are justified in a society where hierarchical differences are viewed as legitimate. But Mastery values are opposed to Egalitarianism values, because exploitative self-assertion (for individual or group interests) conflicts with relating to others as equals (Schwartz, 1999).

Figure 10 The Theorized Structure of Culture-Level Value Types



Source: Schwartz, S. H. (1999). A Theory of Cultural Values and Some Implications for Work. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 48, 1, 29.

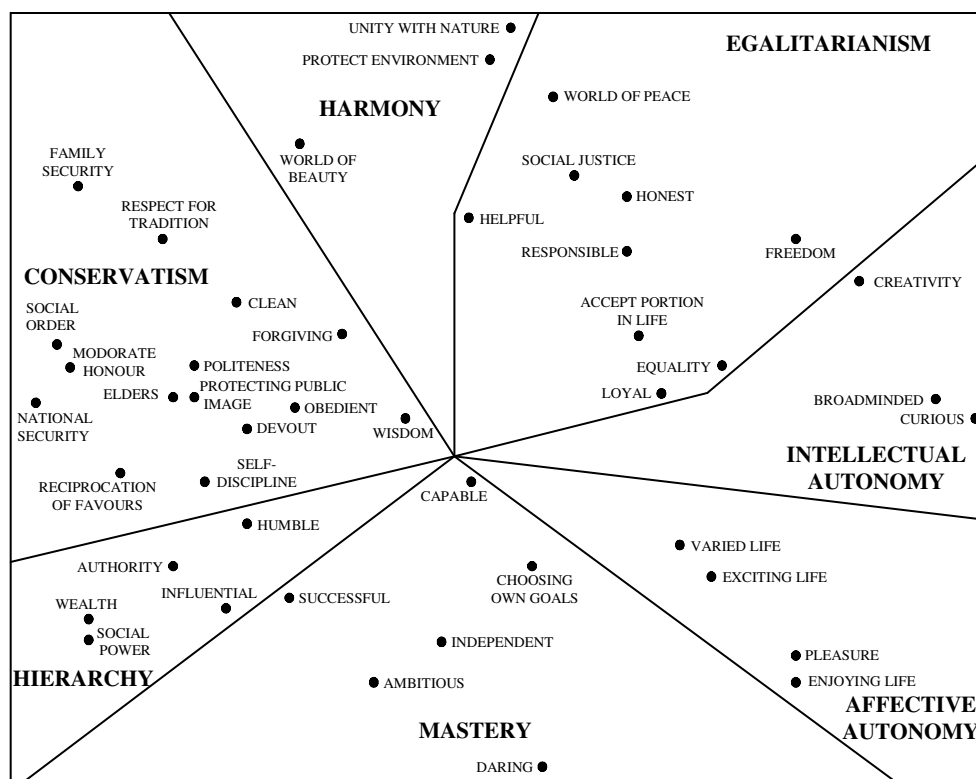
Schwartz (1999) mentioned that Harmony values are compatible with Conservatism values, with which they share an emphasis on avoiding change, and with Egalitarianism values, with which they share an emphasis on cooperative relations. Their position in the overall structure also reflects the contradiction implicit in a simultaneous cultural emphasis on the quiescent concord with the world inherent in

Harmony values and the legitimation of arousing experience inherent in Affective Autonomy values (Schwartz, 1999).

In order to test the validity of the theoretical content and structure of culture-level value types, a Similarity Structure Analysis was performed on data from over 35000 respondents from 122 samples in 49 nations, gathered between 1988 and 1993 shown in Figure 11 (Schwartz, 1999).

Schwartz (1999) noted that while he was working on his Value Survey, the respondents rated the importance of 56 single values “as guiding principles in their life”. Examination of separate multidimensional scaling analyses of the 56 values within each of the different nations had established such equivalence for 45 of the values (Schwartz, 1994). Only these 45 values were therefore included in the analyses for testing cultural dimensions.

Figure 11 Schwartz’s Culture-Level Similarity Structure Analysis (SSA)



Source: Schwartz, S. H. (1999). A Theory of Cultural Values and Some Implications for Work. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 48, 1, 36.

2.1.4. Country Clusters

Ronen and Shenkar (1985) reviewed eight empirical studies using attitudinal data to cluster countries. According to Ronen and Shenkar (1985), the use of national units for clustering is logical because national boundaries delineate the legal, political, and social environments within which organizations and workers operate. Yet, to understand why certain countries cluster, one should look across national boundaries for the dimensions underlying the clusters.

Three such dimensions are discussed by Ronen and Shenkar (1985). Those are geography, language, and religion. But the Anglo-American cluster, which contains countries from five continents, is an exception. Ronen and Shenkar (1985) explained this exception that the spread of culture may be attributed to colonization and immigration.

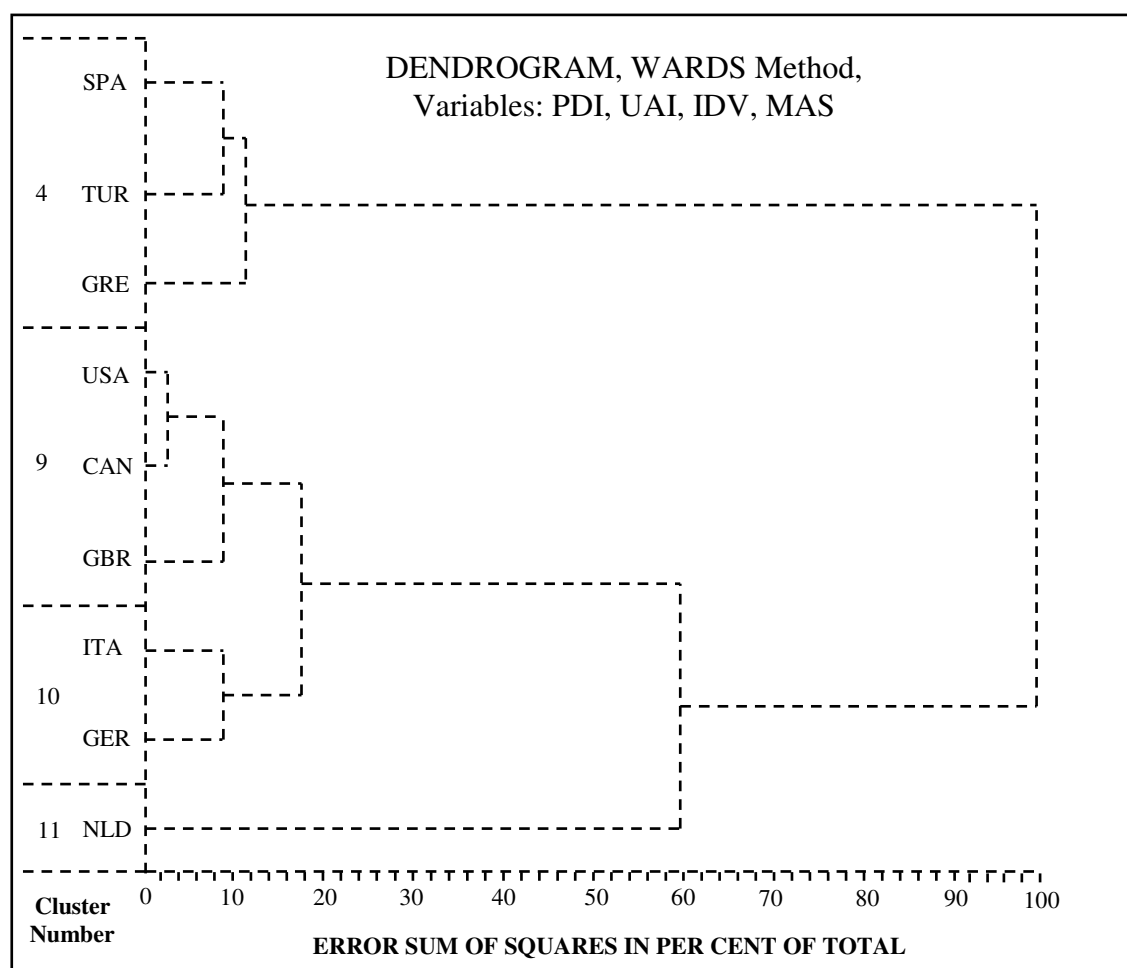
Hofstede (1982) on the basis of the country's scores on 12 HERMES questions (three per dimension) clustered the countries, using Ward's Grouping Method. The resulting "Dendrogram" Hofstede's Cluster Analysis of 40 Countries is shown in Figure 12. It should be read from left to right, and indicates what per cent of error should be tolerated to bring the scores of two countries together. A split of two large clusters cuts off Spain through Greece from the USA through the Netherlands.

Hofstede (1983) clustered again the countries with the additional 13 countries' or region's scores, using Ward's Grouping Method. The resulting "Dendrogram" Hofstede's Cluster Analysis of 53 Countries and Regions is shown in Figure 13. Hofstede applied that a final validation test is the clustering of the new data with the old. Although the order of the clusters and of the countries within them shifts somewhat, the composition of the clusters remains largely the same. From the original 40 countries, only Iran shifts from cluster 4 to cluster 5.

According to this clustering; U.K., U.S. and Canada are members of Anglo, Germany is a member of Germanic, the Netherlands is a member of Nordic, Italy and Spain are members of Latin European, Greece and Turkey are members of Near East Cluster.

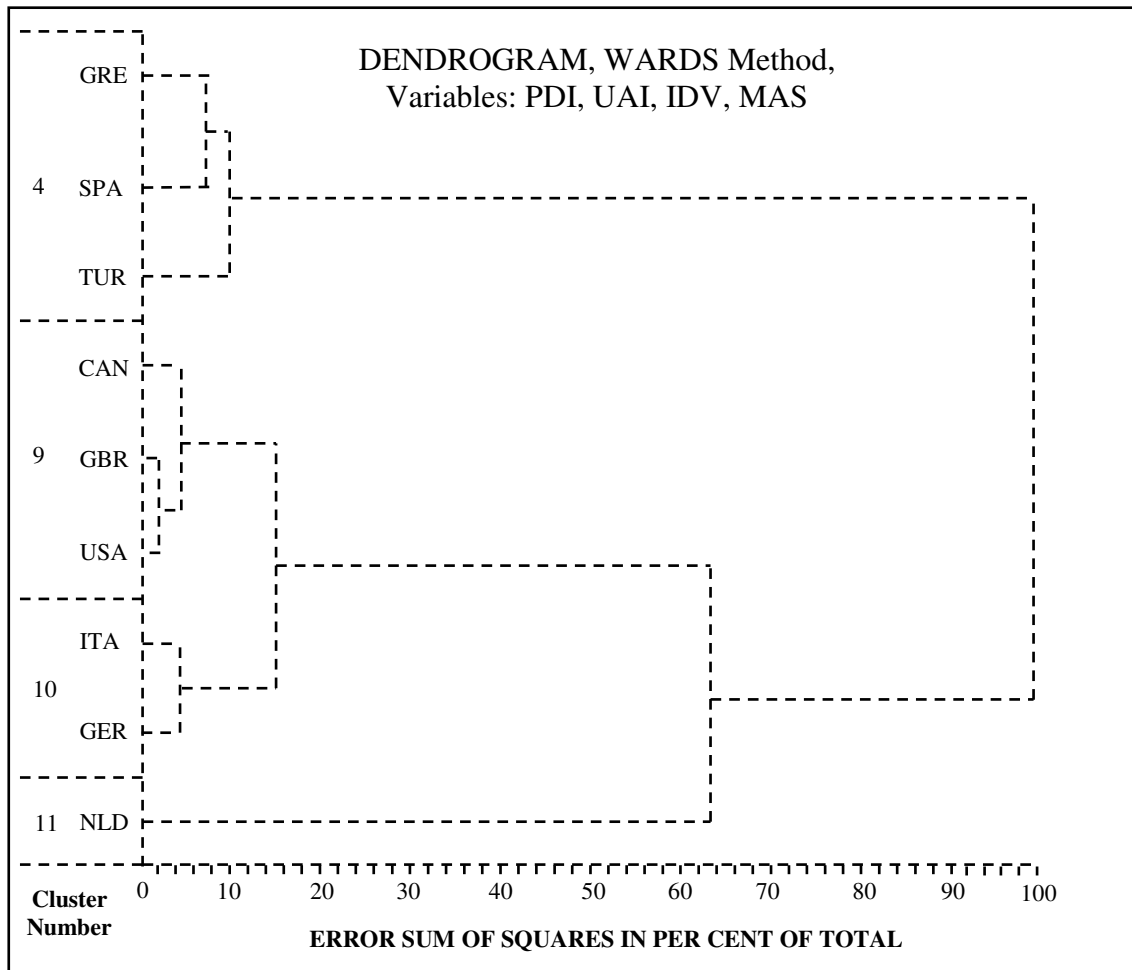
The countries characterized as former British colonies were included in the Anglo cluster. Hofstede (1980) found that countries in the Anglo cluster generally have low-to-medium scores on the power distance index and uncertainty index. But the same countries have high scores on individualism index and masculinity index. Although, Germanic and Nordic countries were differentiated and placed in different clusters, Hofstede's (1980) data revealed that the two clusters were quite similar on three of four indexes he defined; with the exception of the masculinity index, the clusters are very close and can be combined. The Near Eastern cluster contains Greece and Turkey. This cluster is characterized by high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, low individualism, and medium masculinity.

Figure 12 Hofstede's Cluster Analysis of 40 Countries



Source: Based on Hofstede, G. (1982). Dimensions of National Cultures. In Rath, R., Asthana, H. S., Sinha, D. & Sinha, J. B. P. (Eds.). Diversity and Unity in Cross-Cultural Psychology, Lisse, Swets and Zeitlinger, 185.

Figure 13 Hofstede's Cluster Analysis of 53 Countries and Regions



Source: Based on Hofstede, G. (1983). Dimensions of National Cultures in Fifty Countries and Three Regions. In Deregowski, J. B., Dziurawiec, S. & Annis, R. C. (Eds.). *Expiscations in Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 335-355, Lisse, Swets and Zeitlinger, 346.

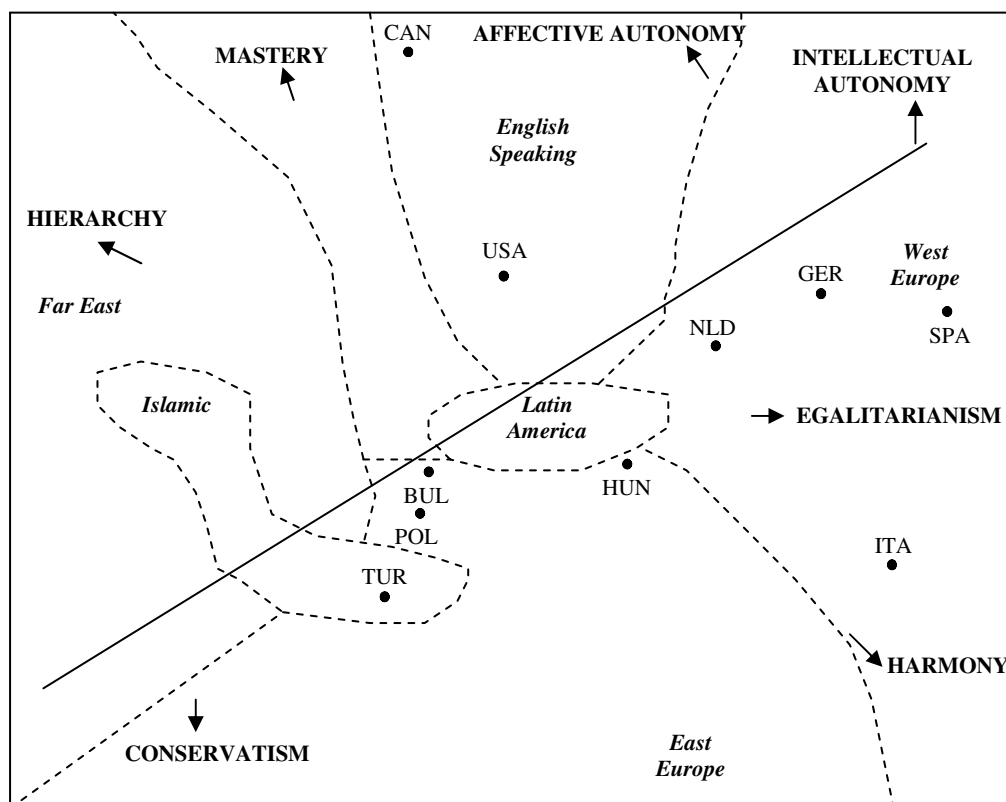
Schwartz (1999) mentioned that national boundaries do not necessarily correspond to the boundaries of organically developed, relatively homogeneous societies with a shared culture. But there are strong forces towards integration that can produce substantial sharing of culture in nations that have existed for some time (Hofstede, 1990). Schwartz (1999) noted that there is usually a single dominant language, educational system, army, political system, shared mass media, markets, services, and national symbols (i.e. flags, sports teams).

Schwartz (1999) clustered the countries on this basis. According to this clustering; U.S. is member of English Speaking, Germany, the Netherlands, Greece,

Italy, and Spain are member of West Europe, Bulgaria, Poland, and Hungary are member of East Europe, and Turkey is member of Islamic Cluster. Figure 13 demonstrates Schwartz's Cluster Analysis of Countries.

The English Speaking cluster nations tend to emphasize mastery and affective autonomy values at the expense of conservatism and harmony values. Samples from West Europe cluster nations were located closest to the autonomy pole and high on the importance they attribute to egalitarianism values. The East Europe cluster was high on conservatism. The East Europe cluster area, one that emphasized conservatism and hierarchy at the expense of autonomy, egalitarianism, and mastery values. Islamic cluster nations were located closest to the conservatism pole and high on the hierarchy values (Schwartz, 1994, 1999).

Figure 14 Schwartz's Cluster Analysis of Countries



Source: Based on Schwartz, S. H. (1999). A Theory of Cultural Values and Some Implications for Work. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 48, 1, 36.

Up to now culture, culture dimensions and culture clusters were discussed from Hofstede's and Schwartz's perspective. The current research will utilize the following Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1991) dimensions; Power Distance, Individualism/Collectivism, Masculinity/Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Long-Term Orientation, and Schwartz's (1994) dimensions; Conservatism, Intellectual Autonomy, Affective Autonomy, Hierarchy, Egalitarianism, Mastery, and Harmony.

Culture clusters demonstrates the nation groupings attributed to the similar values. From the culture clusters perspective, Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1991) Anglo, Germanic, Nordic, and Near Eastern clusters with Schwartz's (1999) English Speaking, West Europe, East Europe, and Islamic clusters will be used to differentiate nations. In this study above mentioned dimensions and clusters will be utilized to group the samples. After investigating the national culture, organizational commitment will be discussed in the following part of the study.

2.2. Organizational Commitment

The human factor in organizations is an important subject to be considered in order to understand how organizations work and how the organizations can become more productive and more successful. Viewed from an organizational perspective, having a committed workforce would clearly appear to be an advantage. For several years, there has been increasing interest in studying organizational commitment because commitment implies a number of important consequences for the organization. In theory, committed employees should work harder, remain with the organization, and contribute to an organization being more affective. Due to this perspective; organizational commitment has attracted considerable attention in the organizational behavior literature over the past few decades (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) as it has been demonstrated to predict various important work behaviors.

Organizational commitment is a multifaceted and complex concept, and therefore there are difficult views in explaining what it is exactly (Meyer & Allen, 1997). A number of definitions exist in the literature that are demonstrated on Table 9, some being parallel views and some being more comprehensive than others.

Table 9 Definitions of Commitment

Affective Orientation

The attachment of an individual's fund of affectivity and emotion to the group. (Kanter, 1968)

An Attitude or an orientation toward the organization, which link or attaches the identity of the person to the organization. (Sheldon, 1971)

The process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent. (Hall, Schneiner, & Nygren, 1970)

A partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of the organization, to one's role in relation to goals and value, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth. (Buchanan, 1974)

The relative strength of individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. (Mowday, Porter & Steer, 1982)

Cost Based

Profit associated with continued participation and a "cost" associated with leaving. (Kanter, 1968)

Commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity. (Becker, 1960)

A structural phenomenon, which occurs as a result of individual-organizational transaction and alterations in side bets or investments over time. (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972)

Obligation or Moral Responsibility

Commitment behaviors are socially accepted behaviors that exceed formal and/or normative expectations relevant to the object of commitment. (Wiener & Gechman, 1977)

The totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way, which meets organizational goals and interests. (Wiener, 1982)

The committed employee considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him or her over the years. (Marsh & Mannari, 1977)

Source: Based on Meyer, J. P. & Allen, N. J. (1997). Commitment in the Workplace, Theory, Research, and Application. Thousand Oaks, California, Sage, p. 12.

Mowday, et al. (1982) described these two approaches as follows: Attitudinal commitment focused on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization. In many ways it can be thought of as a mind set in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of organization... Behavioral commitment, on the other hand, relates to process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem (Mowday, Porter & Steer, 1982, p.26).

The study of attitudinal commitment has typically involved the measurement of commitment (an attitude or mind-set), along with other variables presumed to be antecedents to, or consequences of, commitment (Mowday, Porter & Steer, 1982). The objectives of this research were to (a) demonstrate that strong commitment was associated with desirable outcomes (from organizational perspective), such as lower absenteeism and turnover and higher productivity, (b) determine what personal characteristics and situational conditions contributed to the development of high commitment. Although, implicitly, the aim was to establish casual connections, until recently most research in this tradition employed cross-sectional design in which commitment and its antecedents and/or consequences were measured at the same time. At best, this kind of research allowed establishing whether relevant variables are related to one another. Casualty could not have been clearly established.

In behavioral approach, Mowday, et al. (1982) noted that employees were viewed as becoming committed to a particular course of action (i.e. maintaining employment with an organization), rather than to entity. To the extent that an attitude (or mind-set) developed, this was considered to be a consequence of commitment to a course of action. For example, employees who are committed to remaining with their organizations might develop a more positive view of these organizations consistent with their behavior to avoid cognitive dissonance or to maintain positive self-perceptions (i.e. as being “in control” and doing what one “wants to do”). The objective in this research, therefore, was to discover the conditions under which an individual becomes committed to a course of action.

Mowday et al. (1982) observed little consensus on what the term commitment means. Rather, they noted, “researchers from various disciplines described their own meaning to the topic, thereby increasing the difficulty involved in understanding the construct”. In Table 9, A sample of the various definitions provided, that have been offered the years. No definition in Table 9 is more correct or universally accepted than the others. Meyer and Allen (1991) noted that the various definitions reflect three broad themes as indicated by the category labels in Table 9.

An alternative view is presented by Meyer & Allen (1984) who defined commitment in terms of three separate themes. They distinguished between commitments as an attachment based on the cost of leaving the organization (continuance commitment), as an emotional attachment and identification with and involvement in the organization (affective commitment) and a feeling of obligation to stay in the organization (normative commitment).

They suggest that continuance commitment develops due to the number and amount of investments made in the organization, like pension contribution or the degree to which employees have employment alternatives. An economic rationale is the basis of continuance commitment. Affective commitment develops due to work experiences, which increases the employee’s feeling of challenge and comfort in the organization. Normative commitment develops due to early specialization experiences and other experiences taking place after the organization. These components of organizational commitment are related with one another such that affective and normative and continuance commitment correlate negatively (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Allen & Meyer, 1990).

According to Meyer and Allen (1984), organizational commitment as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) proposed by Mowday and associates (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982) can be regarded as Affective Commitment. This perspective of commitment emphasizes employees’ attitudinal or emotional attachment, and has been the most commonly studied component in organizational commitment studies (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

The second component, Continuance Commitment, refers to commitment based on the costs that an employee associates with leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). This perspective of commitment originated from Becker's (1960 cited in Meyer & Allen, 1984 and cited in Powell & Meyer, 2004) "side-bets" theory. Becker (1960 cited in Meyer & Allen, 1984 and cited in Powell & Meyer, 2004) regarded commitment as "consistent lines of activity". When people cannot continue their activities, they will have a sense of loss.

The third component, Normative Commitment, refers to the employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. These feelings are thought to result primarily from early socialization processes that could be family or culturally based, but they may also be influenced by the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). For example, societal norms towards the meaning of work as an obligation or entitlement could be an influence on Normative Commitment.

2.2.1. Overview of Organizational Commitment Studies and Their Instruments

While searching for the most known organizational commitment studies, several measurement instruments were found in the literature. These instruments and their background information will create an overview on most known organizational commitment studies. The popular organizational commitment studies and instruments in the literature are Porter et al. (1974), Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979 & 1982), Meyer and Allen (1991), O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), Cook and Wall (1980), Marsden, Kalleberg, and Cook (1993), and Balfour & Wechsler (1996).

Although, all these studies used different aspects of organizational commitment, solely Meyer and Allen's (1991) The Three Component Model describes three types of organizational commitment. Other studies just indicated one or two components of the organizational commitment. After giving brief information about the other studies, The Three Component Model, which is the focus point of this study, will be explored in detail. Brief description and explanation of the instruments are as follows:

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ): The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire was originally developed by Porter et al. (1974). It uses fifteen items to describe “global” organizational commitment. This widely used measure has been modified to examine professional commitment by replacing the word “organization” with “profession”. It has also been used to assess job commitment by changing the wording from “organization” to “job”.

Shortened Organizational Commitment Questionnaire: This measure, developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979 & 1982), is a nine item shortened version of the fifteen-item Organization Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). It measures attitudinal or affective commitment. The shortened OCQ has been shown to have a large positive correlation with the 15-item OCQ (Huselid & Day, 1991).

The Three Component Model: These measures, developed by Meyer and Allen (1991), describe three types of organizational commitment. Affective commitment measures an employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Normative commitment reflects pressures on an employee to remain with an organization resulting from organizational socialization. Continuance commitment refers to commitment associated with the costs that employees perceive are related to leaving the organization. These measures have also been applied to describe commitment to an occupation or profession by substituting the profession name in place of organization in the items. Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) shortened the original eight item measures to six items for each type of commitment.

Psychological Attachment Instrument: This measure was developed by O’Reilly and Chatman (1986). It uses twelve items to describe three dimensions of organizational commitment. The dimensions are (first) internalization, defined as an employee adopting the organization’s mission as the employee’s own, (second) identification, defined as the employee’s belief that the organization’s values are very similar to the employee’s, and (third) compliance, defined as continuing to remain an organization member because the costs of changing are too high.

Organizational Commitment: This measure, developed by Cook and Wall (1980), describes an employee's overall organizational commitment. The measure uses nine items. The items can be grouped to form subscales for organizational identification, organizational involvement and organizational loyalty. Each sub-scale contains three items.

Organizational Commitment: This measure, which was developed for and used in the 1991 General Social Survey by Marsden, Kalleberg, and Cook (1993), describes overall organizational commitment. It assesses commitment with only six items, meeting the needs of large sample survey research where parsimony is essential.

Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS): This measure, developed by Balfour & Wechsler (1996), uses nine items to measure three dimensions of overall organizational commitment. These are commitment based on affiliation or pride in the organization, commitment based on identification with the organization, and commitment based on satisfactory exchange with the organization resulting in appreciation of the individual by the organization. It has been used to measure organizational commitment of public sector employees (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996).

2.2.2. The Three Component Model

Allen & Meyer et al. (1991) stated a Three Component Model (TCM). They noted that to the various definitions of organizational commitment is “the view that commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization”. Thus regardless of definition, “committed” employees are more likely to remain in the organization than are “uncommitted” employees. What differs across definitions - particularly definitions across categories in Table 9 is the nature of the psychological state being described. To acknowledge these differences, Meyer and Allen applied different labels to what they described as three component of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative.

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. Continuance commitment refers to 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. Finally, 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).

Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that it was more appropriate to consider affective, continuance, and normative commitment to be components, rather than types, of commitment because an employee's relationship with an organization might reflect varying degrees of all three. For example, one employee might feel both a strong attachment to an organization and a sense of obligation to remain. A second employee might enjoy working for the organization but also recognize that leaving would be very difficult from an economic standpoint. Finally, a third employee might experience a considerable degree of desire, need, and obligation to remain with a current employer. Consequently, researchers stand to gain a clearer understanding of an employee's relationship with an organization by considering the strength of all three forms of commitment together than by trying to classify it as being of a particular type.

Meyer and Allen (1984) initially proposed that a distinction be made between affective and continuance commitment, with affective commitment denoting an emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization and continuance commitment denoting the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization. Allen and Meyer (1990) later suggested a third distinguishable component of commitment, normative commitment, which reflects a perceived obligation to remain in the organization. Figure 15 presents a summary of the hypothesized links between the three components of commitment and variables considered to be their antecedents, correlates, and consequences (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnysky, 2002).

On the left side of Figure 15, Meyer et al. (2002) identify the general categories of variables hypothesized to be involved in the development of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. On the right side of the figure are variables considered to

be consequences of commitment. An important rationale for the development of the Three-Component Model was the belief that, although all three forms of commitment relate negatively to turnover, they relate differently to measures of other work-relevant behaviors (i.e. attendance, in-role performance, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)). More specifically, affective commitment is expected to have the strongest positive relation, followed by normative commitment; continuance commitment is expected to be unrelated, or related negatively, to these desirable work behaviors.

Until recently, organizational commitment theory and research has focused primarily on outcomes of relevance to employers. There is now a growing body of research examining the links between commitment and employee-relevant outcomes including stress and work–family conflict. Therefore, we included employee health and well being as an outcome category in the model. There is some disagreement, however, about how commitment, particularly affective commitment, relates to these outcome variables. Some researchers argue that affective commitment can buffer the negative impact of work stressors on employee health and well being, whereas others suggest that committed employees might experience more negative reactions to such stressors than those who are less committed.

Figure 15 also includes a category of variables that, like Mathieu and Zajac (1990), Meyer et al. (2002) considered correlates of commitment because there is no consensus concerning causal ordering. The debate concerning causality is most salient in the case of job satisfaction. Job involvement and occupational commitment are other frequently studied correlates. Like job satisfaction, these variables have an “affective” tone and are best considered to be correlates of affective commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997) argued, however, that although they are correlated, job satisfaction, job involvement, and occupational commitment all are distinguishable from affective commitment to the organization.

2.2.2.1.Affective Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) refer to affective commitment as the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Defined this

way, affective commitment involves three aspects: (1) the formation of an emotional attachment to an organization, (2) identification with, (3) and the desire to maintain organizational membership.

Allen and Meyer (1990) argue that an individual will develop emotional attachment to an organization when he/she identifies with the goals of the organization and is willing to assist the organization in achieving these goals. They further explain that identification with an organization happens when the employee's own values are congruent with organizational values and the employee is able to internalize the values and goals of the organization. With this, there is a psychological identification with and a pride of association with the organization.

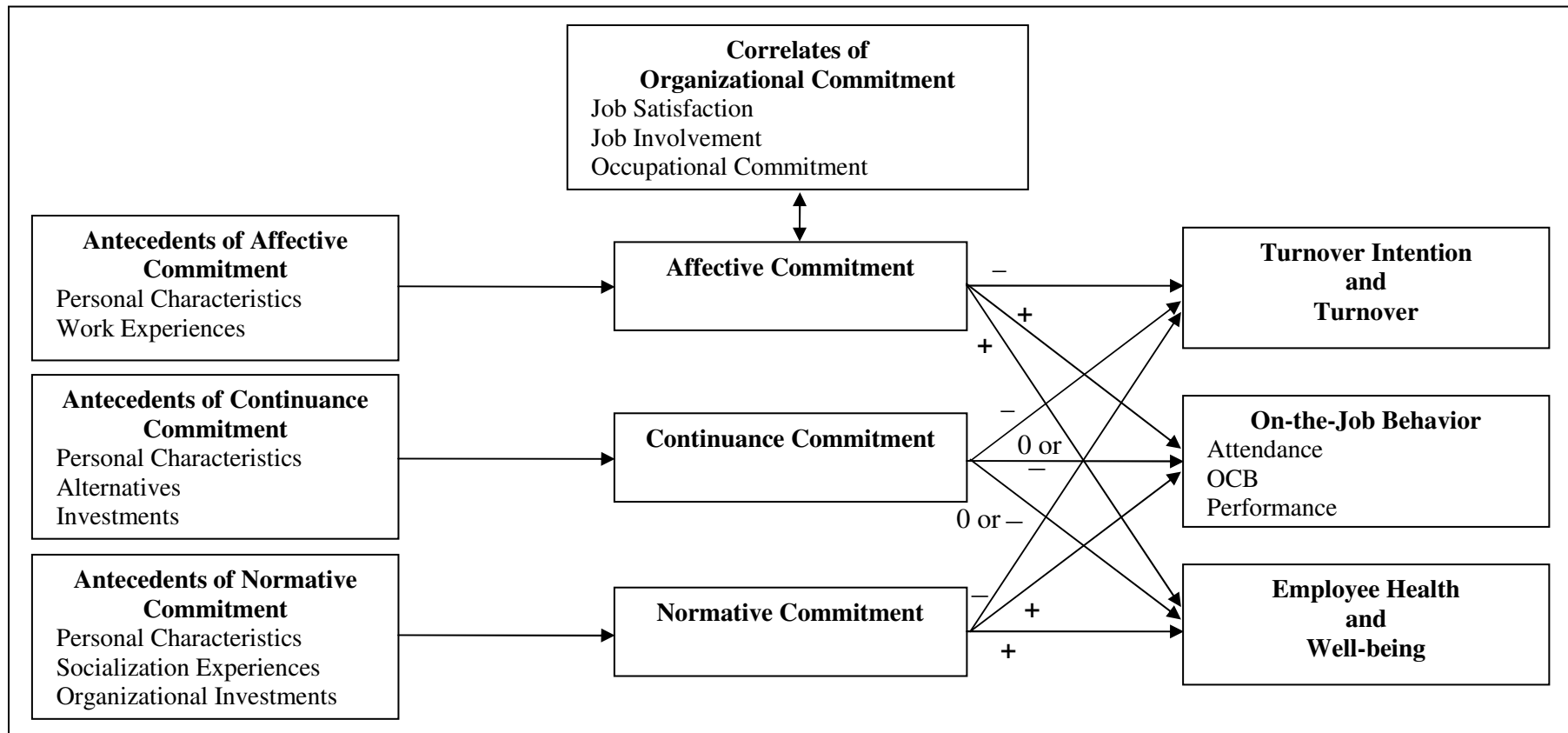
Jaros et al. (1993) suggest that affective commitment is the most widely discussed form of psychological attachment to an employing organization. This could probably be because affective commitment is associated with desirable organizational outcomes. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) report that affective commitment has been found to correlate with a wide range of outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, job performance and organizational citizenship behavior.

Literally hundreds of studies have examined the correlations between affective commitment and variables hypothesized to be its antecedents. Generally, the wide range of variables that have been examined can be categorized as follows: organizational characteristics, person characteristics, and work experiences.

2.2.2.2.Antecedents of Affective Commitment

As organizational commitment became an important issue, more research was done to find the determinants of the phenomenon. Since Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) thorough review and meta-analysis of the antecedents of affective commitment, empirical work has continued over the past ten years to focus and refine a coherent conceptual model. In particular, at least three tiers of antecedents have been supported: (a) job characteristics and role states; (b) psychological climate, including group-leader relations; and (c) organizational characteristics that shape the work context.

Figure 15 A Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment



Source: Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L. & Topolnysky, L. (2002). Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment to the Organization: A Meta-Analysis of Antecedents, Correlates, and Consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61, p. 22.

Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) defined these antecedents as, personal characteristics, role related variables, work experiences, and structural characteristics. Meyer and Allen (1997) defined these antecedents in terms of three components: Person characteristics, organizational characteristics, and work experiences. On the other hand, Meyer and Allen (1991) defined these antecedents as a being separate for affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Figure 16 shows a multidimensional model of organizational commitment, and its antecedents.

2.2.2.2.1. Personal Characteristics

Research on person characteristics has found on two types of variables: demographic variables and dispositional variables (i.e. personality, values). Demographic variables that relate to organizational commitment are stated to be, tender, age, educational level, and race and personality traits. Overall, relations between demographic variables and affective commitment are neither strong nor consistent (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

An analysis of organizational commitment literature reveals a long list of personal characteristics that have been associated with commitment. A wide range of personal characteristics has been investigated in relationship to organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The most frequently investigated in the international literature are gender, age, tenure, family status and education (Randall, 1993).

2.2.2.2.1.1. Demographic Variables

2.2.2.2.1.1.1. Gender

As far as gender is concerned, the reports are inconsistent. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) in a meta-analytic study of 14 studies with 7420 samples involving gender and organizational commitment obtained a mean correlation of -.089 for organizational commitment and gender. Although they report a weak relationship between gender and attitudinal commitment, they suggest that gender may affect employee's perceptions of their workplace and attitudes towards the organization. The research indicated that

women tend to be more committed to organizations than men. One explanation for this finding is that, not only must women overcome more obstacles to become an organizational member, but they also encounter fewer options for employment.

Kalderberg et al. (1995) found no significant differences in the work attitudes and commitment of males and females. In addition, Hawkins (1998) found no significant difference between the mean level of commitment for female and male high school principals. Wahn (1998) on the other hand argues that women can exhibit higher levels of continuance commitment than men can. She cites reasons such as the fact that women face greater barriers than men when seeking employment as possible explanations to the high continuance commitment of women. She argues that having overcome these barriers women would be more committed to continue the employment relationship.

Although literature quoted here is not exhaustive on the subject of the effect of gender on organizational commitment, it seems as if gender makes no difference on organizational commitment levels. Ngo and Tsang (1998) support the viewpoint that the effects of gender on commitment are very subtle.

2.2.2.2.1.1.2. Age

Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta-analytic study involving 41 studies and 10335 samples, has shown a statistically significant positive correlation of .20 ($p < .01$) between age and affective commitment. Meyer et al. (1993) also studied the relationship between age and affective commitment. In a study of librarians and hospital employees, they obtained a statistically significant positive mean correlation of .36 ($p < .05$) between age and affective commitment. In the study conducted by Luthans, McCaul, and Dodd (1985) age was found to have consistent positive relation with organizational commitment, as in previous studies.

Age has been regarded as a positive predictor of commitment for a variety of reasons. As individuals get older and remain with an organization longer, alternative employment opportunities tend to decrease and personal investments in the firm tend to increase, thus enhancing employees' commitment to the organization (Meyer & Allen,

1984; Mowday et al., 1982). Kaldenberg et al. (1995) argue that as workers age, alternative employment options generally decrease, making their current job more attractive. They furthermore state that older individuals may have more commitment to the organization because they have stronger investment and greater history with the organization than young workers.

Other researchers have not been able to show a significant link between age and organizational commitment. For example, Hawkins (1998) in a study of affective commitment levels of 396 high school principals found statistically non-significant correlation ($r=-.004$) between age and affective commitment. Colbert and Kwon (2000) in a study of 497 college and university internal auditors failed to show any reliable relationship between age and organizational commitment. Overall, age seem to have an inconsistent although moderate correlation with affective commitment.

2.2.2.2.1.1.3. Tenure

Tenure tends to be positively correlated with organizational commitment according to the domestic literature (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). As individuals remain with an organization longer, alternative employment opportunities tend to decrease and personal investments in the firm tend to increase, thus enhancing employees' commitment to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1984; Mowday et al., 1982).

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reviewed 38 studies that included 12290 samples and found a positive link between organizational tenure and affective commitment. They report an overall weighted mean correlation of $r=.17$ ($p<.01$). Kushman (1992) in his study of urban elementary and middle school teachers also found a positive correlation ($r=.17$; $p<.05$) between the number of years in teaching and organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1993) indicated that an analysis of organizational tenure showed a mild curvilinear relationship with organizational commitment. They showed that middle tenure employees exhibited less measured commitment than new or senior employees did. These findings are supported by Liou and Nyhan (1994), who found a negative relationship between tenure and affective commitment ($t=-3.482$). However,

these two authors did not find significant correlations between continuance commitment and employee tenure.

In a study of Japanese industrial workers, Tao, Takagi, Ishida and Masuda (1998) found that organizational tenure predicted internalization ($R^2=.262$; $p<.05$). Consistent with other researchers, Hawkins (1998) found a statistically significant positive correlation of $r=.25$ between the organizational commitment and tenure of 202 high school principals. Colbert and Kwon (2000) found a significant relationship ($r=.11$; $p<.05$) between tenure and organizational commitment. They found that employees with a longer tenure had a higher degree of organizational commitment than that of their counterparts.

Although, there seem to be empirical evidence to positively link tenure and organizational commitment, it is still not clear how this link operates (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that employees with long organizational tenure may develop retrospective attachment to the organization. That kind of employees attributes their long service to emotional attachment in an effort to justify to themselves why they have stayed that long. Meyer and Allen (1997) also suggest that the results of a positive relationship between tenure and affective commitment might be a simple reflection of the fact that uncommitted employees leave an organization and only those with high commitment remain.

2.2.2.2.1.1.4. Education

In contrast to age and tenure, researchers have found education to be inversely related to commitment in the domestic literature (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). Steers (1977) found a negative correlation between education and organizational commitment and he suggested that this could be due to more educated people being harder to satisfy. Researchers have suggested that higher educated employees may have higher expectations than the organization is able to meet, may be more committed to their professions than to the organization, and may have a greater number of alternative work opportunities (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

No relationship between education and work entity commitment levels was found for either group. One might have expected negative relationships for education and commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Steers, 1977; Stevens et al., 1978). Higher levels of education provide opportunities for better jobs, which may reduce organization commitment and increase occupational commitment. No significant relationship, however, was found in this study due to the fact that there was little variance in education levels among employees. The majority of participants possessed bachelors and masters degrees. The limited variance makes it impossible to determine if there was a relationship in this study. Steers (1977) found that personal characteristics, especially need for achievement and education (inversely), influenced commitment.

Although the relationship between gender, age, tenure, educational level, and organizational commitment has been extensively studied, the literature has yet to provide strong and consistent evidence to enable an unequivocal interpretation of the relationship (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

2.2.2.2.1.2. Dispositional Variables

The other types of variables are dispositional variables. Although some studies have shown that employees with a high need for achievement and a strong work ethic have stronger affective commitment, there is scant consistent evidence that individuals with particular personality characteristics are more or less likely to become affectively committed to an organization. If personality variables are involved in the development of affective commitment, it is more likely to be through their interaction with particular work experiences. For example, a person with a strong need for affiliation might develop stronger affective commitment to an organization that emphasizes and encourages teamwork than would a person whose afflictive needs are more modest (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Some evidence suggested that people's perceptions of their own competence might play an important role in the development of affective commitment. Of the several person characteristics that they examined, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported the strongest link between perceived competence and affective commitment. Employees

who had strong confidence in their abilities and achievements had higher affective commitment than those who were less confident. At this point, of course, it is difficult to know whether affective commitment to the organization derives directly from through “dispositional self-confidence”. Another explanation for the observed relation between these two variables, for example, is that competent people were able to choose higher quality organizations, which in turn inspired stronger affective commitment.

Finally, it has been suggested that there are differences across individuals in the propensity to become committed (Mowday et al., 1982). Pierce and Dunham (1987) reported that those with high scores on a commitment propensity measure were more likely to report strong affective commitment to the organization and to remain with it than were those with low commitment propensity scores in study of hospital employees. Because the commitment propensity measure used in this research was a composite measure that included personality, expectations and organizational choice factors, these findings can not be interpreted as unequivocal evidence of the role of personality in the development of affective commitment.

2.2.2.2. Organizational Characteristics

The literature contains some support for the idea that organizational structure variables influence affective commitment. For example, decentralization has been related to higher affective commitment (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). Overall, however, the evidence regarding these links is neither strong nor consistent (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). It might simply be that, in forming attitudes toward an organization, employees are more attuned to their own day-to-day work experiences than they are to these less tangible macro-level variables. It is also possible that stronger relations between organizational characteristics and commitment would be observed if they were examined by using an organizational level of analysis.

Recently, attention has been paid in the commitment literature to the ways in which organizations-level policies are designed. Many of these studies focus on the extent to which the policies take or are seen to take into account considerations of justice. Justice has been assessed with respect to specific policy issues such as drug

testing, pay, and strategic decision-making. Significant positive correlations were reported between perceptions of the fairness of the policy and affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The manner in which an organizational policy is communicated has also been linked to affective commitment. Higher affective commitment among employees who believed that the organization provided them with an adequate explanation for a new policy that banned smoking in the workplace. Both factors had a strong and positive impact on the employee acceptance of the organizational policy (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

2.2.2.2.3. Work Experiences

The vast majority of antecedent studies have focused on variables that fall into very broad category of work experiences. It is important to note that although some of these variables are assessed objectively, much of these researches have relied on employees' perceptions of the experiences in question (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Several studies have reported strong correlations between these characteristics and affective commitment. Specifically, across many different samples of employees, affective commitment has been positively correlated with job challenge, degree of autonomy, and variety of skills the employee uses. In their meta-analytic review; Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported a composite measure of job scope, incorporating several job characteristics variables, was more strongly correlated with affective commitment than were the individual variables on which the composite measure was based.

Several studies have reported negative relations between affective commitment and role ambiguity and role conflict (i.e. Adkins, 1995; Jamal, 1990). Although the reasons that role variables relate to affective commitment have not been explicitly examined, it seems quite likely that both supportiveness and fairness are involved.

For some employees, the importance of their contributions is communicated through the trust the organization appears to place in their work-related judgments. Consistent with this point, affective commitment has been positively related to

participation in decision-making (Dunham et al., 1994; Rhodes & Steers, 1981), latitude or discretion over activities (Gregersen, & Black, 1992) task autonomy (Dunham et al., 1994), receptiveness of management to employee ideas (Allen & Meyer, 1990), and job scope (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

2.2.2.3.Continuanace Commitment

The second of Allen and Meyer's (1990) dimensions of organizational commitment is continuance commitment, which based on Becker's (1960 cited in Meyer & Allen, 1984 and cited in Powell & Meyer, 2004) Side Bet Theory. The theory posits that as individuals remain in the employment of an organization for longer periods, they accumulate investments, which become costly to lose the longer an individual stays. These investments include time, job effort, and organization specific skills that might not be transferable or greater costs of leaving the organization that discourage them from seeking alternative employment, work friendships and political deals.

Allen and Meyer (1990) describe continuance commitment as a form of psychological attachment to an employing organization that reflects the employee's perception of the loss he/she would suffer if they were to leave the organization. They explain that continuance commitment involves awareness on the employee's part of the costs associated with leaving the organization. This then forms the employee's primary link to the organization and his/her decision to remain with the organization is an effort to retain the benefits accumulated.

In addition to fear of loosing investments, individuals develop continuance commitment because of a perceived lack of alternatives. Meyer and Allen (1990, 1991) argue that such an individual's commitment to the organization would be based on his/her perceptions of employment options outside the organization. This occurs when an employee starts to believe that his/her skills are not marketable or that he does not have the skill required to compete for positions in the field. Such an employee would feel tied to his current organization. People who work in environments where the skills and training they get are very industry specific can possibly develop such commitment.

As a result, the employee feels compelled to commit to the organization, because of the monetary, social, psychological and other costs associated with leaving the organization. Unlike affective commitment, which involves emotional attachment, continuance commitment reflects a calculation of the costs of leaving versus the benefits of staying.

2.2.2.4. Antecedents of Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment refers to the employee's awareness that costs are associated with leaving the organization. Employees who have strong continuance commitment to an organization stay with the organization because they believe they have to do so. Continuance commitment can develop as a result of any action or event that increases the costs of leaving the organization, provided employee recognizes that these costs have been incurred. In their three-component model of organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) summarized these actions or events in terms of two sets of antecedent variables: investment and variables.

2.2.2.4.1. Investments

The notion of investment draws, in part, on Becker's (1960, cited in Meyer & Allen, 1984 and cited in Powell & Meyer, 2004) theorizing about commitment. Becker (1960, cited in Meyer & Allen, 1984 and cited in Powell & Meyer, 2004) argued that commitment to a course of actions results from the accumulation of side bets a person makes. Side bets (Becker, 1960; cited in Meyer & Allen, 1984 and cited in Powell & Meyer, 2004) are actions that link a person to a particular course of action by virtue of the fact that something would be forfeited if he or she discontinued the activity. For example, betting a friend that you will get an in a course (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

In an application of this notion to organizational commitment, then, a side bet (Becker, 1960; cited in Meyer & Allen, 1984 and cited in Powell & Meyer, 2004) involves the investment of something valuable (i.e., time, effort, money) that an employee would lose if he or she left the organization. Meyer and Allen (1997) noted that employees could make investments in organizations in many ways, for example, by incurring the expense and human cost of relocating, a family from another city or by

spending time acquiring organization-specific skills. Leaving the organization could mean that the employee would spend to lose or have wasted the time, money, or effort that was invested (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

2.2.2.4.2. Alternatives

The other hypothesized antecedent of continuance commitment is the employee's perceptions of employment alternatives. Meyer and Allen (1997) noted that employees who think they have several viable alternatives will have weaker continuance commitment than those who think their alternatives are few. In other words the perceived availability of alternatives will be negatively correlated with continuance commitment. As with less investment, several events or actions can influence one's perceptions of alternatives.

For example, one employee might base his or her perception on external environment, taking a cue from employment rates a general economic climate. Another employee might base perceived alternatives on the degree to which his or her skills seem current and marketable (vs. outdated and unmarketable). Perceptions of alternatives can also influenced by such things are the results of previous job search attempts, whether other organizations have tried to recruit to employee and the extent to which family factors limit the employee's ability to relocate (Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1997).

2.2.2.4.3. Process Considerations

With respect to process considerations, Meyer and Allen (1997) noted that it is important to reiterate that neither investments nor alternatives will have an impact on continuance commitment unless or until the employee is aware of them and their implications. Thus, an employee's recognition that investments and/or lack of alternatives have made leaving more costly represents the process through which these investments and alternatives influence continuance commitment.

The fact that recognition plays a central role in this process raises two additional points. First, it means that people who are in objectively similar situations

can have quite different levels of continuance commitment, for example, two employees who have invested considerably in the acquisition of organization-specific skills. (i.e. mastery of generic computer skills). Employee A recognizes that such actions tie him or her to the organization, whereas Employee B does not (Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1997). This particular investment, therefore, will increase the continuance commitment to the organization felt by Employee A but have no influence on the Employee B.

It is important to note, however, that because Employee B actually did make the investment, it has the potential to influence his or her continuance commitment at some point in the future. Second, for some cost-related variables to influence continuance commitment, a particular “triggering” event might be required—that is, one that focuses the employee’s attention on those variables. For example, Employee B might come quickly to realize that his or her skills are not transferable on hearing about the unsuccessful job search of a similarly tainted coworker. At this point, his or her investments will have an impact on continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Finally, Meyer and Allen (1997) noted that the specific set of variables that influence an employee’s continuance commitment might be quite idiosyncratic to that person. Further, it can include both work-related (i.e. pension contributions) and non work-related.

2.2.2.5. Normative Commitment

The third dimension of organizational commitment is normative commitment, which reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel they ought to remain with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Wiener, 1982). Researchers have overlooked this view of organizational commitment, as relatively few studies explicitly address normative commitment. Randall and Cote (1991), Allen and Meyer (1990) are just some of the few who attempted to differentiate normative commitment from the other components of organizational commitment.

Randall and Cote (1991) regard normative commitment in terms of the moral obligation the employee develops after the organization has invested in him/her. They

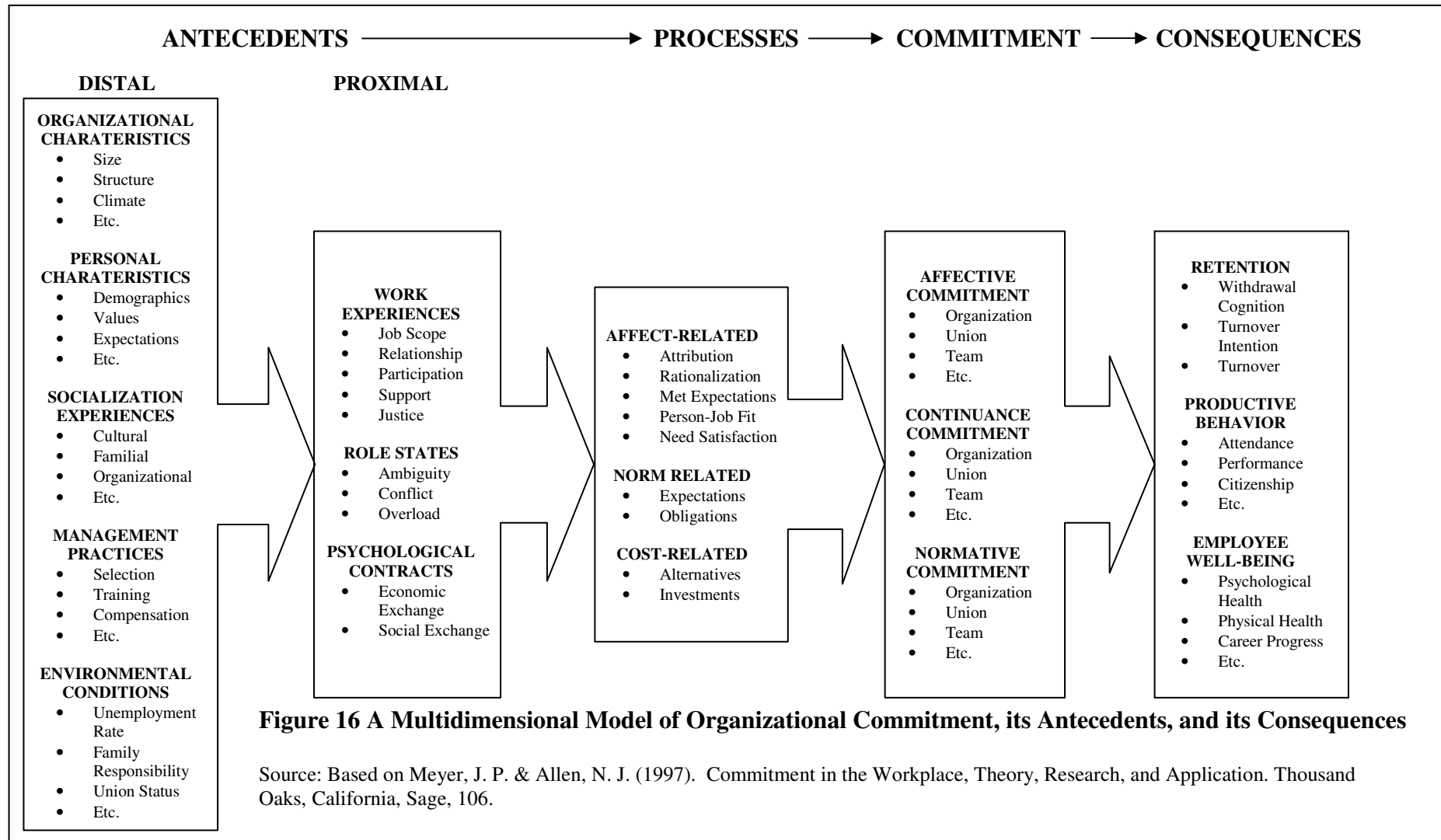
argue that when an employee starts to feel that the organization has spent either too much time or money developing and training him/her, such an employee might feel an obligation to stay with the organization. For example, an employee whose organization paid his tuition while he/she improving qualifications might believe that he/she can reimburse the organization by continuing to work for it. In general, normative commitment is most likely when individuals find it difficult to reciprocate the organization's investment in them (Wiener, 1982).

Jaros et al. (1993) agree with Allen and Meyer (1990) and refer to normative commitment as moral commitment. They emphasize the difference between this kind of commitment and affective commitment because normative commitment reflects a sense of duty, or obligation or calling to work in the organization and not emotional attachment. They describe it as the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through the internalization of its goals values and missions. This type of commitment differs from continuance commitment because it is not dependent on the personal calculations of paid costs.

2.2.2.6.Antecedents of Normative Commitment

Normative commitment refers to an employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. Thus, employees with strong normative commitment will remain with an organization by virtue of their belief that is the "right and moral thing to do" (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Wiener, 1982).

Wiener (1982) argued that normative commitment to the organization develops on the basis of a collection of pressures that individuals feel during their early socialization from family and culture and during their socialization as newcomers to the organization. Socialization experiences, whether in early life or from one's employer, are extremely rich and varied and carry with them all sorts of messages about appropriateness of particulate attitudes and behaviors. The presumed process here is one of the internalization.



Meyer and Allen (1991) noted that through complex processes involving conditioning (rewards and punishments) and modeling (observation and imitation of others), individuals learn what is valued and what is expected of them by the family the culture, or the organization. By necessity, familial and cultural socialization focuses on the particular organization to which the employee belongs.

It has also been suggested that normative commitment develops on the basis of a particular kind of investment that the organization makes in the employee-specifically, investment that seem difficult for employees to reciprocate (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Finally and closely related to the above, Meyer & Allen (1997) mentioned that normative commitment might also develop on the basis of the “psychological contract” between an employee and the organization. Psychological contracts consist of the beliefs of the parties involved in an exchange relationship regarding their reciprocal obligation. Unlike more formal contracts, psychological contracts are subjective and therefore, might be viewed somewhat differently by the two parties.

2.3. Overview of Cross-Cultural Organizational Commitment Researches

Since the 1980s, there has been a considerable amount of research that has examined Organizational Commitment from a cross-cultural perspective. According to Boyacigiller and Adler (1991), commitment researchers are entering into an “international phase”. Randall (1993) reviewed and summarized 27 published empirical studies on Organizational Commitment outside of the United States (i.e. Australia, Canada, Japan, Korea, and Singapore). Randall (1993) associated Hofstede’s (1980, 1983); Value Survey Module (VSM) with organizational commitment (affective commitment only, measured by Porter et al.’s (1974) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire).

The VSM summarizes the culture of a country across four dimensions: Power Distance, acceptance of unequal power distribution in institutions and organizations, Uncertainty Avoidance, discomfort with and avoidance of uncertain and ambiguous situations, Individualism–Collectivism, for loosely knit social frameworks where people take care of themselves and their immediate family versus an emphasis on group values

and loyalty to group and extended family, and Masculinity–Femininity, valuing assertiveness, the acquisition of money and things, and less caring for people versus valuing equality between the sexes and caring about people and quality of life.

Randall (1993) tentatively concluded that Organizational Commitment (i.e. affective commitment) might be: (a) lower in more collectivist countries than in more individualistic countries; (b) lower in countries with higher uncertainty avoidance level; and (c) lower in countries with higher power distance.

Randall's (1993) analysis suggests that affective commitment to organizations is greater in cultures that tend to have lower levels of conformity (i.e., individualistic, tolerant of ambiguity, and less authoritarian) than among more conformist cultures. Thus when people have more behavioral freedom, their organizational attachment may be more heartfelt. However, a different picture might be painted if other Organizational Commitment constructs are examined cross-culturally. For example, people from collectivistic cultures, with their orientation toward group identity, might experience higher levels of normative commitment than would people from individualistic cultures.

Similarly, people from masculine cultures, with their emphasis on instrumental, age related behaviors, may report higher levels of continuance commitment than might people from feminine cultures, which emphasizes expressive, communal, interpersonally sensitive behavior. Thus, a cross-cultural extension of the Meyer and Allen's (1984) three-component model of Organizational Commitment is warranted

In recent years, in order to investigate the cross-cultural applicability of Meyer and Allen's (1984) three components of commitment model, more and more researchers have considered the model's dynamics in other cultures, including China (Allen, 2003; Chen & Francesco, 2003; Cheng & Stockdale, 2003; Vanderberghe, 2003), Hungary (Banai, Reisel, & Probst, 2004), Egypt (Parnell & Crandall, 2003), Korea (Luthans, McCaul & Dodd 1985), Belgium, Denmark, England, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, and the Netherlands (Vandenberghe, Stinglhamber, Bentein & Delhaise, 2001), Turkey (Wasti, 2002, and 2003), Bulgaria, Hungary, and the Netherlands (Robert A. R., Zinovieva, I. L., Dienes, E. & Ten Horn,

L. A., 2000), and the United Arab Emirates (Yousef, 2002; Shaw, Delery & Abdulla, 2003). The current study was designed to contribute to the organizational commitment literature by demonstrating the relation among national culture and the three-component model of commitment in an international organization located in Turkey.

The purpose of the current study is to examine the generalization ability of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment in a cross-cultural context. This comparison allowed us to test preliminary hypotheses about the influence of culture at the national level on levels of Organizational Commitment and its components, and to add to the body of literature on cross-cultural comparisons of organizational attitudes (i.e. Randall, 1993). The following paragraphs are based on several recent studies' results on the countries, which will be investigated in the current study.

Riordan and Vandenberg (2004) studied on organizational measures between groups in cross-cultural research. Participants in this study were employees from service organizations in Korea and the United States. The Korean sample consisted of 195 employees of three large importing/exporting organizations in Seoul, Korea. American sample consisted of 162 employees of a large southeastern banking institution. The two samples were compared on the available demographic variables. Employee organizational commitment was assessed with the 9-item version of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ; Mowday et al., 1979). OCQ, with the exception of the fixed parameters used to set the scales, were significant across both groups. Additionally, the composite reliabilities for the American and Koreans on the OCQ were .90 and .80, respectively.

The results of Riordan and Vandenberg's (2004) study have implications for the use of both the OCQ and the organizational commitment construct within cross-cultural research. For one, the OCQ is one of the most popular commitment scales both domestically and cross-culturally (Randall, 1993). Subsequently, Randall (1993) recently raised the issue that while the originators of the OCQ provide validation for its use domestically, it is questionable whether this evidence can be extended to different cultures.

As noted in the results section of Riordan and Vandenberg's (2004) study, contrary to the prediction, the Korean employees expressed significantly less organizational commitment than the American employees. This is not the first time this type of contradictory finding has occurred. Luthans et al. (1985) found that despite the common belief that Korean or collectivistic employees are more committed to organizations that employ them, Americans, did in fact exhibit a higher level of commitment, as measured by the OCQ, than Koreans.

Kacmar et al. (1999) examined the structural properties of two measures of organizational commitment, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), to establish similarities and differences in the measures. A total of 196 hospitality managers and supervisors participating in a management skills workshop participated in the study. Respondents were employed by the same parent company but were working in a variety of different locations. The sample consisted of 86 (44%) males and 110 (56%) females. With respect to race, 55 (28%) were minorities. The average age of the sample was 34.42 years (range 18 to 66 years), the average organizational tenure was 4.5 years (range 1 month to 16 years), and 106 (54%) were married.

Kacmar et al. (1999) used two scales to measure organizational commitment. The first scale was the 15-item OCQ developed by Mowday et al. (1979). The second scale used to measure organizational commitment was the 9-item OCS developed by Balfour and Wechsler (1996). The internal consistency reliability for the OCQ scores was .87. The subscale scores for the OCS produced the following reliabilities: identification = .69, affiliation = .73, exchange = .74.

In the next step, Kacmar et al. (1999) explored the antecedents of the OCQ and OCS. Not all of the antecedents worked the same for the four commitment components. For example, gender and age were not good predictors of any of the forms of organizational commitment (all coefficients <.15). Marital status yielded higher path coefficients, although links were still weak at best. The exchange component of the OCS had a stronger path coefficient with justice than did the other forms of commitment.

Although the relationships were weak, Kacmar et al. (1999) noted that there were four paths in the model that were statistically significant for the demographic variables: marital status with OCQ, identification, exchange commitment, and affiliation commitment with age. Gender was not found to be significantly related to any form of commitment. Marital status was positively related to OCQ, identification, and exchange commitment as expected.

Jaramillo et al. (2004) presents a meta-analysis that includes studies conducted over the past 25 years across 14 countries. Findings indicate that the relationship between organizational commitment and job performance is positive and stronger for sales employees than for non-sales employees. Stronger correlations between organizational commitment and job performance are found for collectivist compared to individualistic cultures.

Seven scales of organizational commitment were used in this study (Hall et al., 1970 cited in Jaramillo et al., 2004; Porter et al., 1974; Cook and Wall, 1980; Hunt et al., 1985 cited in Jaramillo et al., 2004; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Meyer et al., 1993; Becker et al., 1996 cited in Jaramillo et al., 2004). Although these scales have used several somewhat dissimilar conceptualizations of organizational commitment, with the exception of Hunt et al. (1985, cited in Jaramillo et al., 2004), they all include items that measure the individual's attachment to the organization.

Each of these scales has been used in several studies and found to have satisfactory reliability values across studies. The weighted mean reliability index of organizational commitment was .82, with a range of .66 to .93.

The literature search generated 128 manuscripts. Through the coding and recoding process, 77 manuscripts not meeting the eligibility criteria were not included in the study. The sample originates from 14 countries, including Australia, Canada, China, Germany, India, Israel, Japan, Jordan, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

Jaramillo et al. (2004) mentioned that the findings indicate that the organizational commitment and job performance relationship is stronger for collectivist

as compared to individualist cultures. The result is consistent with Meyer et al. (1989) who claim that the organizational commitment and job performance relationship is stronger for employees who are affectively and morally committed with the organization. Also, this description is in line with Hofstede's (2001) depiction of low individualistic cultures as cultures in which employees have an emotional dependence and a moral involvement with the organization. Moreover, it is possible that the relationship between organizational commitment and job performance is moderated by several factors, including demographic variables such as gender, age, educational level, and sales experience.

Wasti (2002, 2003a, 2003b) investigated organizational commitment in Turkey, a predominantly collectivist society. A model of antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment was tested. In Wasti's (2002, 2003a, 2003b) studies the sample comprised 404 females (45.3%) and 487 males (54.7%). The modal age category was 25–29 years; 72 per cent of the sample was between the ages 20 to 34. The respondents were also quite educated: 57.1 per cent of the respondents had at least a Bachelor degree. Almost half of the respondents were single (47.3%), and the other half were married (49.8%). The modal tenure category was 1–5 years (44.7%).

Wasti (2002, 2003a, 2003b) measured the components of organizational commitment with the Three Component Model scale by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) with some additional emic items. Organizational commitment coefficient alphas were AC= .83; NC= .87; CC= .77 respectively.

The current results substantiate some of the major propositions regarding the influence of the cultural values of individualism and collectivism on the development of organizational commitment. The findings also shed light on some of the common sources of commitment across individuals with differing cultural values (Wasti, 2002, 2003a, 2003b).

The results indicated that for Turkish employees continuance commitment developed not only as a result of investments in the organization and perceived lack of alternatives but also from generalized norms for loyalty and the approval of the

employee's in-group. The influence of collectivist values on the nature of continuance commitment was more strongly confirmed when further analysis revealed that for individuals low on collectivism there was no relation between generalized norms for loyalty and continuance commitment. For individuals high on collectivism, however, loyalty norms significantly increased continuance commitment (Wasti, 2002, 2003a, 2003b).

Finally, although no hypotheses were advanced, the regression analyses revealed some interesting findings regarding the control variables. Tenure was a significant predictor for all three types of organizational commitment for allocentrics whereas for idiocentrics, tenure only predicted continuance commitment. For idiocentrics, it appears that over time the perceived costs of leaving accumulate, as opposed to allocentrics who in addition to perceiving higher costs associated with leaving, feel more emotionally attached and normatively committed to the organization.

Palich et al. (1995) examined cultural generality of the sources of commitment to multinational enterprises. In the research, a total of 1859 managers from 15 European and Canadian affiliates of American multinational organizations are asked to participate in a survey. Survey participants comprised in the following countries: Austria (n=44), Belgium (n=71), the Netherlands (n=75), Spain (n=66), Portugal (n=11), Greece (n=23), Finland (n=36), Norway (n=47), Italy (n=224), England (n=371), Denmark (n=47), West Germany (n=383), German-speaking Switzerland (n=114), Sweden (n=90), and British-Canada (n=166). They are asked to describe their organizational commitment and the antecedents of such commitment.

Palich et al. (1995) estimated convergent validity between their scale and Mowday et al.'s (1982) scale, the leading commitment index. They surveyed 106 students, who described current or former jobs with their commitment items. Palich et al. (1995) then tested equivalence between their and Mowday et al.'s commitment scales. First, their commitment scale correlated .977 ($p < .05$) with Mowday et al.'s scale and the confidence interval around this correlation included 1.0.

Results of Palich et al.'s (1995) study show that these commitment sources significantly forecasted commitment but are not able to demonstrate significant cultural moderation. Parameter estimates for commitment sources did not significantly vary between managers from individualist and collectivist cultures.

Moreover, Palich et al.'s (1995) study operationalized affective commitment, which differs from calculative commitment that limits job mobility through sunk costs (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Because these commitment forms have dissimilar origins, cross-cultural validation of the foundations of calculative attachment to multinational enterprises merits future inquiry (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Additionally, Palich et al.'s (1995) advised that future international validations of MNE commitment might use individual scores on Hofstede's questionnaire.

Robert et al. (2000) collected the data for this study in the autumn of 1994 (Bulgaria and Hungary), and the spring of 1995 (the Netherlands), using samples of (white- and blue-collar) workers covering different economic sectors, with the exception of agriculture. The samples were drawn by means of quota sampling with respect to gender, age, job level, sector (service or industry), and geographic region. The sample sizes for Bulgaria, Hungary and the Netherlands are 565, 614, and 237 respectively.

Although, Robert et al. (2000) mentioned the differences between Bulgaria, Hungary, and the Netherlands in several aspects like economic and cultural perspectives, the findings related with organizational commitment did not demonstrate any difference. Robert et al. (2000) six-item version of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire that is a combination of Porter & Smith (1970, cited in Robert et al., 2000), Buchanan (1974, cited in Robert et al., 2000) and Cook & Wall (1980) and constructed by the authors has been used in the study. Organizational commitment coefficient alphas were almost the same; BG=.76; HU=.73; NL=.76 respectively. On the other hand, Robert et al. (2000) mentioned the demographic variables in the study, but not in the results. There was no evidence on the relationship between the demographic variables and organizational commitment.

Banai et al. (2004) examines the influence of managerial and personal control upon organizational commitment in the Eastern-European nation of Hungary. A survey among 395 Hungarian workers in five companies found that leadership, job characteristics, and individual locus of control explained work-related alienation but did not explain organizational commitment. In Banai et al.'s (2004) research, organizational commitment was measured using its affective dimension rather than other recently identified dimensions of commitment including normative and continuance commitment. The reason for this is consistent with findings presented in a recent meta-analysis concerning organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002).

Mowday et al.'s (1982) nine-item version of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) has been used in the study. The analysis provided a single-component solution, representing 41.93% of the total variance. In Banai et al.'s (2004) research, internal reliability using Cronbach coefficient alpha was .82.

The fourth hypothesis in Banai et al.'s (2004) research stated that job characteristics would be positively related to organizational commitment in Hungary. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation analyses did not provide support for Hypothesis 4. No element of the job characteristics model was significantly correlated with organizational commitment in the Hungarian sample. The job characteristics model did not explain organizational commitment in Hungary.

Banai et al.'s (2004) mentioned that until such practices are established and become a common workplace opportunity and experience, the validity of Western models of behavior and attitudes are still difficult to assess in Hungary. Banai et al.'s (2004) noted that it should not be interpreted to mean that Western-validated constructs, such as organizational commitment, have no value in transitional Central and Eastern-European countries. They may simply have yet to gain currency. International managers should be taught about the specifics of each business system prior to, and during their assignment.

Vandenberghe et al. (2001) examined the cross-cultural validity of a multidimensional model of employee commitment at the European Commission (E.C.).

It extended prior work (e.g., Palich et al., 1995) by (a) emphasizing that commitment and can take affective, continuance, and normative forms (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997) and (b) examining the measurement invariance of commitment components across cultures and the stability of their relations with a major work outcome, intent to quit.

The survey questionnaire included measures of affective, normative and continuance commitment to the organization. Participants (N = 580) pertained to 12 European nationalities and responded to a French or an English version of the questionnaire. Table 10 shows the numbers of participants per country and cultural classification of countries.

Table 10 Numbers of Participants per Country and Cultural Classification of Countries

Country	N	Language Version		Cultural Dimension		
		French	English	Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance	Individualism	Masculinity
Belgium	58	48	10	High	High	High
Denmark	50	29	21	Low	High	Low
England	61	5	56	Low	High	High
Finland	56	11	45	Low	Low	Low
France	40	40	0	High	High	Low
Germany	55	43	12	Low	Low	High
Greece	33	31	2	High	Low	High
Italy	58	55	3	High	High	High
Portugal	44	40	4	High	Low	Low
Spain	43	41	2	High	Low	Low
Sweden	51	13	38	Low	High	Low
Netherlands	21	11	10	Low	High	Low
Total	570	367	203			

Source: Vandenberghe, C., Stinglhamber, F., Bentein, K. & Delhaise, T. (2001). An Examination of the Cross-Cultural Validity of a Multidimensional Model of Commitment in Europe. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 32, 3, p.333.

A survey packet including the measures of commitment, intent to quit, and demographics was delivered to all translators of the department (N=1225) through the internal mail system. In total, 580 usable questionnaires were returned, for an overall

response rate of 47.3%. Among the respondents, the mean age was 41.8 years (SD=8.5), mean tenure was 11.3 years (SD=9.2), and 57.3% were female.

Based on the work of Allen and Meyer (1990), Meyer and Allen (1991), and Meyer et al. (1993), Vandenberghe et al. (2001) generated a pool of items defining the components. Although some items differed slightly from the original ones, all items were based on the content domain of the commitment components as provided in Meyer and Allen (1991).

Measures of internal consistencies were quite good in both French (from .77 to .92) and English (from .75 to .92) versions of the scales. As a final test, Vandenberghe et al. (2001) compared commitment levels across cultural subgroups, only two statistically significant differences were observed. First, employees from highly individualistic countries displayed a higher level of continuance commitment to their organization and occupation ($M = 2.88$) than their counterparts from less individualistic countries ($M = 2.60$).

Second, employees from countries with a strong emphasis on masculinity values exhibited stronger levels of affective commitment to Europe ($M = 4.19$) than employees from countries in which masculinity values were less prevalent ($M = 3.92$). In general, evidence concerning the influence of cultural dimensions on commitment levels was thus rather scarce. Table 11 shows the means per country for each commitment variable, adjusted for work domain and questionnaire version.

In fact, Vandenberghe et al. (2001) mentioned that both continuance and normative commitment to the organization and the occupation were undistinguishable empirically. This lack of distinction may be due in part to the specific work environment encountered within the E.C. Vandenberghe et al. (2001) are aware that this can only explain the lack of distinction between continuance and normative components but does not justify why this problem did not occur for affective commitment to the organization versus occupation.

Table 11 Means on Commitment Scales per Country

Variable	Country											
	Belgium	Denmark	England	Finland	France	Germany	Greece	Italy	Portugal	Spain	Sweden	the Netherlands
Affective commitment												
Organization	3.52	2.99	3.65	3.41	3.66	3.52	3.55	3.35	3.39	3.08	3.14	3.44
Occupation	3.74	3.39	3.65	3.74	3.77	3.52	3.52	2.90	3.21	3.46	3.42	3.54
Work group	3.65	3.41	3.89	3.74	3.75	3.90	3.60	3.41	4.04	3.70	3.64	3.99
Europe	4.16	3.60	4.12	3.99	4.21	4.42	4.11	4.09	4.19	3.74	3.86	3.99
Normative commitment												
Organization and Occupation	1.54	1.31	1.47	1.54	1.72	1.48	1.62	1.52	1.37	1.32	1.43	1.20
Work group	1.85	1.50	1.77	1.90	2.19	1.77	1.85	1.64	1.97	1.42	1.67	1.60
Europe	2.05	1.68	1.97	1.98	2.20	1.85	2.47	2.09	2.11	1.78	1.64	1.96
Continuance commitment												
Organization and Occupation	3.11	3.03	2.93	2.64	2.82	2.55	2.42	2.71	2.42	2.87	2.55	3.18

Source: Vandenberghe, C., Stinglhamber, F., Bentein, K. & Delhaise, T. (2001). An Examination of the Cross-Cultural Validity of a Multidimensional Model of Commitment in Europe. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 32, 3, p.341.

Vandenberghe et al.'s (2001) study provided evidence that the proposed multiple commitments model was valid and reliable across cultures. However, a common limitation of this study and Palich et al.'s (1995) was the reliance on Western cultures only. Findings may thus be primarily valid for the Western world. Additional work is necessary to examine whether similar invariance among the multiple commitments structure might be found for countries that are especially more contrasted on the individualism dimension (most European countries are quite individualistic in nature) (Hofstede, 1991, p. 53).

A unique strength of Vandenberghe et al.'s (2001) research was the use of a sample of employees working for the same organization and working at the same place. It has been the first attempt at controlling so closely the influence of local factors (reward system, corporate or department norms and values, organizational structure, leadership patterns, nature of work, etc.) on emergence of cross-cultural differences in employee commitment. Differences, if any, could then be interpreted more safely in relation with the cultural characteristics of the countries from which employees came.

Along this line, Vandenberghe et al. (2001) found only two differences across cultural dimensions, which involved means on commitment variables. Employees from individualistic European countries displayed higher levels of continuance commitment to their organization and occupation, and employees from countries scoring high on the masculinity dimension exhibited stronger levels of affective commitment to Europe. What Vandenberghe et al. mechanisms are responsible for the production of these differences are obscure at the very least and may require testing hypotheses using experimental designs.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Purpose of the Research

The world of work is rapidly changing due to global competition, rapid developments in information technology and reengineering of business. Many strategies used to achieve goals, but these are mostly related with adapt to changing conditions and cut costs in order to be competitive. Consequences of that are introduction of new technologies, consolidation of operations, contracting out and the loss of jobs. But, at the same time, with the reduction of management and the flattening of the organizational hierarchy, employees are being given much more responsibility for decision-making and for managing their own daily activities. Therefore, employee commitment to the organization is getting vital for the organization continuity (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Consistent with the growth of interest in international management over the last decades, researchers have begun to explore organizational commitment outside of the U.S. Boyacigiller & Adler (1991) stressed that many aspects of organizational theories produced in one culture may be inadequate in other cultures. As a result, we know that the management theories developed in one culture may simply not apply to other cultures.

In the light of the importance of the organizational commitment, several researches have applied in order to gain experiences and find out to practice this knowledge through the specific culture (i.e. Allen, 2003; Banai et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2002; Cheng & Stockdale, 2003). All of them aimed to improve the work environment. These studies tried to investigate antecedents and/or consequences of the organizational commitment in a specific culture. But none of the recent researches tried to investigate the relationship among culture dimensions/clusters and organizational commitment/its components directly.

This thesis and its research will try to identify the relationship between the national culture and the organizational commitment. If any kind of specific relationship

existence is found between these variables, it will lead the studies to a new direction to improve managerial science. The implications of these findings will be discussed.

Research Questions of this thesis are;

Is there any relationship between the culture dimensions mentioned in the Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1991) Value Survey Module and Schwartz's (1994) Culture-Level Dimensions of Values and the organizational commitment? If there is any relationship between these two phenomena, how strong this correlation is and what is the direction of this correlation?

Is there any relationship between the culture dimensions mentioned in the Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1991) Value Survey Module and Schwartz's (1994) Culture-Level Dimensions of Values and the components of organizational commitment, which are affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment respectively?

Is there any relationship between the culture clusters defined in the Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1991) Value Survey Module and Schwartz's (1994) Culture-Level Dimensions of Values and organizational commitment, affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment respectively?

3.2. Importance of the Study

Since the 1980s, there has been a considerable amount of research that has examined Organizational Commitment (OC) from a cross-cultural perspective. Randall (1993) reviewed and summarized 27 published empirical studies on OC outside of the United States (i.e. Australia, Canada, Japan, Korea, and Singapore). Randall (1993) noted that all the studies are applied in a specific culture.

Cultural differences can affect the success or failure of international firms in a number of important ways. Tung (2004) mentioned four of them as follows: First, because of different preferences and tastes, consumers and customers in foreign countries may not use the same products and/or services demanded by domestic consumers and customers. Even where there is a demand, adaptations may have to be

made to the product/service and/or the advertising message. Second, managing and motivating people with vastly different cultural values and attitudes require variations in management style, systems and practices. Third, the use of the same criteria and training programs as in domestic relocations to identify candidates and prepare them for living and working in a foreign environment may convey the assignment to failure in international assignments. Forth, concepts and constructs that guide business decisions and activities may be very different across countries. Since the thought of committed employee is a vital portion of a corporation, this thesis and its research will try to identify the relationship between national culture and organizational commitment.

Palich et al. (1995) and Vandenberghe et al. (2001) studied on organizational commitment in the light of culture. However, Palich et al. (1995) and Vandenberghe et al. (2001) studied on organizational commitment in cross-cultural environments; they did not studied on the direct correlation among culture and organizational commitment or its components.

Palich et al. (1995) examined cultural generality of the sources of commitment to multinational enterprises. In the research, a total of 1859 managers from 15 European and Canadian affiliates of American multinational organizations are asked to participate in a survey. They are asked to describe their organizational commitment and the antecedents of such commitment. Results of Palich et al.'s (1995) study show that these commitment sources significantly forecasted commitment but are not able to demonstrate significant cultural moderation.

Vandenberghe et al. (2001) examined the validity of a multidimensional model of employee commitment in Europe. The study was conducted using a sample of employees working for the translation department of the European Commission, located in Brussels. The survey questionnaire included measures of affective and normative commitment to the organization, the occupation, the work group, and Europe; continuance commitment to the organization and the occupation; and intent to quit. Participants (N = 580) pertained to 12 European nationalities and responded to a French or an English version of the questionnaire.

Results of Vandenberghe et al.'s (2001) study showed that (a) for normative and continuance commitment, the organizational and occupational commitment were not empirically distinguishable and that (b) both the commitment model and the relationships between commitment components and intent to quit were culturally invariant. On the other hand, evidence also emphasized the importance of considering multiple commitment components in predicting intent to quit.

Although, these two studies are applied in a multi-cultural environment, they did not deal with the culture itself. They directly focused on the consequences of the commitment. But, this thesis and its research are focused on identifying the correlation between the national culture, culture clusters and the organizational commitment, also its components.

3.3. Procedure

Survey was conducted in the Local Area Network via using e-questionnaires. The e-questionnaires were sent with e-mails and filled out by the selected personnel and collected by department administration offices. Department administration offices placed the collected e-questionnaires in e-mail and returned to the researcher. Using the department administration offices created confidence on the samples that worried about the secrecy of the survey.

Although, the questionnaires were distributed to 171 employees, just 106 employees responded, so the response rate is 60%. But the 65 employees did not fill the questionnaires completely.

3.4. Analyses

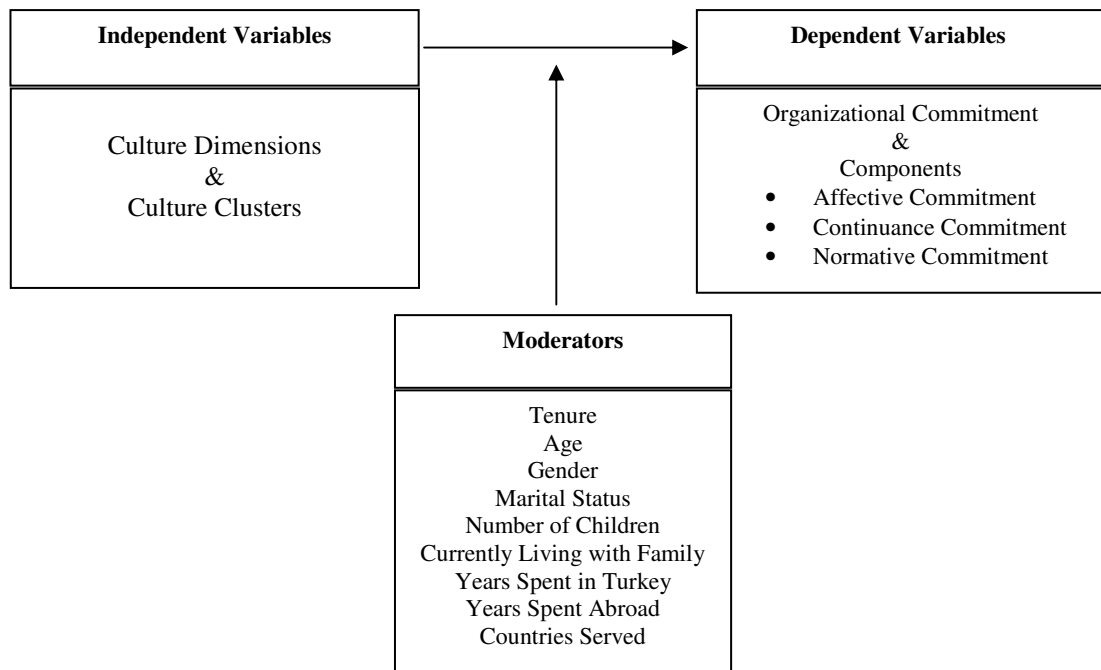
The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics by frequency distributions, percentages, means, and standard deviations. In order to investigate correlation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment with its sub components' among employees, the Zero Partial Correlation analysis was utilized and also in order to observe the effects of moderators the Partial Correlation analysis was applied with controlling the moderators.

Due to the variable measurement scales are at least interval, the Partial Correlation analysis was chosen to analyze the relationship. But, in order to investigate correlation between culture clusters and organizational commitment with its sub components' among employees, the Spearman Rank Order Correlation analysis was utilized, due to the nominal scale.

3.5. Variables of the Research

As a result the variables of the research can be summarized as in Figure 17.

Figure 17 Variables of Research



3.6. Operational Definitions

In many organizations, cross-cultural management is being popular due to the increasing cultural diversity. To manage the cultural diversity, we should have to learn culture itself. In this thesis culture will be explored with Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1991) and Schwartz's (1994) culture dimensions and clusters.

Geert Hofstede (1980, 1991) mentioned Power Distance, Individualism/Collectivism, Masculinity/Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Long-Term Orientation

as the dimensions of the culture. Hofstede's (1980) massive project using survey data from 116,000 employees of a major multinational corporation is a major contribution to cross-cultural study. This systematic and scientific study is important both because of its impressive magnitude and because of the investigator's well-thought-out conceptual analysis of the data. Each questionnaire used in the survey has over than 100 standardized questions.

Schwartz (1994) mentioned Conservatism, Intellectual Autonomy, Affective Autonomy, Hierarchy, Egalitarianism, Mastery, and Harmony as the dimensions of the culture. In Schwartz's (1994), data were gathered during the 1988-1992 period from 86 samples drawn from 41 cultural groups in 38 nations. Some 80% of the sample included between 150 and 300 respondents, with 4 smaller samples (minimum 76) and 11 larger (maximum 1868).

Although, some of scholars have had concerns about Hofstede's data, the results represent the world very well. Schwartz (1994) study demonstrated correlations between his defined dimensions and Hofstede's dimensions as well as The Chinese Value Survey (The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987 cited in Zakour, 2004). Hofstede's data is more dependable than many had thought.

The current research will utilize the following Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1991) dimensions numerical values; Power Distance, Individualism/Collectivism, Masculinity/Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Long-Term Orientation, and Schwartz's (1994) dimensions numerical values; Conservatism, Intellectual Autonomy, Affective Autonomy, Hierarchy, Egalitarianism, Mastery, and Harmony. These numerical values are used to defining the nations place in the specific cultural dimension rather than trying to re-explore.

Organizational commitment is an identification with and involvement in the organization of values and goals of the organization, willingness to extra hard on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to remain in the organization.

For several years there has been increasing interest in studying organizational commitment. Because of commitment implies a number of important consequences for

the organization. In theory, committed employees should work harder, remain with the organization, and contribute to an organization being more affective. Allen & Meyer (1990) three-component model of organizational commitment perspective is our standing point in this thesis. These are the affective, the continuance, and the normative components.

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.

Continuance commitment refers to 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.

Finally, 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. These mentioned variables measured by the revised (Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J. & Smith C. A., 1993) 18-item scale Organizational Commitment Questionnaire.

3.7. Propositions and Hypotheses

- P₁: There is a relation between nationality and OC.
- P₂: There is a relation between culture clusters and OC.
- H₁₁, H₁₂, H₁₃ and H₁₄: Power Distance is related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively.
- H₂₁, H₂₂, H₂₃ and H₂₄: Individualism is related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively.
- H₃₁, H₃₂, H₃₃ and H₃₄: Uncertainty Avoidance is related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively.

- H₄₁, H₄₂, H₄₃ and H₄₄: Masculinity is related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively.
- H₅₁, H₅₂, H₅₃ and H₅₄: Long-Term Orientation is related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively.
- H_{61a}, H_{62a}, H_{63a}, H_{64a}, H_{61b}, H_{62b}, H_{63b}, H_{64b}, H_{61c}, H_{62c}, H_{63c} and H_{64c}: Conservatism, Intellectual Autonomy and Affective Autonomy are related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively.
- H_{71a}, H_{72a}, H_{73a}, H_{74a}, H_{71b}, H_{72b}, H_{73b} and H_{74b}: Hierarchy and Egalitarianism are related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively.
- H_{81a}, H_{82a}, H_{83a}, H_{84a}, H_{81b}, H_{82b}, H_{83b} and H_{84b}: Mastery and Harmony are related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively.
- H₉₁, H₉₂, and H₉₃: The culture clusters defined by Geert Hofstede are related with AC, CC, and NC respectively.
- H₁₀₁, H₁₀₂, and H₁₀₃: The culture clusters defined by Shalom H. Schwartz are related with AC, CC, and NC respectively.

3.8. Research Instruments and Scales

3.8.1. Pre-Study and Preparations

Allen & Meyer's Organizational Commitment Questionnaire is used to measure organizational commitment and sub-components in this research. The permission for usage of Allen & Meyer's (1991) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, which was 24-item scale, was requested from the legal owners, Allen & Meyer, by email. As the permission has been given by Allen, the revised (Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J. & Smith C. A., 1993) 18-item scale Organizational Commitment Questionnaire has been sent to the researcher as an updated version. With this authorization, the revised (Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J. & Smith C. A., 1993) 18-item scale Organizational Commitment Questionnaire was used in this research.

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire was utilized in English and applied to all samples. Appendix 1 depicts the research questionnaire. The reason for using English version of the questionnaire was firstly all the samples working in an international environment, where the written and spoken language was English. All the samples have sufficient English Language skills to respond this questionnaire.

3.8.2. Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

This questionnaire developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993), and has got 3 sub-components with 6 items such as:

Affective Commitment Items : 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16

Normative Commitment Items : 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17

Continuance Commitment Items : 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18

Items were selected for inclusion in the scales on the basis of a series of decision rules that took into account the distribution of responses on the 7-point Likert scale (1 - Strongly disagree, 2 - Moderately Disagree, 3 - Slightly Disagree, 4 - Neither Disagree nor Agree, 5 - Slightly Agree, 6 - Moderately Agree, 7 - Strongly Agree). In order to prevent from item bias, component items were spread into the scale rather than placing respectively.

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire items placed in the questionnaire from 1st through 18th items. The questionnaire was prepared as an e-questionnaire with combo boxes. These combo boxes made available from 1 through 7 responses to the samples. Samples filled out these items via using these boxes so easily.

3.8.3. Demographic Information Form

This part consists of questions about nationality, tenure, age, gender, marital status, number of children, currently living with the family, years spent in Turkey for the current job, years spent abroad on duty and countries served including home country and more than six months.

Demographic Information Form items placed in the questionnaire from 19th through 28th items. The questionnaire was prepared as an e-questionnaire with combo boxes. These combo boxes made available each and every possible response to the samples. Samples filled out these items via using these boxes so easily.

3.9. Reliabilities of the Scale

This research's strength was reliabilities of the scale. Meyer & Allen (1993) found that the reliabilities of the Three Component Questionnaire are affective commitment=.82, continuous commitment=.74 and normative commitment=.83. Wasti (2003) found the reliabilities of the same questionnaire as affective commitment=.79, continuous commitment=.58 and normative commitment=.75, while having research in Turkish organizations.

In this study, alpha coefficient alters between 0.7636 – 0.8495 among three components of the scale, and coefficient alpha is 0.8893 for the overall scale. In particular, coefficient alpha, which represents the most widely used and most general form of internal consistency estimate, represents the mean reliability coefficient one would obtain from all possible split-halves.

The coefficient alphas of the scale are good enough to demonstrate the reliabilities of the scale, which are even better than the originated study.

Overall Organizational Commitment	$\alpha = .8893$
Affective Commitment	$\alpha = .8495$
Continuous Commitment	$\alpha = .7636$
Normative Commitment	$\alpha = .8523$

These results demonstrated that The Three Component Model Questionnaire is a reliable scale to utilize even outside of North America.

3.10. Sample Design and Sample Size

The samples for this study were drawn from an international organization located in Istanbul. This organization has a fully organized structure on procedures. Everything is written on the papers. All the procedures followed by the employees. Job descriptions are describes each and every details. If one of the posts is emptied, it will be easy for the newcomer to be oriented due to the written procedures. The rules are mostly strict. The population comprised of fourteen nations. The organization employed 297 employees. 68 of the employees were working in the purely Turkish environment. Therefore these employees were eliminated directly. The remaining 229 employees were the sampling frame for this study. Distribution of sampling frame among the nations is as follows:

Table 12 Distribution of Sampling Frame among Nations

NATIONALITY	FREQUENCY	NATIONALITY	FREQUENCY
Bulgaria	4	Netherlands	2
Canada	4	Poland	5
Germany	11	Romania	3
Greece	2	Spain	1
Hungary	2	Turkey	172
Italy	2	UK	6
Lithuania	1	USA	14
TOTAL			229

Table 13 Randomly Identified Samples among Nations

NATIONALITY	FREQUENCY	NATIONALITY	FREQUENCY
Bulgaria	3	Netherlands	2
Canada	4	Poland	4
Germany	9	Romania	2
Greece	2	Spain	1
Hungary	2	Turkey	123
Italy	2	UK	5
Lithuania	-	USA	12
TOTAL			171

From this frame, 75% of the 229, almost 171 employees were chosen using e-mail accounts. E-mail accounts were listed and given a serial number. Computer was utilized to create random numbers. In accordance with those random numbers samples were identified. The population comprised of thirteen nations. Randomly identified samples among the nations are depicted at Table 13.

Although, the questionnaires were distributed to 171 employees, just 106 employees responded, so the response rate is 60%. The population comprised of twelve nations. Distribution of responses among the nations is depicted on Table 14. Most of the respondents were Turkish employees with 64.2% and followed by German and US employees with 7.5%. Following sections depicts the frequencies of demographic characteristics of those respondents.

Table 14 Distributions of Responses among Nations

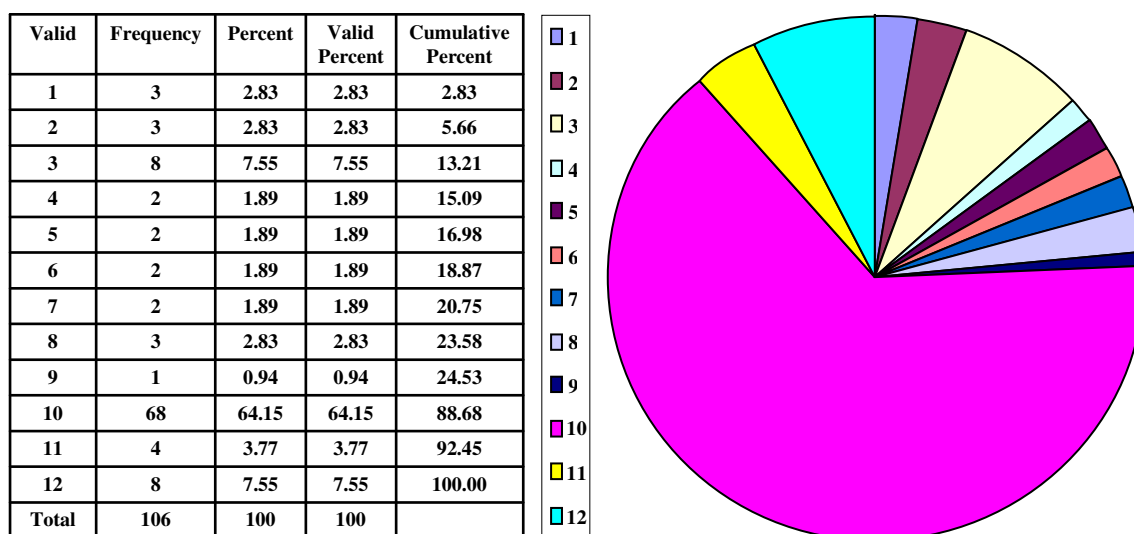
NATIONALITY	FREQUENCY	NATIONALITY	FREQUENCY
Bulgaria	3	Netherlands	2
Canada	3	Poland	3
Germany	8	Spain	1
Greece	2	Turkey	68
Hungary	2	UK	4
Italy	2	USA	8
TOTAL			106

3.10.1. Frequencies of Demographic Characteristics

3.10.1.1. Frequencies of Nationality

In the study, nationality was examined in 12 levels. Valid “1” stands for “Bulgaria”, “2” stands for “Canada”, “3” stands for “Germany”, “4” stands for “Greece”, “5” stands for “Hungary”, “6” stands for “Italy”, “7” stands for “Netherlands”, “8” stands for “Poland”, “9” stands for “Spain”, “10” stands for “Turkey”, “11” stands for “UK” and “12” stands for “US” citizenship. The respondents were mostly Turkish with 64.15% and followed by American and German with 7.55%. The distribution and the pie chart can be seen in Table 15.

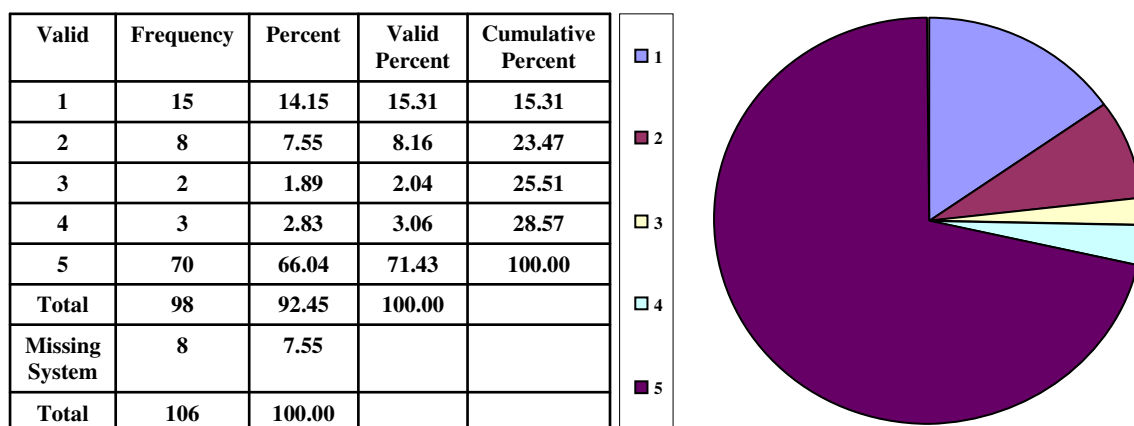
Table 15 Frequencies of Nationality



3.10.1.2. Frequencies of Hofstede's Clustering

In the study, Hofstede's Clustering was examined in 5 levels. Valid "1" stands for "Anglo", "2" stands for "Germanic", "3" stands for "Nordic", "4" stands for "Latin European" and "5" stands for "Near East" cluster. Eight of the respondents were mentioned as missing systems due to not being included in Hofstede's (1980, 1991) studies. The respondents were mostly Near East cluster members with 66.04% and followed by Anglo with 14.15%. The distribution and the pie chart can be seen in Table 16.

Table 16 Frequencies of Hofstede's Clustering

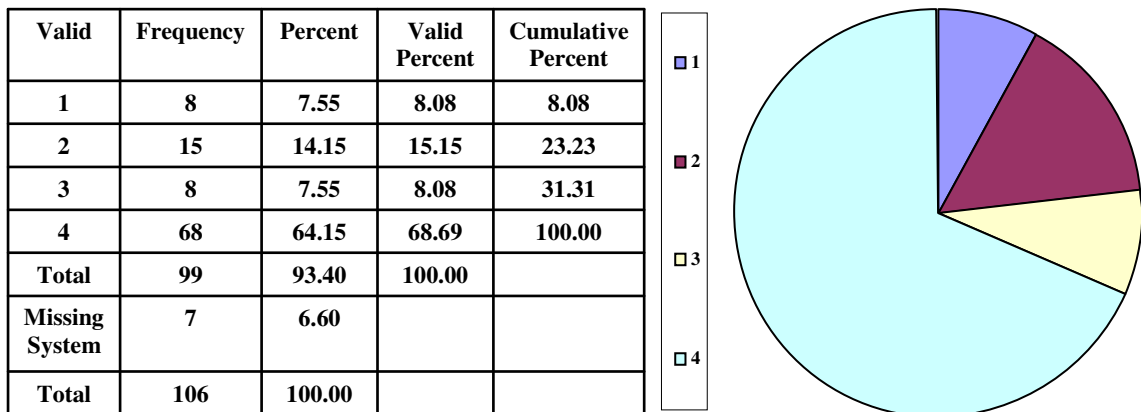


3.10.1.3. Frequencies of Schwartz's Clustering

In the study, Schwartz's Clustering was examined in 4 levels. Valid "1" stands for "English Speaking", "2" stands for "West Europe", "3" stands for "East Europe" and "4" stands for "Islamic" cluster. Seven of the respondents were mentioned as missing systems due to not being included in Schwartz's (1994) study.

The respondents were mostly Islamic cluster members with 64.15% and followed by West Europe with 14.15%. The distribution and the pie chart can be seen in Table 17.

Table 17 Frequencies of Schwartz's Clustering



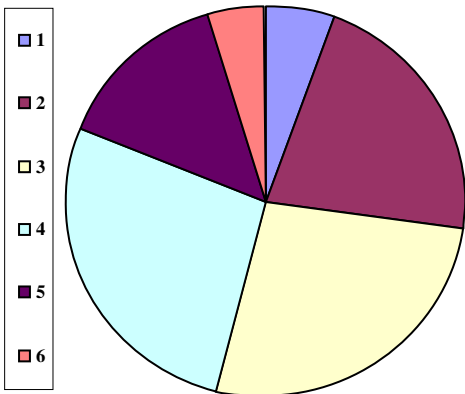
3.10.1.4. Frequencies of Tenure

In the study, tenure was examined in 7 levels. Valid "0" stands for "0-4 years", "1" stands for "5-9 years", "2" stands for "10-14 years", "3" stands for "15-19 years", "4" stands for "20-24 years", "5" stands for "25-29 years" and "6" stands for "30-30+ years" of service. There was no response in the first grouping.

The respondents were mostly being worked in their job for 20-24 years with 27.36% and followed by 15-19 years with 26.42%. The distribution and the pie chart can be seen in Table 18.

Table 18 Frequencies of Tenure

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	6	5.66	5.66	5.66
2	23	21.70	21.70	27.36
3	28	26.42	26.42	53.77
4	29	27.36	27.36	81.13
5	15	14.15	14.15	95.28
6	5	4.72	4.72	100.00
Total	106	100.00	100.00	



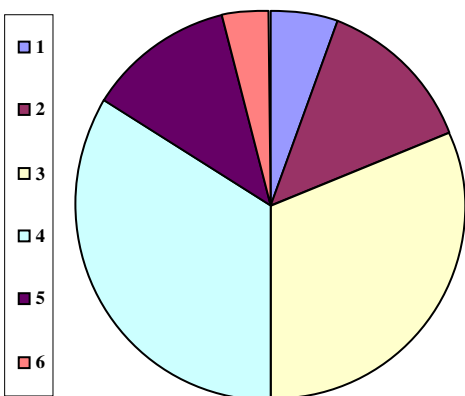
3.10.1.5. Frequencies of Age

In the study, age was examined in 6 levels. Valid “1” stands for “25-29 years”, “2” stands for “30-34 years”, “3” stands for “35-39 years”, “4” stands for “40-44 years”, “5” stands for “45-49 years” and “6” stands for “50-50+ years” old.

The respondents were mostly aged within 40-44 years old with 33.96% and followed by 35-39 years old with 31.13%. The distribution and the pie chart can be seen in Table 19.

Table 19 Frequencies of Age

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	6	5.66	5.66	5.66
2	14	13.21	13.21	18.87
3	33	31.13	31.13	50.00
4	36	33.96	33.96	83.96
5	13	12.26	12.26	96.23
6	4	3.77	3.77	100.00
Total	106	100.00	100.00	

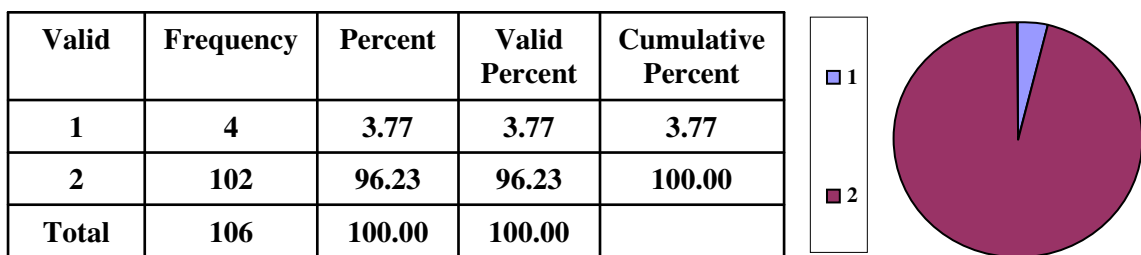


3.10.1.6. Frequencies of Gender

In the study, valid “1” stands for “female” and “2” stands for “male”. The respondents were 96.23% males, and just 3.77% females.

Due to the lack of female employees, normal distribution couldn’t be accomplished. The distribution and the pie chart can be seen in Table 20.

Table 20 Frequencies of Gender

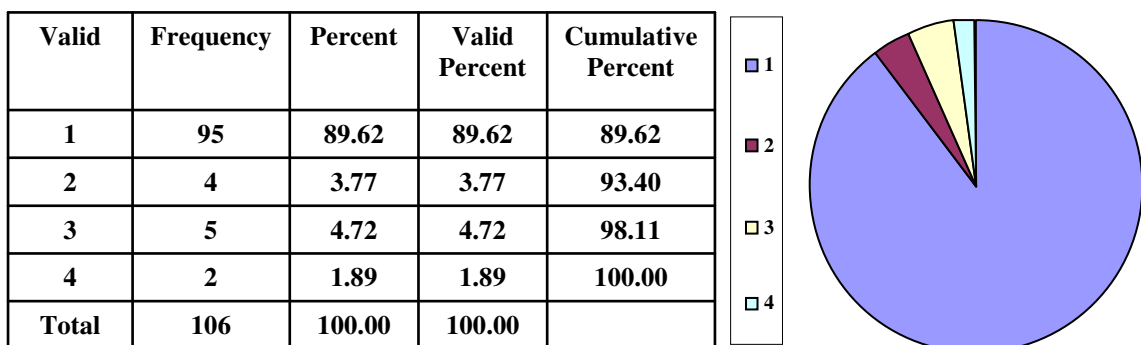


3.10.1.7. Frequencies of Marital Status

In the study, marital status was examined in 4 levels. Valid “1” stands for “married”, “2” stands for “separated”, “3” stands for “single” and “4” stands for “widow”.

The respondents were mostly married with 89.62% and followed by singles with 4.72%. The distribution and the pie chart can be seen in Table 21.

Table 21 Frequencies of Marital Status

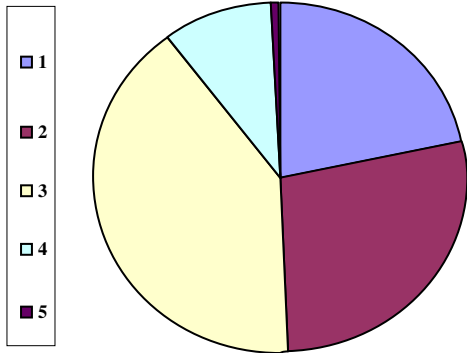


3.10.1.8. Frequencies of Number of Children

In this study, the number of children was asked to the respondents. The respondents have mostly 2 children with 40.57% and followed by 1 child with 27.36%. The distribution and the pie chart can be seen in Table 22.

Table 22 Frequencies of Number of Children

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	23	21.70	21.70	21.70
1	29	27.36	27.36	49.06
2	43	40.57	40.57	89.62
3	10	9.43	9.43	99.06
6	1	0.94	0.94	100.00
Total	106	100.00	100.00	

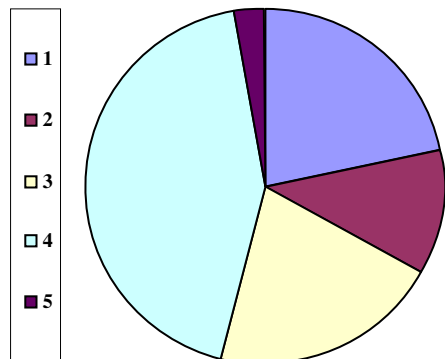


3.10.1.9. Frequencies of Years spent in Turkey for Current Job

In this study, the years spent in Turkey for current job was asked to the respondents. The respondents have served mostly 4 years with 43.40% and followed by 1 year of service with 21.70%, for the current job in Turkey. The distribution and the pie chart can be seen in Table 23.

Table 23 Frequencies of Years spent in Turkey for Current Job

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	23	21.70	21.70	21.70
2	12	11.32	11.32	33.02
3	22	20.75	20.75	53.77
4	46	43.40	43.40	97.17
5	3	2.83	2.83	100.00
Total	106	100.00	100.00	

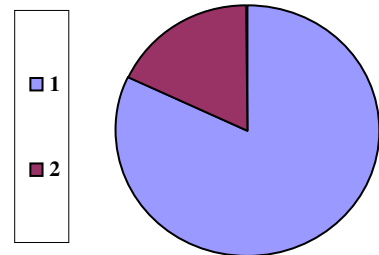


3.10.1.10. Frequencies of Currently Living with Family

In the study, living status about their family was asked to the respondents. Valid “1” stands for “yes”, “2” stands for “no” response. The respondents live mostly with their families with 82.08% and followed by “no” response with 17.92%. The distribution and the pie chart can be seen in Table 24.

Table 24 Frequencies of Currently Living with Family

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	87	82.08	82.08	82.08
2	19	17.92	17.92	100.00
Total	106	100.00	100.00	

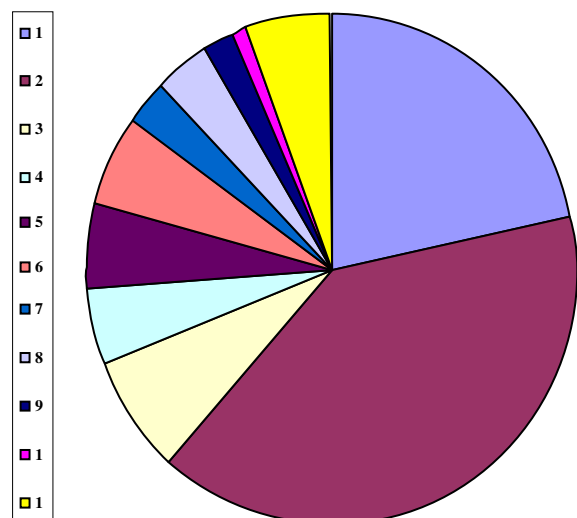


3.10.1.11. Frequencies of Years Spent Abroad on Duty

In this study, the years spent abroad on duty was asked to the respondents. The respondents have served mostly 1 year with 39.62% and followed by no service abroad with 21.70%. The distribution and the pie chart can be seen in Table 25.

Table 25 Frequencies of Years Spent Abroad on Duty

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	23	21.70	21.70	21.70
1	42	39.62	39.62	61.32
2	8	7.55	7.55	68.87
3	5	4.72	4.72	73.58
4	6	5.66	5.66	79.25
5	6	5.66	5.66	84.91
6	3	2.83	2.83	87.74
7	4	3.77	3.77	91.51
8	2	1.89	1.89	93.40
9	1	0.94	0.94	94.34
10	6	5.66	5.66	100.00
Total	106	100.00	100.00	

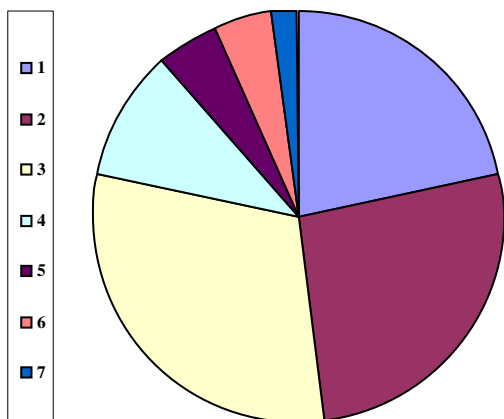


3.10.1.12. Frequencies of Countries Served Including Home Country and More than 6 Months

In this study, the number of countries served including home country and more than 6 months was asked to the respondents. The respondents have served mostly in 3 countries with 30.2% and followed by 2 countries with 26.4%. The distribution and the pie chart can be seen in Table 26.

Table 26 Frequencies of Countries Served Including Home Country and More than 6 Months

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	23	21.70	21.70	21.70
2	28	26.42	26.42	48.11
3	32	30.19	30.19	78.30
4	11	10.38	10.38	88.68
5	5	4.72	4.72	93.40
6	5	4.72	4.72	98.11
7	2	1.89	1.89	100.00
Total	106	100.00	100.00	



3.11. Limitations of the Study

Survey was conducted among the 171 employee of the organization. Due to the lack of female employees, gender discrimination couldn't be tested efficiently. The sample size was sufficient to analyze the status in this organization, and it is quite enough to make generalizations as well. But due to the sample size and limited response, risk on making generalization was still in the place.

The biggest challenge was supposedly the wording of the questionnaire. During the survey, it couldn't have been recognized, due to the working environment characteristics. The written and spoken language of the organization is English and requires perfect language knowledge. All the documentary, correspondences, etc. are prepared in English. All the conferences and meetings are held and executed in English as well. Although, it is clear that respondents have quite well English knowledge. Due

to the most of the respondents were non-native for English may create risk for the validity of the study. But, being non-native had not been observed as an obstacle in this study. Reliability and validity were quite well in this study.

From language skills perspectives, another risk for this study was communication problems in between native and non-native speakers. It is clear that every country has different teaching and learning styles. This diversity most probably creates different perceptions. Each nation most probably gives different meanings to the words in accordance with her perceptions. It does not mean completely different meanings, but just altering. Due to these perceptions, for the future surveys, scales should be translated into their own mother tongue or revised with the assistance of national professionals in English knowledge.

Another limitation was using the cultural dimension numerical values as mentioned in Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1991) and Schwartz's (1994) studies without reinvestigating them in this study. The samples assumed that they demonstrate their national properties. To make it clear, if the nation mentioned as highly individualistic country in Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1991) study, the sample from that nation assumed as highly individualistic. Organizational commitment is a phenomenon that creates people unwilling to fill out the questionnaires. The logic behind using the cultural dimension numerical values was not to bother respondents with lots of additional questions.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. Findings on the Factors of Organizational Commitment

Factor analysis was examined for the construct validity of the scale. Table 27 demonstrates the results of the factor analysis of the scale. Three components were extracted as expected, which were 1st component related with affective commitment, 2nd component related with normative commitment and the 3rd component related with continuance commitment.

Table 27 Factor Analysis of the Scale

Rotated Component Matrix (a)

	Component		
	1	2	3
AC4	.839	.005	.050
AC5	.829	.133	.043
AC6	.686	.213	.176
AC3	.679	.387	.084
AC1	.654	.155	.364
NC6	.538	.519	.073
AC2	.486	.399	.223
NC5	.120	.832	.099
NC3	.132	.773	.228
NC2	.102	.712	.447
NC1	.275	.685	-.056
NC4	.494	.567	.184
CC2	.203	.231	.745
CC1	.184	-.071	.722
CC4	-.016	.160	.686
CC3	-.015	.093	.633
CC6	.199	.093	.608
CC5	.109	.104	.514

Extraction Method : Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method : Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

(a) Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

The discrimination of the components was as clear as mentioned in the theory except Normative Commitment's 6th item. Normative Commitment's 6th item was a little bit confusing. Although, it is correlated with Normative Commitment (.519),

Normative Commitment's 6th item was found in the 1st component (.538), which is Affective Commitment. These factors were utilized as found in the factor analysis.

4.2. Findings on the Effects of Demographic Factors

After all, analysis of the demographic factors' (such as tenure, gender, marital status, etc.) moderating effects on the relation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment and its components were examined.

The interpretation of correlation coefficients was based on Dyer (1995). These are:

- r is 1.0 may be regarded as indicating perfect correlation.
- r is 0.9 may be regarded as indicating very strong correlation, close straight-line relationship between variables.
- r is 0.7 or 0.8 may be regarded as indicating strong correlation, reasonably close straight-line relationship between variables.
- r is 0.5 or 0.6 may be regarded as indicating some degree of correlation, not a close relationship between variables.
- r is 0.3 or 0.4 may be regarded as indicating weak correlation, very low degree of relationship between variables.
- r is 0.1 or 0.2 may be regarded as indicating very weak correlation, virtually no relation between variables.
- r is 0 may be regarded as indicating nil or random relationship.

The following sections will give information about analysis of the demographic factors' moderating effects on the relation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment and its components in details.

4.2.1. Findings on the Effects of Tenure

The relation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment and its components with controlling the moderating effects of tenure were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation culture dimensions with organizational commitment and sub-components via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results. Later on, correlation was computed by controlling the moderator effect of tenure via using the Partial Correlation analysis. Table 28 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5497$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5647$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5439$), MAS-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5595$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5018$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4938$) were found with controlling the moderator effect of tenure. Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5627$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4964$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.5511$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5124$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4813$) were found without controlling the moderator effect of tenure.

If we compare the results of correlation analysis with controlling moderator effect of tenure and without controlling moderator effect of tenure, tenure statistically positively affected on the relation between Power Distance - Affective Commitment, Masculinity - Normative Commitment and Power Distance - Organizational Commitment. The relation between Affective Autonomy - Affective Commitment and Hierarchy - Affective Commitment were also affected by tenure and became stronger, but in the negative direction. When the moderator effect of tenure was controlled, the correlation between Long-Term Orientation and Normative Commitment was affected negatively and became weaker.

4.2.2. Findings on the Effects of Age

The relation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment and its components with controlling the moderating effects of age were examined. First of

all, correlation was computed to see the relation culture dimensions with organizational commitment and sub-components via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results. Later on, correlation was computed by controlling the moderator effect of age via using the Partial Correlation analysis. Table 29 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5594$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5642$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5329$), MAS-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5343$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5082$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$) were found with controlling the moderator effect of age. Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5627$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4964$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.5511$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5124$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4813$) were found without controlling the moderator effect of age.

If we compare the results of correlation analysis with controlling moderator effect of age and without controlling moderator effect of age, age statistically positively affected on the relation between Power Distance-Affective Commitment and Power Distance-Organizational Commitment. The relation between Affective Autonomy-Affective Commitment and Hierarchy-Affective Commitment were also affected by age and became stronger, but in the negative direction. When the moderator effect of age was controlled, the correlation between Masculinity-Normative Commitment and Long-Term Orientation-Normative Commitment were affected negatively and became weaker.

4.2.3. Findings on the Effects of Gender

The relation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment and its components with controlling the moderating effects of gender were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation culture dimensions with organizational commitment and sub-components via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results. Later on, correlation was computed by controlling the

moderator affect of gender via using the Partial Correlation analysis. Table 30 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5457$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5657$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5071$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.5614$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5337$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5054$) were found with controlling the moderator effect of gender. Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5627$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4964$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.5511$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5124$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4813$) were found without controlling the moderator effect of gender.

If we compare the results of correlation analysis with controlling moderator effect of gender and without controlling moderator effect of gender, gender statistically positively affected on the relation between Power Distance-Affective Commitment, Masculinity-Normative Commitment and Power Distance-Organizational Commitment. The relation between Affective Autonomy-Affective Commitment, Hierarchy-Affective Commitment and Long-Term Orientation-Normative Commitment were also affected by gender and became stronger, but in the negative direction.

4.2.4. Findings on the Effects of Marital Status

The relation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment and its components with controlling the moderating effects of marital status were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation culture dimensions with organizational commitment and sub-components via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results. Later on, correlation was computed by controlling the moderator affect of marital status via using the Partial Correlation analysis. Table 31 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5378$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5621$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4875$), MAS-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5309$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and

Table 28 Tenure Controlled Partial Correlations

TENURE	PDI	UAI	IND	MAS	LO	CON	AAU	IAU	HIE	MAST	EGA	HAR
AC	,5497*	,2180	,0624	-,0896	,0818	,2860	-,5647**	-,0631	-,5439*	-,0346	,2479	,1871
NC	,2804	,1713	-,0015	,5595*	-,5018*	,1180	-,0877	,0085	-,2175	,3045	-,0559	,1474
CC	-,2761	-,1297	-,1124	-,3629	,1014	-,2379	,3839	,0628	,3904	-,1322	-,0685	-,1897
OC	,4938*	,2649	-,0524	,1992	-,3095	,1477	-,2631	,0291	-,3828	,1293	,1283	,1856

* - Signif. LE ,05 ** - Signif. LE ,01 (2-tailed)

Table 29 Age Controlled Partial Correlations

AGE	PDI	UAI	IND	MAS	LO	CON	AAU	IAU	HIE	MAST	EGA	HAR
AC	,5594*	,2056	,0753	-,0974	,0753	,2961	-,5642**	-,0778	-,5329*	-,0191	,2338	,1660
NC	,3444	,2442	-,0608	,5343*	-,5082*	,0850	-,0980	,0601	-,2774	,2563	,0128	,1986
CC	-,2949	-,1480	-,0982	-,3522	,0985	-,2283	,3873	,0499	,4061	-,1173	-,0879	-,1989
OC	,5453*	,3075	-,0864	,1629	-,3094	,1320	-,2730	,0550	-,4182	,0997	,1709	,2074

* - Signif. LE ,05 ** - Signif. LE ,01 (2-tailed)

Table 30 Gender Controlled Partial Correlations

GENDER	PDI	UAI	IND	MAS	LO	CON	AAU	IAU	HIE	MAST	EGA	HAR
AC	,5457*	,1831	,0968	-,0884	,0691	,3212	-,5657**	-,1002	-,5071*	,0035	,2091	,1476
NC	,2744	,0711	,0957	,5614*	-,5337*	,2065	-,0948	-,0963	-,1378	,4198	-,1693	,0367
CC	-,2763	-,1913	-,0523	-,3569	,0804	-,1869	,3757	-,0024	,4276	-,0651	-,1388	-,2556
OC	,5054*	,1033	,1165	,2237	-,3807	,3108	-,2929	-,1526	-,2665	,3312	-,0623	,0057

* - Signif. LE ,05 ** - Signif. LE ,01 (2-tailed)

$p=-.5179$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4534$) were found with controlling the moderator effect of marital status. Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5627$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4964$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.5511$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5124$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4813$) were found without controlling the moderator effect of marital status.

If we compare the results of correlation analysis with controlling moderator effect of marital status and without controlling moderator effect of marital status, marital status statistically affected on the relation between Long-Term Orientation-Normative Commitment and became stronger, but in the negative direction. The relation between Power Distance-Affective Commitment, Affective Autonomy-Affective Commitment, Hierarchy-Affective Commitment, Masculinity-Normative Commitment and Power Distance-Organizational Commitment were also affected negatively by marital status and became weaker.

4.2.5. Findings on the Effects of Number of Children

The relation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment and its components with controlling the moderating effects of the number of the children were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation culture dimensions with organizational commitment and sub-components via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results. Later on, correlation was computed by controlling the moderator affect of the number of the children via using the Partial Correlation analysis. Table 32 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5327$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5650$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4832$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.5667$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5387$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5548$) were found with controlling the moderator effect of the number of the children. Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and

$p=-.5627$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4964$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.5511$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5124$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4813$) were found without controlling the moderator effect of the number of the children.

If we compare the results of correlation analysis with controlling moderator effect of the number of the children and without controlling moderator effect of the number of the children, the number of the children statistically positively affected on the relation between Masculinity-Normative Commitment and Power Distance-Organizational Commitment. The relation between Affective Autonomy-Affective Commitment and Long-Term Orientation-Normative Commitment were also affected by the number of the children and became stronger, but in the negative direction. The relation between Power Distance-Affective Commitment and Hierarchy-Affective Commitment were also affected negatively by the number of the children and became weaker.

4.2.6. Findings on the Effects of Currently Living with Family

The relation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment and its components with controlling the moderating effects of currently living with family were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation culture dimensions with organizational commitment and sub-components via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results. Later on, correlation was computed by controlling the moderator affect of currently living with family via using the Partial Correlation analysis. Table 33 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5454$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5805$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5031$), MAS-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5202$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4816$), HIE-CC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4760$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4812$) were found with controlling the moderator effect of currently living with family. Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5627$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and

Table 31 Marital Status Controlled Partial Correlations

MARITALS	PDI	UAI	IND	MAS	LO	CON	AAU	IAU	HIE	MAST	EGA	HAR
AC	,5378*	,1777	,0681	-,1143	,0737	,2807	-,5621**	-,0736	-,4875*	-,0181	,2014	,1390
NC	,2394	,1023	,0183	,5309*	-,5179*	,1129	-,0183	-,0233	-,1133	,3232	-,1148	,0630
CC	-,2750	-,1007	-,1245	-,3657	,1078	-,2485	,3987	,0782	,3607	-,1444	-,0401	-,1517
OC	,4534*	,1942	-,0416	,1509	-,3286	,1297	-,1889	,0046	-,2684	,1503	,0598	,0985

* - Signif. LE ,05 ** - Signif. LE ,01 (2-tailed)

Table 32 Number of Children Controlled Partial Correlations

CHILDREN	PDI	UAI	IND	MAS	LO	CON	AAU	IAU	HIE	MAST	EGA	HAR
AC	,5327*	,1519	,1079	-,1035	,0944	,3097	-,5650**	-,1082	-,4832*	,0032	,1814	,1216
NC	,3000	,1249	,0390	,5667**	-,5387*	,1549	-,0901	-,0385	-,1793	,3417	-,1040	,0887
CC	-,2231	-,0301	-,1932	-,3570	,0575	-,2887	,4019	,1381	,3184	-,1717	,0107	-,1023
OC	,5548*	,2473	-,0289	,2258	-,3771	,1797	-,2745	-,0020	-,3723	,1788	,0871	,1498

* - Signif. LE ,05 ** - Signif. LE ,01 (2-tailed)

Table 33 Currently Living with Family Controlled Partial Correlations

FAMILY	PDI	UAI	IND	MAS	LO	CON	AAU	IAU	HIE	MAST	EGA	HAR
AC	,5454*	,1699	,1529	-,0718	,0548	,4012	-,5805**	-,1543	-,5031*	,0567	,2064	,1291
NC	,2814	,2551	-,0951	,5202*	-,4816*	,0499	-,0547	,0948	-,2388	,2776	,0255	,2117
CC	-,2881	-,2899	,0388	-,2972	,0349	-,1247	,3590	-,0953	,4760*	,0517	-,2779	-,3433
OC	,4812*	,1913	,0420	,2293	-,3538	,2586	-,2698	-,0744	-,3136	,2987	,0283	,0944

* - Signif. LE ,05 ** - Signif. LE ,01 (2-tailed)

$p=-.4964$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.5511$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5124$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4813$) were found without controlling the moderator effect of currently living with family.

If we compare the results of correlation analysis with controlling moderator effect of currently living with family and without controlling moderator effect of currently living with family, currently living with family statistically positively affected on the relation between Power Distance-Affective Commitment. The relation between Affective Autonomy-Affective Commitment and Hierarchy-Affective Commitment were also affected by currently living with family and became stronger, but in the negative direction. The relation between Masculinity-Normative Commitment, Long-Term Orientation-Normative Commitment and Power Distance-Organizational Commitment was also affected negatively by currently living with family and became weaker. When the moderator effect of currently living with family was controlled, the relation between Hierarchy and Affective Commitment was positively affected and became statistically significant.

4.2.7. Findings on the Effects of Years Spent in Turkey (For Current Job)

The relation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment and its components with controlling the moderating effects of years spent in Turkey for the current job were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation culture dimensions with organizational commitment and sub-components via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results. Later on, correlation was computed by controlling the moderator affect of years spent in Turkey for the current job via using the Partial Correlation analysis. Table 34 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5638$), HIE-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5638$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.6167$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5086$), PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5038$) and HIE-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5509$) were found with controlling the moderator effect of years spent

in Turkey for the current job. Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5627$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4964$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.5511$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5124$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4813$) were found without controlling the moderator effect of years spent in Turkey for the current job.

If we compare the results of correlation analysis with controlling moderator effect of years spent in Turkey for the current job and without controlling moderator effect of years spent in Turkey for the current job, years spent in Turkey for the current job statistically positively affected on the relation between Masculinity-Normative Commitment and Power Distance-Organizational Commitment. The relation between Affective Autonomy-Affective Commitment and Hierarchy-Affective Commitment were also affected by years spent in Turkey for the current job and became stronger, but in the negative direction. The relation between Long-Term Orientation and Normative Commitment was affected negatively by years spent in Turkey for the current job and became weaker. When the moderator effect of years spent in Turkey for the current job was controlled, the relation between Hierarchy and Organizational Commitment was positively affected and became statistically significant. Controlling moderator effect of years spent in Turkey for the current job has no effect on the relation between Power Distance and Affective Commitment.

4.2.8. Findings on the Effects of Findings on the Effects of Years Spent Abroad on Duty

The relation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment and its components with controlling the moderating effects of years spent abroad on duty were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation culture dimensions with organizational commitment and sub-components via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results. Later on, correlation was computed by controlling the moderator affect of years spent abroad on duty via using the Partial Correlation analysis. Table 35 demonstrates the results.

Table 34 Years Spent in Turkey (For the Current Job) Controlled Partial Correlations

TURKEY	PDI	UAI	IND	MAS	LO	CON	AAU	IAU	HIE	MAST	EGA	HAR
AC	,5453*	,2066	,0880	-,0904	,0714	,3122	-,5638**	-,0934	-,5638**	-,0072	,2316	,1844
NC	,2709	,1628	,0207	,6167**	-,5086*	,1382	-,0908	-,0114	-,2223	,3370	-,0847	,1530
CC	-,3044	,1043	-,3251	-,2705	,1538	-,4360	,3971	,3206	,2179	-,3614	,1834	,1045
OC	,5038*	,4142	-,1392	,3406	-,3153	,0856	-,2902	,1446	-,5509*	,0553	,2542	,3940

* - Signif. LE ,05 ** - Signif. LE ,01 (2-tailed)

Table 35 Years Spent Abroad on Duty Controlled Partial Correlations

ABROAD	PDI	UAI	IND	MAS	LO	CON	AAU	IAU	HIE	MAST	EGA	HAR
AC	,5757**	,2172	,0628	-,0642	,0324	,2868	-,5603*	-,0674	-,5125*	,0012	,2100	,1681
NC	,2635	,0814	,0794	,5640**	-,5562*	,1807	-,1048	-,0744	-,1486	,3416	-,1271	,0541
CC	-,3124	-,1595	-,0865	-,4457*	,2141	-,2212	,3635	,0423	,3810	-,1535	-,0583	-,1958
OC	,4733*	,1636	,0391	,1734	-,3199	,2171	-,2905	-,0631	-,3036	,1789	,0394	,0831

* - Signif. LE ,05 ** - Signif. LE ,01 (2-tailed)

Table 36 Countries Served (Including Home Country and More Than 6 Months) Controlled Partial Correlations

COUNTRY	PDI	UAI	IND	MAS	LO	CON	AAU	IAU	HIE	MAST	EGA	HAR
AC	,5383*	,2824	-,0305	,0267	-,0552	,1989	-,4953*	,0257	-,5079*	-,0250	,2444	,2361
NC	,3178	,0369	,1577	,5088*	-,4642*	,2877	-,2223	-,1538	-,1764	,3742	-,1488	,0103
CC	-,2625	-,1358	-,0912	-,4325	,1640	-,2177	,3683	,0427	,3526	-,1395	-,0519	-,1860
OC	,4949*	,1757	,0310	,1847	-,3222	,2302	-,3162	-,0588	-,3170	,1870	,0448	,0917

* - Signif. LE ,05 ** - Signif. LE ,01 (2-tailed)

Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5757$), AAU-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5603$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5125$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.5640$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5562$), MAS-CC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4457$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4733$) were found with controlling the moderator effect of years spent abroad on duty. Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5627$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4964$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.5511$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5124$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4813$) were found without controlling the moderator effect of years spent abroad on duty.

If we compare the results of correlation analysis with controlling moderator effect of years spent abroad on duty and without controlling moderator effect of years spent abroad on duty, years spent abroad on duty statistically positively affected on the relation between Power Distance-Affective Commitment and Masculinity-Normative Commitment. The relation between Hierarchy-Affective Commitment and Long-Term Orientation-Normative Commitment were also affected by years spent abroad on duty and became stronger, but in the negative direction. The relation between Affective Autonomy-Affective Commitment and Power Distance-Organizational Commitment were also affected negatively by years spent abroad on duty and became weaker. When the moderator effect of years spent abroad on duty was controlled, the relation between Masculinity and Continuance Commitment was positively affected in the negative direction and became statistically significant.

4.2.9. Findings on the Effects of Countries Served (Including Home Country and More Than 6 Months)

The relation between culture dimensions and organizational commitment and its components with controlling the moderating effects of countries served including home country and more than 6 months service were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation culture dimensions with organizational commitment and sub-components via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results. Later on, correlation was computed by controlling the

moderator affect of countries served including home country and more than 6 months service via using the Partial Correlation analysis. Table 36 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5383$), AAU-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4953$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5079$), MAS-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5088$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4642$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4949$) were found with controlling the moderator effect of countries served including home country and more than 6 months service. Correlation between PDI-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$), AAU-AC (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5627$), HIE-AC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4964$), MAS-NC (significance level=.01 and $p=.5511$), LO-NC (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5124$) and PDI-OC (significance level=.05 and $p=.4813$) were found without controlling the moderator effect of countries served including home country and more than 6 months service.

If we compare the results of correlation analysis with controlling moderator effect of countries served including home country and more than 6 months service and without controlling moderator effect of countries served including home country and more than 6 months service, countries served including home country and more than 6 months service statistically positively affected on the relation between Power Distance and Organizational Commitment. The relation between Hierarchy and Affective Commitment was also affected by countries served including home country and more than 6 months service and became stronger, but in the negative direction. The relation between Power Distance-Affective Commitment, Affective Autonomy-Affective Commitment, Masculinity-Normative Commitment and Long-Term Orientation-Normative Commitment were also affected negatively by countries served including home country and more than 6 months service and became weaker.

4.3. Findings on the Propositions and the Hypotheses

4.3.1. Findings on the Propositions

- P_1 : There is a relation between nationality and OC:

The relation between nationality and organizational commitment was examined. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics by frequency distributions, percentages, means, and standard deviations. In order to investigate correlation between nationality and organizational commitment among employees, the Spearman Rank Order Correlation analysis was utilized, due to the nominal scale. Table 38 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between Nationality and Organizational Commitment was not found. As a result P_1 was rejected. There was no evidence of the relation between Nationality and Organizational Commitment.

- P_2 : There is a relation between culture clusters and OC:

The relation between culture clusters and organizational commitment was examined. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics by frequency distributions, percentages, means, and standard deviations. In order to investigate correlation between culture clusters and organizational commitment among employees, the Spearman Rank Order Correlation analysis was utilized, due to the nominal scale. Table 38 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between Culture Clusters and Organizational Commitment was found. Hofstede defined culture clustering weakly correlated with Organizational Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=.229$). As a result P_2 was accepted.

There was no evidence of relation between Schwartz defined culture clustering and Organizational Commitment.

4.3.2. Findings on the Hypotheses

- H_{11} , H_{12} , H_{13} and H_{14} : Power Distance is related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively:

The relation between Power Distance and OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between Power Distance-Affective Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$) and Power Distance-Organizational Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=.4813$) were found. As a result H_{11} and H_{12} were accepted. These correlations were affected by moderating effects of tenure, age, gender, marital status, the number of children, currently living with family, years spent abroad and countries served.

There was no evidence of relation between Power Distance-Normative Commitment and Power Distance-Continuance Commitment. Therefore H_{13} and H_{14} were rejected.

- H_{21} , H_{22} , H_{23} and H_{24} : Individualism is related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively:

The relation between Individualism and OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results.

There was no evidence of relation between Individualism and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Normative Commitment respectively. Therefore H_{21} , H_{22} , H_{23} and H_{24} were rejected.

- H_{31} , H_{32} , H_{33} and H_{34} : Uncertainty Avoidance is related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively:

The relation between Uncertainty Avoidance and OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results.

There was no evidence of relation between Uncertainty Avoidance and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Normative Commitment respectively. Therefore H_{31} , H_{32} , H_{33} and H_{34} were rejected.

- H_{41} , H_{42} , H_{43} and H_{44} : Masculinity is related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively:

The relation between Masculinity and OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between Masculinity and Normative Commitment (significance level=.01 and $p=.5511$) was found. As a result H_{44} was accepted. This correlation was affected by moderating effects of tenure, age, gender, marital status, the number of children, currently living with family, years spent in Turkey, years spent abroad and countries served. And if we control moderating effects of years spent abroad, the correlation between Masculinity and Continuance Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4457$) was positively affected in the negative direction and became statistically significant. As a result H_{43} was accepted in case of control moderating effects of years spent abroad.

There was no evidence of relation between Masculinity and Organizational Commitment and Affective Commitment respectively. Therefore H_{41} and H_{42} were rejected.

- H_{51} , H_{52} , H_{53} and H_{54} : Long-Term Orientation is related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively:

The relation between Long-Term Orientation and OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between Long-Term Orientation and Normative Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5124$) was found. As a result H_{54} was accepted. This correlation was affected by moderating effects of tenure, age, gender, marital status, the number of children, currently living with family, years spent in Turkey, years spent abroad and countries served.

There was no evidence of relation between Long-Term Orientation and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, and Continuance Commitment respectively. Therefore H_{51} , H_{52} and H_{53} were rejected.

Table 37 Zero Partial Correlations

	PDI	UAI	IND	MAS	LO	CON	AAU	IAU	HIE	MAST	EGA	HAR
AC	,5453*	,1764	,0854	-,0890	,0702	,2972	-,5627**	-,0877	-,4964*	-,0021	,1975	,1420
NC	,2713	,0994	,0539	,5511**	-,5124*	,1602	-,0863	-,0521	-,1556	,3433	-,1174	,0692
CC	-,2738	-,1006	-,1265	-,3623	,1084	-,2458	,3831	,0805	,3560	-,1460	-,0395	-,1524
OC	,4813*	,1866	,0060	,1965	-,3245	,1881	-,2590	-,0326	-,3121	,1818	,0511	,1046

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 38 Spearman Rank Order Correlations

			NATIONALITY	CLUSTERS HOFSTEDE	CLUSTERS SCHWARTZ
Spearman's rho	AC	Correlation Coefficient	-,068	,288(**)	,178
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,491	,004	,078
		N	106	98	99
	NC	Correlation Coefficient	-,149	-,111	-,255(*)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,126	,276	,011
		N	106	98	99
	CC	Correlation Coefficient	,060	,199(*)	,182
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,541	,049	,071
		N	106	98	99
	OC	Correlation Coefficient	-,088	,229(*)	,098
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,371	,023	,337
		N	106	98	99

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

- H_{61a} , H_{62a} , H_{63a} , H_{64a} , H_{61b} , H_{62b} , H_{63b} , H_{64b} , H_{61c} , H_{62c} , H_{63c} and H_{64c} : Conservatism, Intellectual Autonomy and Affective Autonomy are related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively:

The relation between Conservatism, Intellectual Autonomy and Affective Autonomy and OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between Affective Autonomy and Affective Commitment (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5627$) was found. As a result H_{62c} was accepted. This correlation was affected by moderating effects of tenure, age, gender, marital status, the number of children, currently living with family, years spent in Turkey, years spent abroad and countries served.

There was no evidence of relation between Conservatism and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Normative Commitment respectively. Therefore H_{61a} , H_{62a} , H_{63a} and H_{64a} were rejected. There was no evidence of relation between Intellectual Autonomy and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Normative Commitment respectively. Therefore H_{61b} , H_{62b} , H_{63b} and H_{64b} were rejected. Finally, there was no evidence of relation between Affective Autonomy and Organizational Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Normative Commitment respectively. Therefore H_{61c} , H_{63c} and H_{64c} were rejected.

- H_{71a} , H_{72a} , H_{73a} , H_{74a} , H_{71b} , H_{72b} , H_{73b} and H_{74b} : Hierarchy and Egalitarianism are related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively:

The relation between Hierarchy and Egalitarianism and OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between Hierarchy and Affective Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4964$) was found. As a result H_{72a} was accepted. This correlation was

affected by moderating effects of tenure, age, gender, marital status, the number of children, currently living with family, years spent in Turkey, years spent abroad and countries served. And if we control moderating effects of years spent in Turkey, the relation between Hierarchy and Organizational Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5509$) was positively affected in the negative direction and became statistically significant. H_{71a} was accepted in case of controlling the moderating effects of years spent in Turkey. Additionally, if we control moderating effects of currently living with family, the relation between Hierarchy and Continuance Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=.4760$) was positively affected and became statistically significant. H_{73a} was accepted in case of controlling the moderating effects currently living with family.

There was no evidence of relation between Hierarchy and Normative Commitment. Therefore H_{74a} was rejected. There was no evidence of relation between Egalitarianism and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Normative Commitment respectively. Therefore H_{71b} , H_{72b} , H_{73b} and H_{74b} were rejected.

- H_{81a} , H_{82a} , H_{83a} , H_{84a} , H_{81b} , H_{82b} , H_{83b} and H_{84b} : Mastery and Harmony are related with OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively:

The relation between Mastery and Harmony and OC, AC, CC, and NC respectively were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation via using the Zero Partial Correlation analysis. Table 37 demonstrates the results.

There was no evidence of relation between Mastery and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Normative Commitment respectively. Therefore H_{81a} , H_{82a} , H_{83a} and H_{84a} were rejected. There was no evidence of relation between Harmony and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Normative Commitment respectively. Therefore H_{81b} , H_{82b} , H_{83b} and H_{84b} were rejected.

- H_{91} , H_{92} and H_{93} : The culture clusters defined by Geert Hofstede are related with AC, CC, and NC respectively:

The relations between culture clusters defined by Geert Hofstede and AC, CC, and NC respectively were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation via the Spearman Rank Order Correlation analysis, due to the nominal scale. Table 38 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between the culture clusters defined by Geert Hofstede and Affective Commitment (significance level=.01 and $p=.288$) and Continuance Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=.199$) were found. As a result H_{91} and H_{92} were accepted. There was no evidence of relation between the culture clusters defined by Geert Hofstede and Normative Commitment. Therefore H_{93} were rejected.

- H_{101} , H_{102} , and H_{103} : The culture clusters defined by Shalom H. Schwartz are related with AC, CC, and NC respectively.

The relations between culture clusters defined by Shalom H. Schwartz and AC, CC, and NC respectively were examined. First of all, correlation was computed to see the relation via the Spearman Rank Order Correlation analysis, due to the nominal scale. Table 38 demonstrates the results.

Correlation between the culture clusters defined by Shalom H. Schwartz and Normative Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=-.255$) was found. As a result H_{103} was accepted. There was no evidence of relation between the culture clusters defined by Shalom H. Schwartz and Affective Commitment and Continuance Commitment respectively. Therefore H_{101} , and H_{102} were rejected.

5. CONCLUSIONS & DISCUSSIONS

In this thesis, a positive relation between Power Distance-Affective Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=.5453$) and Power Distance-Organizational Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=.4813$) were found. Meyer & Allen (1991) defined organizational commitment, as “Organizational commitment is an identification with and involvement in the organization of values and goals of the organization, willingness to extra hard on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to remain in the organization.” 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). As mentioned in Randall’s (1993) study, countries with lower power distance reflected higher organizational commitment levels than those countries with higher power distance. Furthermore, Kirkman and Shapiro (2001) noted that a tendency for lower levels of power distance to be associated with higher levels of organizational commitment also continue to be observed.

The findings on relationship between power distance and organizational commitment and affective commitment respectively are not consistent with Randall’s (1993) and Kirkman and Shapiro’s (2001) studies. Contrary to the previous studies, the results demonstrated that, higher power distance nation members showed higher organizational commitment and affective commitment. However, in this study, any relationship between Power Distance and Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment respectively could not be found.

Wasti (2002) noted that, the influence of collectivist values on the nature of continuance commitment was more strongly confirmed when further analysis revealed that for individuals low on collectivism there was no relation between generalized norms for organizational commitment. For individuals high on collectivism, however, loyalty norms significantly increased continuance commitment. On the other hand, Vandenberghe et al. (2001) mentioned that employees from highly individualistic countries displayed a higher level of continuance commitment to their organization than their counterparts from less individualistic countries. Although, Randall (1993)

mentioned that, in terms of individualism versus collectivism, it appears that the level of organizational commitment may be lower in more collectivist countries than in some of the more individualistic countries. Kirkman and Shapiro (2001) noted that a tendency for higher levels of collectivism to be associated with organizational commitment.

The findings mentioned in this research are not consistent with none of Randall's (1993), Wasti's (2002), Vandenberghe et al.'s (2001) and Kirkman and Shapiro's (2001) studies. In this study, there was no evidence of relation between Individualism and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Normative Commitment respectively.

Randall (1993) mentioned that, contrary to expectation, it was anticipated that countries with some of the highest uncertainty avoidance scores of the countries studied, would reflect high organizational commitment levels. Randall (1993) noted that, studies in Canada, with substantially lower uncertainty avoidance score, report higher organizational commitment levels among workers. But in this study, there was no evidence of relation between Uncertainty Avoidance and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Normative Commitment respectively.

Randall (1993) mentioned that, findings regarding the masculinity versus femininity dimension were unclear. Because, while Japan has the highest masculinity score and South Korea has the lowest masculinity score among the countries studied, both had roughly equivalent organizational commitment levels. On the other hand, Canada, with a high organizational commitment level, only had a median level on the masculinity index. Vandenberghe et al. (2001) mentioned that employees from countries with a strong emphasis on masculinity values exhibited stronger levels of affective commitment than employees from countries in which masculinity values less prevalent.

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). In this study, the relation

between Masculinity and Normative Commitment (significance level=.01 and $p=.5511$) was found. Contrary to the previous studies, the results demonstrated that, higher masculinity nation members showed higher normative commitment. Continuance commitment refers to 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). And if we control moderating effects of years spent abroad, the correlation between was found as Masculinity and Continuance Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4457$). The results demonstrated that, higher masculinity nation members showed lower continuance commitment levels. There was no evidence of relation between Masculinity and Organizational Commitment and Affective Commitment respectively. This finding is not consistent with Vandenberghe et al.'s (2001) study.

The following cultural dimensions haven't been studied up to now. Therefore there was no way to compare in order to criticize the findings. The relation between Long-Term Orientation and Normative Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5124$) was found. It means that employees from long-term oriented countries displayed a lower level of normative commitment to their organization then their counterparts from short term-oriented countries. But, there was no evidence of relation between Long-Term Orientation and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment and Continuance Commitment respectively.

Affective autonomy emphasizes the individual's independent pursuit of affectively positive experience (pleasure, exciting life, varied life) (Smith & Schwartz, 1997). Schwartz (1999) redefined affective autonomy as a cultural emphasis on the desirability of individuals independently pursuing affectively positive experience. The relation between Affective Autonomy and Affective Commitment (significance level=.01 and $p=-.5627$) was found. This demonstrates that the countries at the affective autonomy pole showed lower affective commitment level.

The culture level value type on the upper right, labeled "Conservatism" is constituted precisely of those values likely to be important in societies based on close-knit harmonious relations, in which the interests of the person are not viewed as distinct

from those of the group. Cultures that emphasize Conservatism values are primarily concerned with security, conformity, and tradition (Schwartz, 1994).

Schwartz (1994) noted that Intellectual Autonomy emphasizes the independent ideas and rights of the individual to pursue his/her own intellectual directions (exemplary values include curiosity, broadmindedness, and creativity). Schwartz (1999) redefined Intellectual Autonomy as a cultural emphasis on the desirability of individuals independently pursuing their own ideas and intellectual directions. These dimensions, which are conservatism and intellectual autonomy, are very similar to Hofstede's (1980) dimension, individualism versus collectivism. As mentioned before, there was no evidence of relation between cultural dimension Individualism and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment respectively. The correlation between Conservatism and Intellectual Autonomy and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment respectively was not found, either. These findings demonstrate consistency in the research.

People are socialized to comply with the obligations and rules attached to their roles and sanctioned if they do not. The value type expressive of this view is Hierarchy. This value type emphasizes the legitimacy of an unequal distribution of power, roles, and resources (social power, authority, humility, wealth) (Smith & Schwartz, 1997). The relation between Hierarchy and Affective Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=-.4964$) was found. In this study, the countries, which are placed at hierarchy pole, demonstrated lower level of affective commitment. If we control moderating effects of currently living with family, the relation between Hierarchy and Continuance Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=.4760$) was positively affected and became statistically significant. This demonstrates that the countries at the hierarchy pole showed higher continuance commitment level. Furthermore, if we control moderating effects of years spent in Turkey, the relation between Hierarchy and Organizational Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=-.5509$) was positively affected in the negative direction and became statistically significant. This demonstrates that the

countries at the hierarchy pole showed lower organizational commitment level. There was no evidence of relationship between Hierarchy and Normative Commitment.

Hierarchy dimension is very similar to Hofstede's (1980) dimension, power distance. In this study, it's found that contrary to Randall's (1993) and Kirkman and Shapiro's (2001) studies, the results demonstrated higher power distance nation members showed higher organizational commitment and affective commitment. However, hierarchy is negatively related with organizational commitment. The countries at the hierarchy pole showed lower organizational commitment level. These results are consistent with previous studies, but not with results found in this study.

Comparing the numerical values of Hofstede's (1980) and Schwartz's (1994) studies, it is observed that high power distance countries, which are Turkey (66), Greece (60), Spain (57) and Italy (50), demonstrated lower hierarchy pole values, except Turkey (3.30). Besides that, Italy demonstrated the lowest level, which is (1.69), and followed by Greece (2.01) and Spain (2.03). This inconsistency occurred due to the previous studies. To make clear these dimensions, some further studies are needed. For the further cross-cultural organizational commitment studies, as mentioned in the limitations of the study, without using numerical values as observed in Hofstede's (1980) and Schwartz's (1994) studies, these dimensions should be reinvestigated.

People are socialized to internalize a commitment to voluntary cooperation with others and to feel concern for everyone's welfare. The value type expressive of this view is Egalitarianism (Schwartz, 1994). In this study, there was no evidence of relation between Egalitarianism and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment respectively.

In high Mastery cultures, Schwartz (1994) noted that people actively seek to master and change the natural and social world, to assert control and exploit it in order to further personal or group interests. The value type emphasizes getting ahead through active self-assertion (ambition, success, daring, competence) (Smith & Schwartz, 1997). High Harmony cultures accept the world as it is, trying to preserve rather than to change or exploit it (Schwartz, 1994). This value type emphasizes fitting harmoniously into the

environment (unity with nature, protecting the environment, world of beauty) (Smith & Schwartz, 1997). In this study, the relation between Mastery and Harmony and Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment respectively was not found.

Correlation between Culture Clusters and Organizational Commitment was found. Hofstede defined culture clustering correlated with Organizational Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=.229$). There was no evidence of relation between Schwartz defined culture clustering and Organizational Commitment. From the components of organizational commitment perspective, just correlation between the culture clusters defined by Geert Hofstede and Affective Commitment (significance level=.01 and $p=.288$) and Continuance Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=.199$) were found.

In accordance with the clustering which is defined by Hofstede (1980, 1991); Canada, UK and US are members of Anglo; Germany is a member of Germanic; The Netherlands is a member of Nordic; Italy and Spain are members of Latin Europe and Greece and Turkey are members of Near East Cluster.

Regards to the results of the study, organizational commitment affective commitment and continuance commitment tend to increase starting from Anglo towards, Germanic, Nordic, Latin Europe and Near East Clusters. This relationship is depicted at Table 39. From this perspective the highest organizational commitment, affective commitment and continuance commitment demonstrated by Turkish and Greek employees while Canadian, British and American employees have the lowest.

Table 39 Hofstede's Culture Clustering versus Organizational Commitment

Level of OC	Level of AC	Level of CC	Hofstede Clustering
Lower	Lower	Lower	1 Anglo
			2 Germanic
			3 Nordic
			4 Latin European
Higher	Higher	Higher	5 Near East

Additionally, correlation between the culture clusters defined by Shalom H. Schwartz and Normative Commitment (significance level=.05 and $p=-.255$) was found. In accordance with the clustering which is defined by Schwartz (1994); US is a member of English-Speaking; Germany, The Netherlands, Greece, Italy and Spain are members of West Europe; Bulgaria, Poland and Hungary are members of East Europe and Turkey is a member of Islam Cluster. Regards to the results of the study, normative commitment tends to decrease starting from English speaking towards, West Europe, East Europe and Islam Clusters. This relationship is depicted at Table 40. From this perspective the highest normative commitment demonstrated by American employees while Turkish employees have the lowest.

Table 40 Schwartz's Culture Clustering versus Organizational Commitment

Level of NC	Schwartz Clustering
Higher	1 English Speaking
	2 West Europe
	3 East Europe
Lower	4 Islamic

As mentioned in Randall's (1993) study, besides that comparing commitment levels across specific countries, commitment levels across clusters of countries was compared in this study. Additionally, Near East and East Europe clusters were included in the study with Anglo, Germanic, Nordic and Latin European clusters. Schwartz's (1994) dimensions were examined and it's observed that Hierarchy pole or Hofstede's (1980) power distance should be reinvestigated due to the inconsistency.

In contrast to recent studies, the current study used a comparison approach involving 12 nationalities from an extended area. Findings are comprised of not only Western world but also Eastern Europe and Turkey as a collectivist country. A unique strength of this research was the use of sample of employees working for the same organization and working in the same place. Education levels were almost the same and backgrounds looks like each other. Since the thought of committed employee is a vital

portion of a corporation, this thesis and its research will lead improvements in the management practices from cultural perspective.

As a result, the relationship between national culture and organizational commitment investigated and discussed. For the further studies, the researchers should focus on the causal relationship. The reasons and the ways of the effects are to be investigated in order to understand the relationship. With this knowledge managerial sciences will be improved and it will lead to create ability to control Human Resources.

From the theoretical standpoint, it is interesting to note that organizational commitment studied as a dependent variable in cross-cultural research. One might argue that the importance of organizational commitment as a work relevant construct is directly related to its impact on outcome variables. The nature of those outcomes (i.e. turnover, absenteeism, or performance) may vary by culture.

Human Resources Management (HRM) is used to drive the strategic objectives of the firm and the 'human resource', the object of formal manpower planning, is a resource, like other factors of production, and an expense of doing business. According to Laurent (1986) and Schneider (1988), of all management practices HRM practices seem to be the most vulnerable to cultural differences and hence the least likely to travel from one country to another. This is because they are often designed by members of one culture to handle members of that particular culture. As with most management practices, HRM practices are grounded in cultural beliefs that reflect the basic assumptions and values of the national culture in which organizations are embedded. Therefore, an HRM system may be meaningful and effective in one culture, but ineffective in another (Laurent, 1986).

Managing and motivating people with vastly different cultural values and attitudes require variations in management style, systems and practices. The use of the same criteria and training programs as in domestic relocations to identify candidates and prepare them for living and working in a foreign environment may convey the assignment to failure in international assignments. Concepts and constructs that guide business decisions and activities may be very different across countries (Tung, 2004).

HRM, while still emphasizing the importance of integrating human resource policies with business objectives, sees this as involving treating employees as valued assets, a source of competitive advantage through their commitment (Storey, 1992). Storey (1992) mentioned that if employees' commitment yields better economic performance, it is also sought as a route to greater human development.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire

Dear Sirs and Colleagues;

I am conducting a cross-cultural survey on Organizational Commitment among employees in this international organization. The purpose of this research is to find out employees' feelings to this organization. Your answers will enable to find out general tendency, and this in turn will help me to complete my Master Thesis at the department of Human Resources Management and Development at the Marmara University.

Your answers are very important to the accuracy of my research. Of course all answers are confidential and will be used for scientific purposes. Please turn the completed questionnaire at your earliest convenience. Thank you for your cooperation in advance.

Listed below is a series of statements that represent possible feelings that you might have about your organization. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by choosing a number from 1 to 7 via combo box. From 19 to 30, Please find the appropriate responses related with you.

(Strongly Disagree) (Moderately Disagree) (Slightly Disagree) (Neither Agree nor Disagree) (Slightly Agree) (Moderately Agree) (Strongly Agree)
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)

Very respectfully,

MUSTAFA KORKMAZ

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization | |
| 2. I do NOT feel any obligation to remain with my current employer | |
| 3. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire | |
| 4. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own | |
| 5. Even if it were to my advantage, I do NOT feel it would be right to leave my organization now | |
| 6. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to | |
| 7. I do NOT feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization | |
| 8. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now | |
| 9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now | |
| 10. I do NOT feel "emotionally attached" to this organization | |
| 11. This organization deserves my loyalty | |
| 12. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization | |
| 13. I do NOT feel like "part of the family" at my organization | |
| 14. I would NOT leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it | |
| 15. If I had NOT already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere | |
| 16. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me | |
| 17. I owe a great deal to my organization | |
| 18. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives | |
| 19. Nationality | 24. Number of Children |
| 20. Tenure | 25. Currently living with family |
| 21. Age | 26. Years spent in Turkey (for current job) |
| 22. Gender | 27. Years spent abroad on duty |
| 23. Marital Status | 28. Countries served (Incl. Home country and more than 6months) |

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