THE STAFF TRAINING- ORGANIZATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL COMMITMENT RELATIONSHIP: AN EXPLORATION INCLUDING PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND SELF-EFFICACY

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This thesis is dedicated to the memory of

Wendy Helena Hill (nee Gulde)
and
Allan Trevor Gulde

my loved siblings
whose premature deaths have been
the motivation for its production.

ABSTRACT

Employees from three large organizations ($N = 196$) participated in this study which was designed to explore the staff training-organizational and occupational commitment relationship. The study also aimed to explore the role of psychological well-being and self-efficacy and the possible moderating and/or mediation effect these personal attributes might have on the training-commitment relationship. The third part of the study suggested that management and non-management employees would be similarly committed to the organization and their occupation. Using the Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) measure of affective, continuance and normative commitment, interaction effects were found for psychological well-being and perceived self-efficacy with organizational and occupational normative commitment, and occupational affective commitment that strengthened the training-commitment relationship. No mediating effects were detected and no difference was found between the management and non-management samples. Data supported the traditional connections of organizational tenure, job tenure and age with organizational and occupational commitment. When these three variables are added to the findings for affective and normative commitment, the implications for training programmes suggests that at different stages of tenure different characteristics of commitment are able to be encouraged to develop. Training programmes that include elements that foster feelings of well-being and develop self-efficacy would be of benefit to the individual and the organization. Several limitations are noted, including methodological issues and the use of lesser-known measures.

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INTRODUCTION

Overview

Organizations spend large sums of money on training. Bennett (1997) put the figure as high as $45 billion a year in the United States of America alone. Figures available for New Zealand indicate that in 1998, industry contributed $102 million towards training (Melville, personal communication, 22 July, 1999). The New Zealand Government's contribution to training has increased from $13 million in 1992 to $64 million in 1998/99. Training is big business, but a question put forward by Hill and Elias (1990) is: Are organizations getting the best results out of their training dollars? They suggest that factors that influence the training and the impact training has on organizational commitment require continued investigation. In their research Hill and Elias found that perceived self-efficacy and self-efficacy in learning had a determining influence on how effectively training programmes will be transferred into the workplace. They also found that advancement potential and perceived training relevance had a mediating effect on the relationship between training and the self-efficacy of the individual. Noe (1986) suggests that the attitudes and attributes of the trainees are a neglected influence on the effectiveness of training programmes and proposes a model of training effectiveness, which includes self-efficacy, motivation to learn and reactions to training.

Cascio (1995 and 1991) approaches the training issue from a different perspective. He suggests a dual responsibility: that the organization is responsible for providing an environment that supports and encourages change, and that the individual is responsible for deriving maximum benefit from learning opportunities which the organization provides. Cascio suggests that organizations often lack the commitment to train all levels of their staff, with most organizations concentrating their resources on managers, technical and professional employees. Most companies he suggests prefer to 'poach' trained workers from other organizations, providing a strong

disincentive for training.

By creating a formula by which organizations can calculate the cost of employee turnover, Cascio (1995) suggests that if organizations realised the true cost of replacing committed employees they would do more to train and satisfy the needs of their current workforce. Cascio suggests that this includes taking the needs of the individual into account when training programmes are being designed. Research by Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas and Cannon-Bowers (1991) points to the influence that the meeting of training expectations has on the performance of the trainees and how this subsequently affects organizational commitment. Neale (1995) in a partial replication of Tannenbaum et al. also indicates the influence of the fulfilment of training expectations on organizational commitment.

Most organizations want employees who are committed, or at least recognise the potential benefits of having employees who are committed to their occupation, even if these employees do not remain with their organization for long periods of time. Organizations want employees who can meet the demands of the job, who are able to cope with the technology used, who can increase productivity and generate new business. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) submit that the occupational-organizational commitment relationship is contingent on the developmental opportunities available to the employee from the organization. If we view training as a developmental opportunity, then in terms of Mathieu and Zajac, it is the training offered by an organization and its impact on the commitment relationship which has a central focus of this thesis.

In addition to organizational commitment, occupational commitment and training, other constructs of interest in this study are perceived self-efficacy, learning self-efficacy, and psychological well-being. As suggested earlier by Hill and Elias (1990), Noe (1986) and Cascio (1995 and 1991), there is value to the organization and to the

individual employee to understand the interaction of these elements so that training needs can be met in a way that is beneficial to both parties. Goldstein (1991) discusses the personal impact that work-related training can have on the individual, and how this impact is largely ignored when training programmes are put into place by organizations. Goldstein suggests that factors such as self-efficacy and psychological well-being need to be taken into account when planning and preparing employees for training programmes. This will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Two.

Hirsch (1987) suggests that "organizational loyalty is no longer fashionable or even advisable as an attitude meriting reward or advancement" (p.115). This is a commonly held assumption in the workplace of the 1990's, given Hirsch's statement, and yet most employees hold some form of commitment toward the organization that employs them and most organizations actually do expect commitment from their employees (Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993). Although in organizational literature commitment is often discussed in terms of employee loyalty and organizational culture, Meyer, et al. suggest, that commitment is a psychological state that characterises the employee's relationship with the organization. This relationship, Meyer, et al. proposes has implications for the decision to remain or to leave the organization. Choosing to remain with the organization has implications for personal development, and perceived opportunities for promotion, such as opportunities to be involved in training.

This research project whilst not directly interested in the more commonly researched consequence of organizational commitment, such as turnover intentions or absenteeism, sees an association of employee undergoing training as having a possible tie to both organizational commitment and occupational commitment. This relationship may be mediated or moderated by the perceived self-efficacy of the employee, by learning self-efficacy, (as referred to earlier by Hill and Elias, 1990, and

Noe, 1986); or the psychological well-being of the individual, (as suggested by Schwab, 1980, cited by Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Each of these constructs will be discussed in more detail in later chapters of this thesis.

Commitment to work takes several forms, most of which have received considerable investigation over recent years. However most of the investigation has been undertaken with professional or career oriented groups such as managers, nurses or teachers and, to a much lesser extent blue collar workers. It is the intention of this research to undertake a comparative study of two groups of employees who work for the same organization, representing a management and non-management sample.

The two-group comparative study has been chosen because of recent interest in how employees who do not have a management role within an organizational view their jobs. The majority of research into organizational commitment and occupational commitment has been at the management end of the spectrum. Recent research (e.g. Cohen, 1992 and Lease, 1998) has brought to light current attitudes of workers who do not occupy a management role. This research suggests a shift in commitment to their employing organization and their occupations, from extrinsic factors such as pay and working conditions, to intrinsic factors such as involvement in decisionmaking. This shift is of interest to researchers and organizations alike. The participants for this study do not come from the so called 'professional' groups, such as nurses or teachers but from a more generalised industry sample.

The need to maintain current skills, or to build on those skills is a feature of the changing nature of the workplace of the 1990's. Whilst Davy, Kinicki and Scheck (1997) discuss the implications of frequent organizational restructuring and mergers on the American workforce, similar comparisons can be made within New Zealand. Gobbi (1998) in discussing the results of an Education and Training Survey undertaken in New Zealand in September 1996 indicates that just under half of those

who worked for wages and salaries at some time in that year participated in employment related training. The most common form of training was in-house training offered by their employer. Fifty percent of these workers had no post-school qualifications. Those with higher qualifications tended to be younger, and more involved in all forms of employment-related training. Gobbi reported that participation rates in employment-related training tended to decrease with age. Participation rates for manager, technicians and professional employees were higher than for lower status workers, supporting Cascio's claim that organizations tend to offer more training opportunities to their higher status employees.

This research plans to extend the study of organizational and occupational commitment past the usual antecedent and predictor factors of employee absenteeism, turn over and job satisfaction to explore possible associations with willingness to undertake training and development. It is also planned to investigate the constructs of psychological well being, perceived self-efficacy, and self-efficacy in learning in those employees who are committed to the organization and occupation, compared with those individuals who record lower levels of organizational or occupational commitment.

The introductory chapters of this thesis aim to acquaint the reader with the theoretical basis and direction of this study. In Chapter One the commitment relationship of employees, their employing organization and their occupation together is discussed. Chapter Two examines training and its possible impact on organizational and occupational commitment, together with the need to look past training to other factors that may also impact on the individual and training programme implementation. Chapter Three discusses the constructs of psychological well being, perceived self-efficacy, and learning self-efficacy as they will be applied to this thesis and Chapter Four contains the research goals for the study.

CHAPTER ONE

Analysis of the concept of Commitment

This chapter, which provides the theoretical foundation for this thesis, will begin by exploring the various aspects of commitment with the aim of giving the reader an understanding of the constructs of organizational and occupational commitment as they have evolved over the past thirty years of research. It will also explore how these constructs are used in psychological research. The chapters that follow will refer back to some of the theoretical issues discussed here.

Organizational Commitment

"An increased understanding of commitment may help us comprehend the nature of more general psychological processes by which people choose to identify with objects in their environment and to make sense out of this environment. It helps us to some degree to explain how people find purpose in life." (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982, p. 19).

Organizational commitment as a construct has its origins in research on work commitment (Etzioni, 1961a, cited by Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982) in which the individual's commitment to an organization was examined from the typology of *moral, calculative and alienative involvement*. Moral involvement, Etzioni suggests, examines the positive and strong orientation the individual holds toward the organization, and how the individual identifies with the values, goals, and norms of the organization. Calculative involvement represents a less intense involvement regarding the exchange relationship that an individual may develop with other members of the organization and the benefits between the contribution the individual makes and the rewards received (both monetary and social). Alienative commitment, as described by Mowday et al. suggests a negative perspective being taken that would

be characterised by behaviour that is constrained in some way, as in having to perform tasks that were not of the individual's free choice.

Continuing the examination of organizational commitment, Kanter (1968) discusses commitment from the perspective of *continuance, cohesion and control*. Continuance correlates with the individual's commitment to the organization's survival. This may include making sacrifices to join or to remain with the organization. Cohesion as described by Kanter relates to the attachment felt by the individual in a social context and may involve participation in activities designed by the organization to encourage group solidarity. Kanter suggests that the wearing of corporate uniforms or badges is an expression of the cohesion. Control commitment, she suggests, is manifested in the individual's affinity to the norms and values of the organization, and the direction these give to the individual's everyday behaviour. Kanter also suggests that control commitment can involve the denouncement of previously held norms and reformulating of those that affiliate the individual more closely with the organization.

Mowday, et al. (1982) contrast the Etzioni and Kanter approaches viewed from an organizational perspective, by suggesting that Kanter views her approaches as strongly interrelated and often expressed by organizations simultaneously to encourage and develop commitment from their members. Etzioni, they suggest, has a less restrained definition suggesting that an employee would be categorised as belonging to one of the three groups. Both Etzioni and Kanter tend to view commitment in a way described by Staw (1977, cited by Mowday, et al.) as describing two differing phenomena. Staw suggests these as phenomena to be more accurately classified as *attitudinal and behavioural* commitment.

Attitudinal commitment is defined as being the process by which the employee comes to identify with the organization; desiring to become a member and to maintain membership of the organization. Behavioural commitment centres on how the

individual's past behaviour acts to bind the employee to the organization (Mowday, et al., 1982). Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) suggest that behavioural commitment reflects the process, by which individuals connect themselves to an organization, focusing on actions such as investing time and effort for rewards. Becker (1960) describes this as a 'side-bet' whereby employees become 'locked' into the organization because of what they see are the costs of leaving (e.g. superannuation, specialist knowledge, seniority).

Staw (1977, cited by Mowday, et al.) and Salancik (1977, also cited by Mowday et al.) suggests that attitudinal commitment is derived from the binding of the individual to his or her actions, and that once the commitment is made the individual must then find the psychological mechanisms to adjust to the commitment. This process, Salancik suggests, often involves cognitive dissonance. Cognitive dissonance, as used by Salancik, relates to the power of commitment to change and shape the attitudes of the individual to fit situations where commitment is felt. Staw suggests that individuals who show high levels of commitment change their attitude toward the tasks that they are required to perform, thereby aligning themselves with the attitude of the organization. Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) suggest that attitudinal commitment is also known as affective organizational commitment. Meyer et al. (1993) view affective, continuance and normative commitment as components of attitudinal commitment and suggest that literature often confuses attitudinal and behavioural commitment, hence the development of their scale. These components will be discusses in more detail further on in this chapter.

Extending research in this area, Mowday, et al. (1982) advance a definition of organizational commitment as "the relative strength of the individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p. 27). This definition strongly aligns with that of Steers (1977). Mowday et al. describe this definition as having three parts - having faith in, and agreement with, the values and goals of the

organization; having a willingness to exert dedicated effort on behalf of the organization; and a resolution to remain in the organization. Mowday et al. point out that in adopting this definition, they do not believe that organizational commitment precludes an individual from commitment to other facets of their lives.

The 1970's saw the progression of interest in organizational commitment move to connections with turnover and absenteeism. Meyer, et al. (1993), refer to Buchanan (1974); Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulain (1974); Steers (1977); and Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979) as some of the more influential researchers in this field. The context of this research was the examination of the commitment held by employees to their employers, a concept that developed into what is now defined as organizational commitment. Buchanan suggested that commitment, as an attitude, has value because it is reciprocal between the organization and the individual. He suggests that as the individual develops patterns of working life these patterns advantage the organization, and that this relationship includes the goals and values of both the individual and the organization.

Buchanan (1974) developed the concept of organizational commitment into three components, *identification, involvement and loyalty*. Identification is defined as having pride in the organization one is employed by, and internalising the goals and values of that organization. Involvement is described as becoming psychologically involved in the activities that are defined by one's role within the organization. Involvement as used in this context, includes satisfaction being obtained from work and other activities associated with one's work role. Cook and Wall (1980) liken this to aspects of Hackman and Oldham's (1976) dimension of internal work motivation, and suggest that involvement should be redefined as a willingness of the employee to invest personal effort "as a member of the organization, for the sake of the organization" (p. 41). Loyalty, under Buchanan's definition, is attachment to the organization, including feelings of affection and a sense of belonging that includes a

desire to remain employed by the organization.

Mowday, et al. (1982) describe employee-organizational linkages and their interest to managers and researchers alike suggesting that "committed people are thought more likely to remain with an organization" (p 19). Cascio (1991) takes a more pragmatic approach for managers by discussing the financial impact of the costs associated with training new or replacement staff when disaffection turns to resignation. Allen and Meyer (1990) continue to develop a multifaceted approach when they conceptualise organizational behaviour into three component parts. These parts they refer to as three kinds of commitment taking the form of *affective, continuance and normative* components.

The affective component of organizational commitment, as defined by Allen and Meyer (1990), refers to employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Affective commitment, Meyer, et al., (1993) suggest, develops as the employee's expectations are met. The continuance component refers to commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organization. The normative component refers to the employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. Meyer, et al. suggest that as the employee receives benefits (such as training), a sense of obligation to reciprocate develops, which often manifests itself in employee loyalty. Normative commitment, they suggest, is often highest in employees who are appropriately trained.

Randall, Fedor and Longnecker (1990) summarise the three commitment dimensions by suggesting that employees who display affective commitment engage in activities within the organization because they *want* to. Employees who display continuance commitment engage in those behaviours because they *need* to, thus avoiding the costs of leaving or to gain rewards. Employees who are normatively committed Randall, et al. suggest engage in behaviours because they feel they *should*, believing it is the

'right' or 'moral' thing to do.

Allen and Meyer (1990) suggest that these three elements of affective, continuance and normative commitment should be regarded as components rather than types of attitudinal commitment. This compares with the Staw (1977, cited by Mowday, et al., 1982) context, by suggesting that it is possible for employees to experience each of the three psychological states to differing levels. Allen and Meyer suggest that the 'net sum' of the individual's organizational commitment reflects each of these distinct psychological states. Meyer et al. (1993) extended the 1990 model to include occupational commitment. They choose the term *occupational* because they felt that it reflects the assessment of the "commitment to a particular line of work" (p. 540). This terminology and its application will be discussed in more detail later, together with other issues of occupational/career commitment.

An aspect of Allen and Meyer (1990) affective commitment has elements of the continuance relationship discussed by Kanter (1968) with regard to the emotional attachment to the organization. Affective commitment also has similarities to what Staw (1977, cited by Mowday, et al., 1982) describes as attitudinal commitment with respect to the desire for membership and identification with the organization. Affective commitment also aligns with the involvement component described by Buchanan (1974) in as much as the individual is described as developing a psychological involvement with the organization. This also relates to the Mowday, et al. (1982) definition of organizational commitment, of having faith in and agreement with the values and goals espoused by the organization.

Allen and Meyer (1990) and Kanter (1968) both described continuance commitment in a similar way. Allen and Meyer discuss the costs associated with leaving the organization and Kanter described the sacrifices the individual makes to remain with the organization. This sacrifice, as suggested by Kanter, also has elements of

normative commitment as outlined by Allen and Meyer. Mowday, et al. (1982) describe this narrative element as the resolution on the part of the employee to remain in the organization.

To this point the discussion has, in the main, taken the assumption that all employees develop equally strong linkages to the organizations that employ them. Angle and Perry (1983) suggest that this is not necessarily the case and that individual and situational elements differ. They suggest that there is more than one path to organizational commitment, with interactive relationships with variables such as age, tenure, and education level. Angle and Perry also suggest that research has produced two models of organizational behaviour. One model is where the locus of commitment remains in the attributes and actions of the individual. The other model refers to the way the employee is treated by the organization that leads to an increase in organizational commitment. Wiener and Vardi (1980) suggest that the organization strongly influences the commitment relationship through the amount of involvement that is fostered between employees and the organization, suggesting that there is a strong impact through the psychological contract that exists between organization and employee. An example of this psychological contract might be the expectation of the employee of the training offered by their employing organization.

Angle and Perry (1983) suggest that the primary mechanism that describes the organization-based model is reciprocation. This, Angle and Perry suggest, is where the perception of equitable treatment of the employee by the organization has the aim of developing feelings of satisfaction that ultimately sustain the employee's commitment to the organization. Buchanan (1974) and Meyer, et al. (1993) also hold this view of reciprocity in organizational commitment. Mowday, et al. (1982), as shown in Figure 1.1, take the view that it is not whether the commitment process begins with either attitudes or behaviours. Rather, what is important is to recognise that the development of commitment may involve the subtle interplay of attitudes and

Attitudinal commitment
To the organization

Committing
behaviours

Figure 1.1. Reciprocal influences between attitudinal and behavioural commitment. (as per Mowday, et al., 1982, p. 48).

behaviours over time. Angle and Perry also suggest that demographic factors such as age, gender, period of tenure and level of education can place constraining influences on the seeking of alternative employment.

Research by Young, Worchell and Woehr (1998) suggests that organizational commitment recorded by a blue collar sample was as high for intrinsic factors as that usually understood to be recorded for management samples when using the Mowday, et al. measure which differentiates extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. The Young, et al. study was conducted with a very small sample of 64 subjects. A study conducted by Loscocco (1990) with a sample that exceeded three thousand subjects suggested that there were factors that encouraged organizational commitment opposite to the commonly held perception of extrinsic rewards such as wage rates and working conditions. Loscocco suggests that employees at lower levels of the hierarchy react positively to challenges, variety and autonomy when they are present in their work environment in a similar way as described for employees at management level, thereby suggesting that these stereotypical differences between management and non-management employees no longer actually exists.

Cohen (1992) supports the view of changing stereotypes by suggesting issues of age and gender, role conflict and autonomy, together with issues of work experience such as leadership and job involvement moderate organizational commitment. Cohen also suggests that the influence of some of these elements can be stronger on the commitment relationship for lower status occupations that for those of higher status. Cohen suggests that this could be due to the changing nature of management structures of dynamic organizations, such as the flattening of management structures, where lower level employees are able to become more involved in decision making.

The research of Cohen (1992) can be compared with that of Nystrom (1990) who suggests that elements such as greater discretion, ability to influence management, access to information and other resources enhances the employer-employee commitment relationship. Nystrom discusses the self-efficacy impact of this relationship, by describing the competence relationship that is fostered between managers and their subordinates. Nystrom describes this as managers encouraging employees to perceive themselves as competent workers and suggests this is more easily demonstrated in a smaller organization than in a bureaucracy where certain rigidities constrain these vertical exchanges. Commitment and the impact of self-efficacy will be discussed later.

Lower status employees, Cohen (1992) suggests, tend to direct their expectations toward the organization rather than themselves and therefore, Cohen suggests, psychological antecedents such as feelings of accomplishment and fulfilment are stronger in this group for organizational commitment than they would be in a management sample. Managers, Cohen suggests would be expected to show higher levels of occupational commitment, by attributing extrinsic rewards to their qualifications and not reciprocating the receipt of these rewards with increased organizational commitment. Cohen suggests that organizational commitment levels are determined when employee's expectations of low role conflict, less role ambiguity

and aspects of organizational structure such as centralisation, good communication flows and effective leadership enhance their work experience.

Loscocco (1990) reports that blue-collar workers respond positively to efforts by employers who offer opportunities that challenge them provide autonomy and variety in their jobs. In previous research these job attributes have often been reserved for management level studies.

Lease (1998) reviewing work attitudes and outcomes suggests that understanding the constructs of psychological well-being, organizational commitment and occupational commitment has practical applications for organizations and employees. For the organization, the implication is that a satisfied employee will create a higher level of productivity, and remain with the organization for longer (hence reducing the cost of employee turn-over to the organization). Because both women and men spend a large portion of their lives in paid work, there is potential value for both employers and employees to increase their understanding of work attitudes rather than relying on outdated stereotypes. Lease submits that there is evidence to suggest both positive and negative affect play a powerful role in organizational stress. Stress is known to have implications for the health and welfare of the individual, often leading to the decision to leave an organization when the levels of negative affect outweigh the positive. Under these circumstances increased levels of stress may effect the psychological well-being of the individuals involved.

Lease (1998) makes suggestions for further research using the three component model of Meyer and Allen (1991) outside the traditional Caucasian executive sample; suggesting that attitudes to organizational commitment, psychological well being and occupational commitment may be different for a blue collar sample or a sample of employees who work part-time. Lease also suggests that women in male dominated organizations are more likely to feel excluded, and less supported by the organization,

although these feelings are more likely to affect job satisfaction than organizational commitment. Grunsky (1966) confirmed this by suggesting that women have had to overcome more obstacles than men to gain employment do. Bandura (1997) suggests that the self-efficacy of the individual plays a role in eliminating barriers that determining occupational choice, especially when women wish to enter male dominant occupations.

Mowday, et al. (1982) suggests that commitment is a process that develops over time. However employees are spending less time in more organizations over their working life compared with the 'jobs for life' concept which existed up until the late 1980's. Rapid organizational change has become the norm rather than the exception. Meyer, et al. (1993) suggest that by operationally defining organizational commitment into the three factors of affective, continuance and normative commitment, there is recognition of the multidimensional nature of commitment and the opportunity to examine these constructs separately.

O'Driscoll (1989) suggests that there are opportunities for organizations that recognise the different characteristics and stages of commitment to use this information when developing Human Resource strategies and policies. E.g. Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) suggest that cultivating the 'right kind' of commitment is a desirable outcome of staff training programmes for both the employees and the organization. Meyer et al. give the example of how the development of affective commitment can encourage employees to remain with the organization because they *want* to, thereby suggesting that affective commitment is a positive attribute for both employees and the organization. Reilly and Orsak (1991), supporting the use of the Meyer et al. measure, suggest that there are aspects of affective, continuance and normative commitment that can motivate employees and be of benefit to work behaviours.

Occupational commitment

It is stated by Mueller, Wallace and Price (1992), that "Progress in understanding organizational commitment will not be made until conceptual and empirical distinctions among various forms of employee commitment are recognised and demonstrated," (p. 211). They suggest that loyalty to stay with an organization and intent to stay with an organization are conceptually distinct from each other as two dimensions of employee commitment. Meyer, et al. (1993) also support this view with their model of occupational commitment. The Meyer et al. model will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Career commitment, Mueller, et al. (1992) suggest is identifying with involvement in one's job. They suggest that career commitment is the same as, or related to, constructs such as career salience (refer Greenhaus, 1973); professional commitment (refer Morrow and Wirth, 1989; Meyer, et al., 1993); professionalism (refer Price and Mueller, 1986, cited by Mueller, et al., 1992); and occupational commitment (refer Ritzer and Trice, 1969, and Meyer, et al., 1993).

Accepting that commitment can take several forms when operationalized in the employment arena, commitment to work, career, profession or occupation also takes several interchangeable forms. Mueller, et al. (1992) suggest that in common with each of these is the critical notion that the individual is committed to his or her career or occupation rather than being committed to the organization in which the individual is employed. However there are some forms of occupational commitment that remain domain specific, such as union commitment (refer to Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thompson and Spiller, 1980).

Meyer, et al. (1993) present the argument that the terms 'occupation', 'professional' and 'career' are used somewhat interchangeably in commitment literature. They

choose the term occupational commitment arguing that both professionals and non-professionals experience commitment to the work that they do. Occupational commitment, they suggest is the less ambiguous term when the construct is assessing a line of work. Carson and Bedeian (1994) also discuss the problems associated with the operationalization of career commitment, primarily they suggest problems arise because of the lack of agreement as to what constitutes a 'career.' There is more value, Meyer at al. suggest, in understanding the tie of the individual to their current work, when examined in the context of the three component model of affective, normative and continuous elements.

Affective commitment, when examined in the context of occupational commitment Meyer, et al. (1993) suggest, represents a strong desire to remain in the present occupation, and shows a desire to keep up with training and developments in the present occupation. Normative commitment represents a sense of obligation to remain in the present occupation and recognises the high cost of leaving the occupation. It also relates to positive work experiences. The continuance component of occupational commitment, is reported by Meyer et al., to correlate with behaviours that are beneficial from the standpoint of the occupation, such as compliance with professional standards, or the public promotion of the occupation and with increasing employment status. Continuance commitment also associated to the investment that would be lost if the employee decided to change occupation (Meyer, et al.).

Blau (1985) and Arnold (1990) describe career commitment as including engagement by the individual to a chosen vocation, including a profession, and suggest that professional employees are likely to be more committed to their profession and the values embodied in that profession, than to the values of their employers. In later research, Blau (1988) confirms this definition when researching registered nurses in a hospital environment. Mueller, et al. (1992) suggest that the career committed individual is not as committed to the organization and more likely to leave so as to

further his/her career, rather than to enable the aspirations of the organization. Blau, Paul and St. John (1993) describe the meaning of the term 'career' as being controversial. Meyer, et al. (1993) when reporting a factor analysis of work/career/occupational commitment scales suggest that the wording of factors should be oriented to the use of occupation rather than career so as to eliminate the confusion of definition that exists in this body of literature.

Kallenberg and Berg (1987, cited by Mueller, et al., 1992) maintain that career commitment and organizational commitment are a 'zero sum game' whereby the increased commitment to one reduces the commitment to the other. However, Meyer, et al. (1993) suggest that there is an indication that employees may develop organizational and occupational commitment levels independently, and that commitment to the organization does not exclude commitment to the occupation. Contrary to the Kallenberg and Berg view, Aryee and Tan (1992) suggest that career commitment is positively correlated with organizational commitment. Aryee and Tan, in purporting this view suggest that skill development by the organization and occupational (career) commitment is positively correlated. This is also supported by Blau (1985), who suggests that when organizations support employees career development this fosters increased levels of organizational and career commitment in those employees.

Morrow (1983) identifies thirty concepts of work commitment that have established theoretical and empirical associations in psychological literature She further suggests that there is insufficient distinction between several of these as separate notions, and advances the position that the concept for study should be work commitment. Morrow suggests that there are five predominant forms of commitment. First, values, as in the intrinsic value of work as an end in itself, included in this she suggests is the Protestant work ethic (refer Blood, 1969). Second, commitment to one's career as suggested by career salience (refer Greenhaus, 1971). Third, commitment to the job

as in the degree of daily absorption in work activities and work as a central life interest (refer Dubin, 1956). Fourth, one's loyalty and commitment to the organization (as described by the earlier section of this chapter), and fifth, commitment to the union as one's bargaining agent (refer Gordon, et al., 1980). Morrow and Wirth (1989) re-examine work commitment and suggest that the focus on a narrow concept becomes exclusive within the career domain to occupations that are labelled 'professions,' thus restricting the exploration of a large body of material. Blau's measure of career commitment, they suggest, can in fact be applied to a large range of occupations and therefore represents a more generic work commitment application. Aryee and Tan (1992) and Arnold (1990) support this view.

Meuller, et al. (1992) re-examining the concept of work commitment, ten years after Morrow (1983), propose work commitment to be commitment to employment itself rather than to an organization in particular or to a particular career. This, they suggest is related to Weber's sociological construct of the Protestant work ethic and to constructs that are described by other researchers as: work involvement, (refer Kanungo, 1982), job involvement (refer Lodahl and Kejner 1965; Cook, Hepworth, Wall and Warr, 1981; and Henderson, 1994), and central life interest, (refer Dubin, 1956; and Dubin and Champoux, 1975). Randall and Cote (1991) describe work commitment as a concept which is relatively stable over time and suggest that this is because work commitment is less dependent on actual work conditions.

In line with the context described by Meyer, et al. (1993) the term occupational commitment will be used for this research project, and defined as the three constructs of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the work the individual is currently employed to do. In part, a reason for taking this definition is because, like Meyer, et al.'s description, this research has as a focus the assessment of commitment to the job the individual is presently involved with, and the distinction between career, profession or job is not a central issue.

Most research, (e.g. Meyer, et al. 1993, Aryee and Tan 1992, Blau 1985 & 1988, Arnold 1990, etc.) has been conducted in a professional setting using one employment group, such as nurses, and teachers. This will not be a criterion for sample selection in this research. This research project has an interest to explore the influence of organizational and occupational commitment when associated with training using the Meyer, et al. (1993) model of affective, normative and continuance commitment constructs.

Summary

This chapter began by examining the historical context of organizational commitment of managers from Etzioni and Kanter in the 1960's through to Loscocco, Cohen and Lease in the 1990's when the focus changes to employees who do not have a management role within the organization. This represents a shift of emphasis in organizational behavioural research from management to workers that reflects the current organizational structures that have emerged in the later part of this research period. This move is from large hierarchical structures with large numbers of managers and advisors to flatter management structures of organizations. It is possible that with the removal of these structures, attitudes of commitment by employees across the board are becoming less distinct by group.

It is also possible that previously held views on commitment to the organization and to occupations are changing with non-management staff demonstrating commitment for reasons previously held to be the preserve of management. These reasons could be opportunities for advancement (be they personal interest or professional development), autonomy, and involvement in decision making. Loscocco (1990); Cohen (1992); Young, Worchell and Woeher (1998); and Lease (1998) have developed this line of inquiry from research.

Having established how organizational and occupational commitment has developed and how it will be applied in this research, discussion will now turn to training, its review and context.

CHAPTER TWO

Training

This chapter will begin by examining the strategic and pragmatic role of training in organizations and then move to discuss the potential impact of training on employees together with the how the construct will be examined in the context of this thesis.

Tannenbaum and Yukl (1992) suggest that events prior to training (including the pre-training environment) frequently influence training effectiveness. Neale (1995) discusses this subject further in a military context where he explores the role of trainees' expectations of training and the impact when these expectations are or are not met. Hill and Elias (1990) discuss training in the corporate environment, (at management level) suggesting the role of learning self-efficacy may be pivotal in this context. Learning self-efficacy is discussed in more detail in Chapter 3 as a separate construct to this study. Cohen (1992) and Loscocco (1990) explore the role of training and commitment with employees of lower status within organizations.

The investment that an organization undertakes with regard to training and the strategic role of employee development or the desire. for competitive advantage, makes the subject of the individual's receptivity to learning a major issue for organizations (Hill and Elias, 1990). Hill and Elias go on to suggest that organizations rely heavily on training to convey the managerial competencies and attitudes required by the company, and that training is used extensively when an organization wishes to revitalise its management or in situations of organizational change. Goldstein (1991) suggests that "training programmes exist within organizations, not in a vacuum" (p. 513) and as a consequence many managers are disappointed when their training programmes do not bring the results envisaged. Hill and Elias echo this sentiment when they quote the exasperated executive who claims to have sunk millions into training programmes, using the best teachers and the latest

materials, but who still did not get the return on his investment with people who were able to do their jobs right.

The rapidly changing employment scene with reducing opportunities for blue-collar workers and the rising opportunities for high technology, service and information sector employment is resulting in the need for a workforce that recognises the necessity of ongoing training (Latham, Millman and Miedema, 1998). Training was once thought to be necessary at the beginning of one's career, whereas now that belief is modifying in recognition of the changing requirements of the job market. Some organizations and trainers believe that the 'shelf-life' of education qualifications is rapidly decreasing. Latham, et al. suggest that an MBA degree in the United States of America once had a shelf-life of twelve years, now it is considered to be about seven or eight. They also suggest that there is evidence to support their assertion that compounding employee attitudes to training is an overall low level of literacy and lack of basic skills of the workforce.

Goldstein (1991) defines training as "the systematic acquisition of attitudes, concepts, knowledge, rules, or skills that result in improved performance at work" (p. 508). This definition follows closely to that of Hinricks (1976). However Hinricks also discusses training in terms of altering the behaviour of organizational members in a direction which contributes to organizational effectiveness. "All training is aimed at changing people in the interest of organizational goals" (p. 302). Hinricks also suggests that because training is so commonplace it tends to be largely taken for granted. Howell and Dipboyes (1986) suggest that when training is defined as a role within the organization (and this tends to be only in larger organizations, in their view), the position of the trainer is generally one of low prestige and power. A repeated scenario in training and organizational literature is the introduction and the impact of rapidly changing technology, together with the increased pressure this places on organizations to initially train, and then retrain, their employees. This

pressure is not just to be able to cope with the technology but to maintain a competitive commercial advantage.

Goldstein (1991) suggests that training programmes vary hugely in purpose and presentation. They can be specific to work practices such as training to improve the consistency of application of skills or they can have an interpersonal purpose, such as attempting to produce a more helpful supervisor. The method of presentation can also vary immensely from on-the-job training to highly theoretical and sophisticated presentations and programmes. Despite this huge variation, Goldstein suggests the aims and intentions of the training remains the same, that is the desire to contribute to the overall effectiveness of the organization.

Guthrie and Schwoerer (1994) suggest that an accurate understanding of the training needs of employees ensures the effective and efficient use of the large investment that organizations make in the delivery of staff training. This, they suggest, together with the inherent difficulty of evaluating management training requirements, has lead increasingly to the use by organizations of self-assessment of training needs. Noe (1986) discusses the implications of self-assessed training needs on issues such as individual expectancies, self-efficacy, feedback and the effects on the motivation to learn. He suggests that these influence perceptions of the usefulness and desirability of training. Baldwin, Magjuka and Loher (1991) support the involvement of employees in selecting their own training, suggesting that this substantially enhances trainee motivation.

Tharenou (1997) discusses employee attitudes to training and suggests that there is a positive correlation between participation in career development and career commitment. This, she suggests, is tied to the desire for advancement, higher levels of responsibility and increased rewards, such as pay and prestige. Jex and Bliese (1999) suggest that this is because those individuals who report high levels of self-

efficacy are less likely to view opportunities for development as stressful, and therefore rise to the opportunity for challenge and advancement. Goldstein and Gilliam (1990) suggest that older worker often require the support of their organization to participate in training or retraining programmes. They suggest that often the self-efficacy of these workers is lower because of past training or schooling experiences.

Gagne (1962) argues that in most training situations, the trainee already has most of the responses required and that the purpose of training is to train the employee to put them together in the right order to enable the task to be completed satisfactorily. Howell and Dipboyes (1986) suggest that central to Gagne's notion is the acceptance that every job or task involves distinct sets of component activities. Howell and Dipboyes go on to suggest that this is rarely the approach taken in training as theories of human learning are rarely applied to training situations.

Tharenou (1997) supporting earlier research undertaken by Guthrie and Schwoerer (1994) suggests that within organizations where employees are encouraged to develop their career aspirations, employees will be instrumental in participating in training and development. She does however restrict her generalisations to managerial white collar employees. Although she did not use self-efficacy measures in her study, several of the issues discussed have implications for occupational and organizational commitment, self-efficacy and psychological well-being. Examples of these are the perceived value of participation, superior and peer encouragement, together with the issue of environment, (i.e. where organizations operate an organizational culture in which training and development initiatives are encouraged). Bandura (1997) and others suggest that this supportive environment encourages employees who may be hesitant to participate, and in so doing their potential for expanded levels of mastery and self-efficacy is increased.

Stickland (1996), supporting the developmental model of training and development proposed by Tharenou (1997) suggests that employees at all levels of the organization are able to determine training and development requirements. This organization-wide element of training will be examined in this study.

Competence is no longer sufficient to ensure survival within the current work environment. Commitment, creativity and excellence are characteristics of individuals who are change-oriented and able to manage the current business environment (Stickland, 1996). He also suggests that commitment is a dynamic process and that constant reappraisal is required by the individuals involved and their managers as the employee develops and the work environment develops and changes. This indicates that individuals who are constantly appraising their work environment for what they require of it will initiate their own training and development, not just for career development but also for personal interest.

Irving, Coleman and Cooper (1997) suggest that the normative commitment component of organizational commitment is often an outcome when the organization invests in staff training or subsidises the tuition fees of their employees. Stickland (1996) suggest there is a psychological contract involved in training and retraining and that there is a need to balance expectations of both sides, that is, the individual and the organization. Stickland continues that unless there is this balance, expectations of commitment and change will not be met. Uncovering how some of the relationships between training and commitment may be associated is a part of this research project.

Discussing the current business environment, a writer for The Forum Corporation (1995) suggests that there is a need for organizations to develop a climate of continuous learning, because new skills and the implementation of new ideas are constantly demanded of today's employees, rather than only training employees for a

specific purpose, such as the introduction of new procedures. This supports the long held view of Chris Argyris, who as recently as May 1999, restated his belief that organizational learning, as well as being relevant to the employee, is also about problem solving. Argyris suggests that being able to see the causal process can, when the organizational culture allows, lead to understanding the behavioural processes that impede progress at the individual and organizational level. Argyris suggests that often these behavioural processes include issues of efficacy, both individually and collectively within the organization.

Sogunro (1997) suggests that today's economy continues to exert pressure on employees to constantly increase their skill levels so as to maintain their position within the organization. Often the individual comes from a perspective of perceived inadequacy because of the constant need to retrain or develop new skills to maintain their competitive edge. Hill and Elias (1990) suggest that this inadequacy is often expresses in lower self-efficacy with regard to training and learning. This, Sogunro suggests, is particularly so when the individual holds a leadership role within the organization. Hill and Elias also support this view when discussing the role of employee obsolescence. Wexley (1984) suggests that employees may have to retrain as many as five to eight times during their careers. This often leaves employees with feelings of disadvantage. Howell and Dipboyes (1986) present the argument that rapidly changing technology and the increased pressure that results, places increased obligations on employers and employees to maintain their competitive edge and retrain. Describing this environment, Nordhaug (1989) suggests that when employees who participate in training find the exercise a rewarding experience training and learning has the potential to become self-reinforcing. This, Nordhaug and others suggest, has the potential to increase levels of occupational and organizational commitment.

Muchinsky (1997) and Cohen (1990) discuss the role of supportive supervisors who

discuss upcoming training with their staff, establish training goals, and provide support and encouragement. They suggest that there is evidence that employees who have such supervisors, often found the resultant training useful and show an increase in the transfer of training into the workplace. Hill and Elias (1990) also support this view.

Chris Argyris, in several publications, discusses the role of what he describes as the learning organization; the environment and role organizations play in the provision of training and how they are able to encouraging their employees to undertake retraining. Argyris (1993) extensively discusses ineffective and effective strategies and how training programmes are able to be modified so that employees not only learn new strategies but are also able to put these into practice when they return to the workplace. Hill and Elias (1990) suggest that not being able to use new skills and knowledge acquired in training programmes often leads employees to be less inclined to attend future training programmes. This can be identified, they suggest, in resistance to attend training programmes or in lower levels of learning self-efficacy with such employees, when they are faced with the requirement to retrain. Self-efficacy in learning is discussed in Chapter 3 of this thesis as a separate construct.

Martocchio and Judge (1997) suggest that there is a relationship between conscientiousness and learning in employee training and that this relationship is influenced by self-efficacy. Saks (1994) supports this view particularly when applied to newcomers to the organization. Several researchers, (see Yukl, 1998; Gist, 1989; Hill and Elias, 1990; Saks, 1994) discuss the role of self-efficacy in employee training. This topic is also discussed in more detail in chapter 3.

Gist, Stevens and Bavetta (1991) suggest that it is becoming increasingly desirable for employees to develop effective interpersonal skills to better cope with issues such as the gender and ethnic diversity within the workplace. Gist, et al. go on to suggest that

employees with higher levels of self-efficacy are better able to develop the skills required by the modern workplace especially when the development context is a company sponsored training programme. They suggest that understanding trainee self-efficacy is an important element when designing training programmes and evaluating outcomes, particularly in regard to skill acquisition and implementation. Hill and Elias (1990) agreeing with the Gist, et.al view, suggest that an understanding of learning self-efficacy in training situations enables training programmes to be more effective and increase the transfer of training from the classroom to the workplace. Learning self-efficacy they suggest is the individual's perception of their own ability to undertake training.

Muchinsky (1997) supports the Hill and Elias (1990) view with regard to the strategic role of training, but goes on to suggest that training is undertaken by organizations principally to maintain their competitive advantage. Organizations train their employees for the benefits to the organization rather than the benefits to the staff (as discussed earlier with reference to Goldstein and others). However the attitudes and responsiveness of staff to being trained greatly influences the transfer of training, and the implementing of new knowledge into the work environment from which the organization ultimately hopes to benefit. For this benefit to be passed to the organization, Muchinsky suggests that there needs to be an element of staff development incorporated into the training programme, so that there are benefits for the individual who is training as well as for the organization.

An understanding of self-efficacy issues with regard to training and retraining, and commitment has the potential to guide employers with regard to the choice of training and development programmes. Earlier, Muchinsky (1993) suggests that training, to produce maximum value, should contribute to the goals of the individual as well as the organization. This, he suggests, is because training gives the employee the potential to be successful at work and, as a consequence, assists the employee to avoid

the psychological problems often associated with failure or incompetence. Noe (1986) and Noe and Schmitt (1986) take this further when they describe the importance of taking the trainee's attitudes to training into consideration. Noe and Schmitt suggest that employees often feel resistance to change. Under these circumstances, they suggest motivation for full participation in the training programme may be reduced leading to less learning taking place. Noe and Schmitt suggest that often in these situations, evaluations of training will find fewer effects of the training programme reported by the trainees or their supervisors than were expected originally by the organization or training planners. This will often lead to the misinterpretation of the effectiveness of organization wide training, or the misdirection of training programmes, by not including support for employees who are to undergo training.

In support of Noe and Schmitt (1986), Arnold, Cooper and Robertson (1995) suggest that evaluations undertaken after training courses often report dissatisfaction with the training sessions because the development components of the trainees have not been taken into account. Neale (1995) and Tannenbaum, et al. (1991) report that when the trainee's expectations are met in training programmes this facilitates the development of organizational commitment, self-efficacy and motivation.

The role of self-efficacy in training programmes has been regularly tested in experimental situations that involve computer technology, such as learning to use a computer programme or when playing computer based strategy games (refer Bandura and Jourden, 1991; Cervone and Peake, 1986; Durham, Knight, and Locke, 1997; Gist, Stevens and Bavetta, 1991; Wood, Bandura, and Bailey, 1990, etc.). However the more general role of self-efficacy in training has not frequently been reported. As part of this research project, participants will be surveyed about their feelings of generalised self-efficacy and learning self-efficacy, with regard to their willingness to undergo training as part of their job.

The next chapter will explore the variables that may influence the training and commitment relationship when the investigation is undertaken in the workplace.

CHAPTER THREE

Concepts of Psychological Well-Being and Self-efficacy

This chapter will discuss the variables of psychological well-being, self-efficacy and learning self-efficacy that will be used in this thesis. It is anticipated that these variables may have a mediating or moderating effect on the central hypothesis that employees who report willingness to undergo training as required by their employers, will report higher levels of commitment to their employing organization and to their occupation.

Psychological well-being

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) describe psychological well-being (or the lack of it), as a role state, which acts as an antecedent to organizational commitment. They suggest that role states such as role conflict; role ambiguity and role overload influence an individual's perceptions of the work environment. However they do not define this relationship further, other than suggesting that it is possible that there is a direct or mediating association between psychological well-being and organizational commitment that is influenced by affective responses.

Cropanzano, James and Konovsky (1993) found that positive affect is related to organizational affective commitment, linking their research back to earlier work by Staw, Bell and Clausen (1986). Staw, et al suggest that although they do not fully understand the dispositional sources of job attitudes, positive or negative affect may have a moderating influence on whether people enjoy their work, take up developmental opportunities presented to them and/or want to stay with their current employer. Staw and Ross (1985) suggest that prior attitudes (they include psychological well-being in this context) will be a strong predictor of subsequent attitudes when an employee is involved in situational change. Staw and Ross describe

situational change as including intrinsic factors of employment such as opportunities provided by the employer (e.g. training, development and job enrichment) rather than extrinsic factors (e.g. pay and status within the organization). Schaubroeck, Ganster and Kemmerer (1996) suggest that over time the individual's positive and negative affect assessment of the employment environment will usually remain unchanged, even when their job situation changes.

Judge (1993) when researching the relationship between job satisfaction and turn over intentions suggests that the disposition of the respondents played a moderating role in the relationship. Judge suggests that individuals who report higher levels of positive affect are more likely to be proactive to seek increased levels of satisfaction. This, he suggests could include desire for promotion and hence taking training and development opportunities available at work, or looking to change jobs when these opportunities are not available.

Perceived Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy has its beginnings in social cognitive theory. Bandura (1977) suggests that people guide their lives by their beliefs of personal efficacy. *"Perceived self-efficacy refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments"* (Bandura, 1997, p. 3, italics, Bandura's own). Lee and Bobko (1994) include the following statement to this definition. "It is not concerned with the skills one has but with the judgements of what one can do with whatever skills one possesses" (Lee and Bobko, quoting Bandura, 1986, p. 391).

Personal efficacy is acquired from four major sources of information: *performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and psychological states*, (Bandura, 1977). Performance accomplishment, Bandura suggests, is an essential element because it is based on personal mastery experiences where success raises

mastery level and repeated failures are likely to lower expectations. Bandura suggests that training programmes have the potential to facilitate experiences that increase levels of mastery. Mann and Decker (1984) suggest that successful techniques for increasing mastery experience in training include the use of filmed models, suggesting that this has the potential to increases recall and behaviour acquisition in the trainees. Bandura describes vicarious experience, as seeing others accomplish activities that would be personally threatening to the observer. Watching others do their jobs, is a form of vicarious experience for new employees learning their jobs. Bandura suggests that this is a less dependable source of information. Verbal persuasion, i.e., encouragement from others to achieve, has a weaker base, Bandura suggests, because is does not have the experiential basis of other information sources. Gist (1990, cited in Latham, Millman, & Miedema, 1998) also supports this view, suggesting that this method has the potential to stifle creativity rather than encourage it. Goldstein (1991) and others would suggest that training situations when the trainee is able to practise the new skill are more valuable than situations where the trainee is told what to do and then expected to have the required level of expertise.

Bandura (1997) suggests that efficacy beliefs can be undermined or enhanced by cognitive effects. Hill and Elias (1990) suggest that the individual's self-efficacy in training situations has the potential to effect the trainee in either a positive or negative direction, dependent on the past experience of the trainee.

Bandura (1981) suggests that a firm sense of self-efficacy is important as a motivational contributor for the attainment of future competencies and successes. Rapid technological and social change requires constant adaptation and raises questions of individual capabilities. The social comparison with younger job competitors by middle aged employees requires constant re-appraisal of self-efficacy and facing limitations of competence. Bandura suggests that there are instances where gains in knowledge, skills and expertise may offset some loss of physical

capacity, but the stereotypical images of ageing remain.

Self-efficacy outcomes, Saks (1994) suggests generally fall into four major categories. Self-efficacy influences choice behaviour; the effort that is expended and levels of persistence; the individual's thought patterns and emotional reaction; and it predicts the individual's performance and coping behaviour. Saks also suggests that depending on the training method, self-efficacy interacts on performance and post-training behaviours. Research conducted by Gist (1989), Hill and Elias (1990) also supports the influence of self-efficacy on training and training outcomes. Hill and Elias also suggest that self-efficacy in learning impacts on managers' advancement potential. This will be discussed in more detail as learning self-efficacy later in this chapter.

Bandura (1997) and Sadri and Robertson (1993) support the view that the higher the perceived self-efficacy of the workforce and their supervisors within an organization, the greater their productivity and the greater the opportunities for the individuals and the organization to thrive and expand. Bandura suggests that occupational disruptions often arise from interpersonal and motivational problems rather than from lack of technical skill and the bi-directional effects that supervisors and subordinates have on each other. Improving supervisory skills through guided mastery programmes is suggested by Bandura to enhance morale and productivity. Bandura also discusses how this lack of skill spills over into domestic life and the individual's ability to manage social problems. This supports Goldstein's (1991) point that training programmes do not exist in a vacuum. Frayne and Latham (1987) also support this view and suggest that a stronger sense of self-regulatory efficacy improves the work and home environment. In a later publication Latham and Frayne (1989) suggest that the inclusion of self-efficacy in training programmes has the potential to increase organizational and occupational commitment through increased job attendance.

Latham, Millman and Miedema (1998) caution that trainees high in self-efficacy may

experience feelings of futility because they do not believe that their work environment will support their increased efforts or new abilities. They go on to suggest that when upskilling employees, managers and supervisors must provide the environment for the new skills to be used and appreciated. Hill and Elias (1990) suggest that this enhances learning self-efficacy, which further has the potential to affect the future training experiences of these employees.

Bandura (1997), discussing the changing patterns of work, such as the increased reliance on contract workers, project teams and part-time involvement, suggests that this environment requires a new way of managing careers so as to reduce the stress which changing workplaces evoke. Perceived self-efficacy, Bandura believes, plays a pivotal role in the individual's ability to adapt and cope with the changing work place. Lawson and Shen (1998) discuss perceived self-efficacy in the context of resilience, suggesting those employees who have enhanced levels of self-efficacy are more resilient in situations of organizational change.

Bandura (1997) suggests that there are several ways that self-efficacy beliefs contribute to success in occupations. In the preparatory phase of career decision-making, students' beliefs in their own efficacy act to partially determine how well they develop the basic skills on which careers and vocations are built. Taylor and Betz (1983) suggest that perceived self-inefficacy not only reduces the range of options considered but also generates indecisiveness about the options regarded as viable. Multon, Brown and Lent (1991) also support this view. Researching perceived self-efficacy Betz and Hackett (1983) suggest that where students have low levels of perceived self-efficacy in dealing with numbers there is impact on the decisions they make with regard to computer technology and acquiring computer competencies. These students tend to shy away from careers they perceive to require high levels of these skills. Betz and Hackett suggest there is a discernible masculine bias to computer based activities, which leads through to the majority of employees in

the computer industry being male. They also suggest that womens' lower sense of self-efficacy for traditionally male dominated occupations constrain their own occupational development.

Bandura (1997) goes on to state that high levels of self-regulation are required to begin and sustain vocational choices, and at times individuals require resilience to maintain these goals, suggesting that requisite competencies are not mastered without hard work and sacrifice. A sense of perceived self-efficacy he suggests, assists the individual in this pursuit whereas a low sense of perceive self-efficacy tends to limit the choices and options individuals have available to them. Often, an adverse experience associated with low socio-economic status, for example, fosters a low sense of occupational efficacy, thereby restricting the possible occupational choices. Bandura also suggests that gender and social barriers often work in similar ways and that despite cultural changes, stereotypical practices are slow to change, which also disadvantages women entering traditional male dominated occupations.

Supervisors with low levels of self-efficacy for working with others, are Bandura (1997) suggests often responsible for creating an environment that tends to be discouraging. He suggests that organizations that encourage the improvement of supervisory skills also enhance the morale and productivity of their organization. Personal efficacy, Bandura suggests, allows employees to manage services and interpersonal relationships in ways that also enhance occupational success. Rapid technology and social change require constant adaptations and reappraisals of occupational roles. This Bandura suggests, regularly challenges the individual's personal efficacy. Latham and Saari (1979) describe training practices that facilitate supervisors to interact effectively with their subordinates. They outline the use of behaviour modelling to achieve this objective together with a follow up programme that supports the supervisors and staff through the change period.

Bandura (1997) suggests that individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy manage the changing workplace and its demands of self-direction and adaptation better than individuals with lower perceived self-efficacy. Little and Madigan (1997) and Jex and Gudanowski (1992) describe the flow-on effect from individual self-efficacy to collective self-efficacy and the positive impact this has on the workplace and team performance, especially with regard to goal setting and accomplishment.

Bandura (1997) also discusses perceived self-efficacy in the context of readjusting over ambitious goals, suggesting that where this was once the province of those in their middle years, this is no longer the case. Bandura also affirms that scaling down one's goals does not necessarily mean ceasing to update skills and knowledge to pursue activities. Along with Brim (1992), Bandura suggests that individuals continue to seek out challenges in their personal and working lives. Bandura suggests that reappraisal and misappraisal of capacities in older life can flow on to issues of reduced self-efficacy often influenced by negative stereotyping of ageing. In discussing self-development and the role of and attitudes to learning, Bandura suggests that the changing realities of the work environment call for lifelong learners who are efficacious.

Gist (1987) suggests that as a cognitive construct, self-efficacy can be helpful in understanding the individual's performance and coping behaviours in a variety of organizational environments. Gist, Stevens and Bavetta (1991) build on the cognitive task construct by describing the positive relationship between self-efficacy and the performance relationship when an individual is faced with adapting to new technology, managerial decision making and career related activities. When this adaptation process is translated into training programmes, Jex and Bliese (1999) suggest that individuals with high self-efficacy prefer an informal training programme, whereas those individuals who report low levels of self-efficacy prefer a more formal training situation.

Silver, Mitchell and Gist (1991, cited by Gist, and Mitchell, 1992) describe how high self-efficacy individuals attribute failure to factors such as bad luck or insufficient effort, whereas low self-efficacy individuals attribute failure to more stable factors such as lack of ability. This, they suggest, results in high self-efficacy individuals demonstrating higher resilience than those individuals with low self-efficacy. They go on to suggest that high self-efficacy trainees may be more persistent and work harder to learn and retain new skills, even when faced with individual difficulties, than would their low self-efficacy counterparts. In this context, Schaubroeck and Merritt (1997) suggest that self-efficacy attributions operate as a moderating variable between job control and work stress. Bandura (1997) describes how employees with high self-efficacy not only cope better with their jobs, but have a strong sense of commitment to their choice of profession and their employing organization. Tailoring training to include strategies for improving employees perceived self-efficacy, Bandura suggests, not only facilitates the acquisition of the required skills but assists the employee to assimilate more readily into an organization, overcoming uncertainties and reducing stress that is often associated with training and learning new skills.

Learning self-efficacy

Self-efficacy in learning is defined by Hill and Elias (1990) as an individual's "belief that they can successfully acquire new work related attitudes, skills and behaviours" (p. 199). As a construct, this requires self-appraisal whereby the individual views his/her ability to learn as an opportunity or a threat. This receptivity, Hill and Elias suggest, greatly influences the individual's willingness to employ effort despite the possibility of set backs and discouragement. Individuals who display higher levels of self-efficacy set higher goals and maintain a stronger resolve to pursue these goals despite adversity. In their research Locke, Frederick, Lee and Bobco (1984) discuss

the relationship between self-efficacy, motivation and goal setting, confirming the Hill and Elias assertion. Locke, et al. reported that task self-efficacy was a significant predictor of subsequent task performance. Several studies (refer Bandura, 1977, and Gist, 1987) report that there is a significant correlation between self-efficacy and subsequent task performance. Locke, et al. also suggests that the strength of efficacy perceptions affect the goals chosen by the individual, their task performance and commitment to those goals.

Smith (1989) suggests that self-efficacy expectations should be taken into account in training situations; this refers to what Bandura describes as mastery experience. Hence Hill and Elias (1990) reason that cumulative positive experiences with training will have a positive impact on self-efficacy in learning. They also suggest that individuals who believe in their own advancement potential will have a strong positive effect on their self-efficacy in learning situations. This, Gecas (1989) suggests is one of the beneficial effects of self-efficacy, where the individual works toward changes in his/her behaviour that influence environmental changes. An example of this would be when an individual initiates training opportunities with the view to promotion possibilities.

As a result of their research Hill and Elias (1990) suggest that self-efficacy should be evaluated prior to training programmes being run or elements of self-efficacy development incorporated into corporate training programmes. They remind their readers that "retraining employees is *not* analogous to retooling machines" (p. 214), and that the personal consequences of training programmes need to be taken into consideration. Guthrie and Schwoerer (1996) suggest that self-efficacy can shed light on why two individuals of similar ability might perform very differently, suggesting that individuals with high self-efficacy in learning tend to be more resilient and higher performing. Self-efficacy in training situations, they suggest, is a powerful construct explaining differences in individual performance in the workplace.

Mager (1992) suggests that one of the implications of training is that it is normal for trainees to experience failure as they develop new skills. Mager suggests that the role of self-efficacy in this context is perseverance, suggesting that individuals with high levels of self-efficacy will perceive any failure as a temporary setback, rather than the final result of the training they have undergone. Guthrie and Schwoerer (1996) also support this view, but go on to suggest, that as trainees become more established in their careers, they will more often report lower efficacy in training, and are less inclined to see the benefits of ongoing management training.

Learning self-efficacy equates with what Bandura (1997) defines as task self-efficacy, when an individual believes he/she is capable of successfully performing a specific task. Martocchio and Judge (1997) describe task-specific self-efficacy as the individual's intentions to allocate mental or physical effort to achieving a targeted level of performance. Gist, Stevens and Mitchell (1992) suggest that self-efficacy is the judgement by the individual of their capability in a given situation. Other researchers, such as Sherer, Maddux, Mercandante, Prentice-Dunn, Jacobs and Roger (1982) suggest that levels of general self-efficacy can influence mastery expectations in new situations. Research undertaken subsequently by Shelton (1990) and Woodruff and Cashman (1993) confirm this to be so.

In the context of learning self-efficacy, Noe (1986) and Noe and Schmitt (1986) suggest that self-efficacy beliefs can influence the individual trainee's motivation to learn. This was also the view of Locke, et al (1984), when Locke introduces the concept of self-efficacy into his theory of motivation. Martocchio and Judge (1997) describe the mediating role of self-efficacy in learning in terms of the conscientiousness of the trainee. In a task specific arena, Schaubroeck and Merritt (1997) suggest that task self-efficacy may operate as a moderating variable. Gist Stevens and Bavetta (1991) suggest that pre-training self-efficacy (similar to what

Hill and Elias describe as learning self-efficacy) moderates not only the influence of training method, but also the skills the trainees develop during the training programme. Gist (1989) suggests that self-efficacy in training situations may partially mediate performance outcomes from training situations. Gecas (1989) suggests that the direction of causality may not always be clear, and that in the majority of situations, it is probably reciprocal. This, he suggests, is because it is unclear how or why self-efficacy changes or remains stable over the course of a lifetime.

This chapter has introduced the reader to the concepts of psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy, and learning self-efficacy. The following two chapters serve to acquaint the reader with the research goals for this study and the methods that will be used. Chapter Four will introduce the research goals and present more detailed discussion on why it is envisaged that there may be possible mediating and moderating effects. Chapter Five will explain the methods and procedures used to collect data for the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Goals

The preceding three chapters have prepared the reader with an understanding of the theoretical and empirical research that forms the background to this study. Chapter One introduced the reader to organizational and occupational commitment research and how it will be used in this study. Chapter Two introduced the construct of training, its strategic and pragmatic role in organizations and the potential impact on employees. Chapter Three examined the psychological constructs included in this study, those of psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy, and learning self-efficacy. Having made these introductions, it is now feasible to introduce the research goals of the current study and how the predictions may be supported.

The first aim of this research is to investigate the relationship between training and commitment; that is, commitment by the individual to the organization and/or to their occupation. This aspect of the study is a partial replication of Hill and Elias (1990) who found that managers who were willing to take opportunities offered by their employer for ongoing training reported higher levels of learning self-efficacy. As an outcome of their study, Hill and Elias found that those managers who were willing to participate in training programmes offered by their employers, demonstrated increased commitment to the organization the worked for and to their current jobs as managers. Whereas Hill and Elias used all management subjects drawn from financial organizations. This study proposes to draw its sample from across the spectrum of the organization to include management and non-management respondents from local government and public sector organization.

The major issue in commitment research has been towards understanding employee retention (e.g. Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993). A major issue for organizations who undertake training is the financial investment they are making in their employees and

a reluctance to undertake this investment when continued employment is not envisaged. There is room to explore commitment in a context other than whether the individual staff members wish to remain with the organization or intend to leave when the opportunity presents itself. Goldstein (1991) suggests that there is a lack of understanding of the impact of workplace training on the individual employees involved. This research wishes to attempt to add to that understanding, hence the following research goal has been generated.

Research Goal Number 1.

Those employees who report willingness to undergo training will report higher levels of commitment to their employing organization and to their occupation.

Research Goal Number 2.

That this training-commitment relationship may be mediated or moderated by psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy or learning self-efficacy.

The purpose of including psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy and learning self-efficacy in this research is an attempt to gain more understanding of possible mediating and or moderating effects on the training-commitment relationship, bearing in mind the investment, both personal and organizational, that is involved with training in organizations today.

Being mindful of Holmbeck (1997) and Baron and Kenny (1986) where they state that social scientists tend to use mediator/moderator terms interchangeably, this research project will examine the two effects as separate entities. The moderator, Baron and Kenny suggest, functions as a variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relationship between the independent (or predictor) variable and the dependent (or criterion) variable. Moderators always function as independent variables, whereas mediators change roles from effects to causes, depending on the

focus of the analysis.

Judge (1993) suggest that the inclusion of a measurement of psychological well-being may enable the researcher to improve the prediction of affective disposition on situational variables such as tenure and work behaviour. He suggests that the moderating effect of psychological disposition be supported by the earlier research of Weitz (1952) and Mobley (1977). Judge also links affect to commitment by citing research undertaken by Staw and Ross (1985). Cropanzano, James and Konovsky (1993) suggest that affective organizational commitment is related to positive affect, and that commitment mediates the relationship between psychological well-being and the individual's turnover intentions. Mobley discusses a weak but consistent relationship with intentions to turnover, which can possibly be connected to organizational continuance commitment, also suggesting a possible mediating effect when citing Porter and Steers, 1973, who discuss the psychology of the withdrawal process, as in the context of intention to leave the organization.

Weitz (1952), and Duffy, Ganster and Shaw (1998) explored the interaction effect of positive affect and intentions to change jobs, when they investigated the role of job satisfaction. The majority of the research cited above include age, gender, and job tenure as variables that are held constant in the regression analyses. It is intended that these, along with organizational tenure, gross income and whether or not the respondents manage staff be included in the equations.

Bandura (1997) discusses the role of self-efficacy within the organization and with regard to training. Most of the research Bandura reported was undertaken by computer simulation. Gist (1987) and others suggest that this simulation technique has limitations in application to the workplace. This researcher wishes to re-examine the construct of self-efficacy without the use of simulation, but in a context described by Schwarzer (1993). Schwarzer suggests that when individuals understand that they

are able to take action to solve a problem, they become more likely achieve their goal so and become more committed to this decision. Schaubroeck and Merritt (1997) suggest that self-efficacy may operate as a moderating variable, interacting in relationships of perceived control and demand. Jex and Gudanowski (1992) also investigated the moderating and mediating role of self-efficacy. As a moderator variable, they suggest that self-efficacy interacts with the attributes of the individual to produce stress reactions. As a mediator variable, they suggest, reduced self-efficacy beliefs may in turn lead to job related strains.

Martocchio and Judge (1997) discuss the mediating influence of self-efficacy on training and conscientiousness, suggesting self-efficacy was positively related to learning. They also suggest that the disposition of the individual also plays a role within this relationship. Their study involves a computer simulation with individuals who volunteered to undergo the training session they offered. This, they suggested, might have biased the results in a positive direction because of the possible self-discipline and organizational commitment demonstrated by these individuals.

From the research of Hill and Elias (1990), there is a suggestion of a possible relationship between organizational commitment and the more selectively defined construct of learning self-efficacy. Hill and Elias report a mediating effect between learning self-efficacy and willingness to undergo training among their management respondents, when considering ongoing commitment to their organization. They suggest that the role of self-efficacy in learning situations is underestimated by organizations when planning training programmes and evaluating the results of such programmes.

Bandura (1986 and 1997) also discusses the role of perceived self-efficacy and the mastery of occupational roles on developing adaptability and innovativeness. Bandura states that when aspirations are low, commitment to the task, and

consequently the organization is correspondingly reduced. Mager (1992) suggests that when self-efficacy is low, individuals will not put themselves into situations where they think they will fail. Mager suggests that in these individuals, despite being trained in the skills they need to do a job, without the belief that the skills will enable them to do the job, it is unlikely that they will apply the new skills as they were trained to do. Mager suggests that low self-efficacy leads to non-performance, which leads to lower commitment to the task, the job, and the organization. Goldstein and Gilliam (1990) who add the support of the organization and the age of the trainee into the equation supported this view.

Tannenbaum and Yukl (1992) describe self-efficacy as an independent variable, a process variable or as a desired outcome in training. Noe (1986) discusses the influence of self-efficacy with regard to the individual's motivation to learn. Both of these viewpoints are of interest as outcomes for this study.

Locke, et al. (1984) submitted that, when using self-efficacy ratings as a predictor of future performance, it was best assessed for moderate to difficult levels of performance. Bandura (1986) suggests that the most effective level of efficacy is that which slightly exceeds the individuals own ability and that successful performance is dependent on the acquisition of the required skills as well as the individual holding robust efficacy beliefs. The training programmes offered by the organizations in this study are aimed at skill and knowledge development for their employees.

Research Goal Number 3.

That there will be no difference reported between management and non-management samples for levels of organizational affective, continuance or normative commitment. Nor will there be a difference reported between management and non-management samples for levels of occupational affective, continuance or normative commitment.

It is planned to extend the Hill and Elias (1990) study to include both a management and non-management sample. Cohen (1992) and Loscocco (1990) prompted the inclusion in this study of a non-management sample. In separate studies, Cohen and Loscocco suggest that non-management and blue-collar employees are no longer as extensively motivated by extrinsic factors such as pay and working conditions. There is evidence to suggest that the availability of training programmes for this level of employees increases organizational commitment and occupational commitment in a similar way to that recorded for managers. These findings, if supported, have the potential to reverse previously held stereotypes.

Having established the research goals for this study, the following chapter will detail the methodology use. Chapter 6 will discuss the results, and Chapter 7 will discuss the degree of support the results give to the stated research goals and the literature reviewed, together with the implications and limitations of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

Method

Respondents

The respondents consisted of 196 women and men drawn from the three New Zealand organizations that agreed to participate in this study (102 males and 92 females, 2 unspecified). From initial approaches to thirty-two organizations, three agreed to participate in the study, two of these organizations are local government organizations, and the third operates in the private sector, all in large New Zealand cities. The respondents range in age from 18 years to 64 years. Thirty-three percent of respondents state their relationship status as single, 44.4 percent as married, 20.4 percent as currently partnered, and 1.0 percent as separate.

The ethnicity of respondents was determined from replies to a series of questions using categories from the Statistics New Zealand (1998). All respondents answered the questions. Three quarters of respondents report New Zealand European origin, one tenth reporting New Zealand Māori decent and the balance reporting New Zealand Asian, Pacific Islander, English, Irish, or other ethnic backgrounds.

With regard to the respondent's relationship with their employing organization, one hundred and eighty eight (95.9 percent) staff members work full time. Thirty three respondents report their occupation as manager, forty nine as executives who do not manage staff, twenty team leaders, twenty seven administrators, and sixty six staff members. One respondent did not state an occupation. One third of respondents report that they manage staff. Organizational tenure ranges from 0.10 years to 25 years with the same organization. Half the respondents have worked for the organization for a period of three years or less. The period of employment in their present job ranges from 0.10 of a year to 19 years. Half the respondents have held

their present job for a period of two years or less. The gross annual salary of respondents ranges from $19,200 to $150,000, with a mean of $45,852.54, this is above average when compared with Statistics New Zealand report of the average gross income for local government workers to be $35, 470.24

Respondents were asked a series of questions with regard to caring for dependent family members. Forty percent reported that they currently care for dependent family members. Of those who care for dependent family, 88.6 percent have the family members residing with them, 50 percent of these family members are children, and 28 percent report these resident family members as a combination of children and partners. 6.6 percent are a combination of children and parents, 3.9 percent report the dependent family members as partners, 1.3 percent as parents, 10.2 percent of respondents report caring for others. Mean and Standard Deviations are reported in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Means and Standard Deviations for Demographic Information

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age	39.08	11.35
Gender	1.47	.50
Relationship Status	1.89	.76
Ethnic Origin	1.75	1.60
Organizational Tenure	4.77	4.51
Job Tenure	2.92	3.01
Full or Part Time	1.04	.20
Manage Staff	1.66	.47
Gross Income	45852.54	17566.64
Dependent Family	1.60	.49
Resident Dependent Family	1.11	.39

Coding: Age – in years; Gender – 1 = male, 2 = female; Relationship status - 1 = single, 2 = married, 3 = currently partnered, 4 = separated, 5 = other; Ethnic Origin – 1 = NZ European, 2 = NZ Māori, 3 = NZ Asian, 4 = Pacific Island, 5 = Irish, 6 = English, 7 = other; Organizational tenure – in years or part thereof; Job tenure – in years or part thereof; Full time = 1; Part time = 2; Manage staff – 1 = yes, 2 = no; Gross income – annual gross income in $; Dependent family – 1 = children, 2 = parents, 3 = partner, 4 = others, 5 = children and partner, 6 = children and parents, 7 = partner and parents, 8 = children, partner and parents, 9 = parents and others; Resident dependent family – 1 = yes, 2 = no.

Respondents reported through a series of self-report questions that 32 have 3 years

secondary schooling as their highest level of education, 32 have 4 years secondary schooling, 43 report having attended a polytechnic and receiving a certificate or diploma. 63 respondents hold an undergraduate university degree and 25 respondents hold a post graduate degree, 1 respondent chose not to give their educational qualification. Other formal qualifications were held by one third of the respondents.

One third of respondents are currently studying for new qualifications. The reasons for this study range from personal interest 10.5 percent, job requirement 2.6 percent, 44.7 percent to further career prospects, 39.6 percent report a combination of these

Table 5.2:. Means and Standard Deviations for Training and Education

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
Required to Train	1.54	.56
Training Days	6.61	4.37
Highest Education Level	3.09	1.29
Other Formal Qualifications	4.77	1.57
New Qualifications	1.81	.40
Purpose of New Qualifications	4.26	2.15
Future Intentions to Study	1.47	.50
Time Frame of Future Study	1.45	.59
Studying Full or Part Time	1.07	.25
Purpose of Study	4.34	2.22
Willingness to undergo training	1.20	.86

Coding: Required to train – 1= yes, 2 = no, 3 = don't know; Training days – average number of days training attended per year; Highest education level – 1 = 3 years secondary schooling, 2 = 4 years or more secondary schooling, 3 = completed diploma/certificate; 4 = undergraduate degree; 5 = post graduate degree; Other formal qualifications – 1 = trade certificate, 2 = ACA, 3 = NZIM, 4 = NZCE, 5 = No, 6 = Polytechnic. certificate, 7 = University certificate, 8 = other, 9 = Professional organization qualifications; New Qualifications- Currently pursuing new qualifications –1 = yes, 2 = no; Purpose of new qualifications – 1 = personal interest, 2 = job requirement, 3 = further career, 4 = other; Future intentions to study – 1 = yes, 2 = no; Studying full or part time – 1 = part time, 2 = full time; Purpose of study – 1 = personal interest, 2 = job requirement, 3 = further career, 4 = other, 5 = job requirement and further career, 6 = personal interest and job requirement, 7 = personal interest and further career.

factors and 2.6 percent are studying to formalise skills. Over half of all respondents report that they have intentions to study in the future. Half suggesting they will do so within the next 1 to 2 years, one third in the next 3 to 5 years, and the balance after 5 years or more. Over ninety percent of these respondents indicate that they will study

on a part-time basis whilst still working. Their reasons for studying include: personal interest, a job requirement, furthering their career, or a combination of personal interest, job requirement and furthering career prospects. Mean and Standard Deviations are reported in Table 5.2.

A series of questions were included in the survey with regard to how they acquired the skills and knowledge necessary to undertake their present job. Two thirds of respondents stated that they brought the necessary skills with them to the job. Two thirds stated that they received 'on the job' training. One third stated that they attended training programmes that were out-sourced by the organization, and the same number stated that they had attended training programmes provided in-house by the organization. Twenty learnt the skills necessary to do their job by watching others after they had commenced employment. Four respondents stated that they had acquired the necessary skills from other sources. Mean and Standard Deviations are reported in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Summary of Means and Standard Deviations for Acquiring Skills and Knowledge for Respondent's Current Job

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
Watching Others	1.79	.41
On the job training	1.33	.47
In house training programme	1.72	.45
Out Sourced training programme	1.70	.46
Brought Skills to the job	1.34	.48
Other methods of skill acquisition	1.89	.14

Coding – 1 = yes, 0 = no.

Of the 195 respondents who answered the question, 96 respondents are required as part of their job, to attend some form of training during the year. This training period varies in length from 1 to 21 days per year.

Measures

The full survey questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix 1.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment was measured using the scale developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993). This is designed to measure three components of organizational and occupational commitment, affective, continuance and normative commitment. Feij (1998) submits that there is evidence to suggest that the Meyer et al. Scale has the potential to best measure the concept of organizational commitment especially in organizations with a service orientation. The sample population chosen for this study, employed in local government and public sector organizations, all operate in a service environment.

The organizational commitment scale consists of 18 items, 6 measuring affective commitment, 6 measuring continuance commitment and 6 measuring the normative component. Respondents were asked to respond to statements representing their possible feelings about the organization they were currently working for by indicating their choice on a Likert-type scale from 1 to 5. 1 indicating strong disagreement with the statement, through to 5 indicating strong agreement, the mid-point being 3 indicating neither agreement nor disagreement with the statement. The scale includes items such as 'I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization' (an affective component statement). 'If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere' (a continuance component statement). 'I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer' (a normative statement that is reverse scored). Some of the statements as indicated by Meyer, et al. were reverse scored. Within this study, organization names were used to personalise items where appropriate. The scores for each element, affective, continuance and normative commitment are recorded separately. Higher

scores indicate higher commitment.

Meyer, et al. (1993), present validity and reliability data for their measure. Measures of internal consistency have produced alpha coefficients for each element of .82, .74, .83, being affective, continuance and normative respectively (Meyer, et al.,). Jaros (1997) reports slightly lower alpha coefficients equal to .69 or above for all the commitment elements. McGee and Ford (1987) in their re-examination of the three commitment scales support the Meyer and Allen (1984) reliability estimates. For the current study alpha coefficients for each component were organizational affective commitment .71, organizational continuance commitment, .77, organizational normative commitment, .79.

The organizational commitment questions taken from Meyer, et al. (1993) are reproduced in Appendix 1, on the pages that ask respondents how they feel about the organization they work for. The questions are numbered 1 to 18.

Occupational Commitment

Occupational commitment was measured using the Meyer, et al. (1993) scale measuring organizational and occupational commitment..Feij (1998) suggests that the Meyer, et al. Scale gives a more comprehensive view of the occupational commitment beyond issues of turnover intentions.

This measure is also divided into three elements, affective, continuance and normative commitment. The scale contains 18 items, 6 measuring affective commitment, 6 measuring continuance commitment and 6 measuring the normative component. Respondents were asked to respond to statements representing their possible feelings about the job they were currently working in by indicating their choice on a Likert-type scale from 1 to 5. 1 indicating strong disagreement with the statement, through to 5 indicating strong agreement, the mid-point being 3 indicating neither agreement

nor disagreement with the statement. The scale includes items such as 'My job is important to my self-image' (an affective statement); 'I have put too much into my job to consider changing now' (a continuance statement); 'I am in my present job because of a sense of loyalty to it' (a normative statement). Some of the statements as indicated by Meyer, et al. were reverse scored. Each element, affective, continuance and normative commitment are scored separately. Higher scores indicate higher commitment. Some of the items in this part of the scale were reworded to be for this project, to be less specific to the nursing sample used by Meyer, et al. when developing the scale. An example of the reworded statement is changing '*Nursing* is important to my self-image' to '*My job* is important to my self-image'. However, when negotiated with the organizations circulating the questionnaire, their organization name was used to personalise items where appropriate.

Meyer, et al. (1993) reports alpha coefficients of .82 for affective commitment, .74 for continuance commitment, and .83 for normative commitment. Jaros (1997) reports slightly lower alpha coefficients equal to .69 or above for all the commitment elements. For this present study alpha coefficients for each for each component were occupational affective commitment .79, occupational continuance commitment, .83, occupational normative commitment, .75.

Morrow (1983) and Cohen (1995) suggest that all forms of work commitment would profit from more empirical examination with commitment as the dependent variable. It is the intention of this research to do this. Aranya and Jacobson (1975) and again later, Ferris and Aranya (1983) suggest that there is value in investigating organizational and occupational commitment concurrently. Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986) suggest that occupational commitment is strongly influenced by organizational commitment. They suggest that one of the main reasons for this relationship is the support the organization offers the employee. This support can come in the form of training and opportunities for development. Reilly and Orsak

(1991) suggest that there is a dual commitment to both occupational and organizational commitment in certain circumstances.

The occupational commitment questions taken from Meyer, et al. (1993) are reproduced in Appendix 1, on the pages that ask respondents how they feel about the work they work do. The questions are numbered 1 to 18.

Perceived self-efficacy

Perceived self-efficacy was measured using the scale developed by Schwarzer (1993). The scale consists of 10 items designed to evaluate the individual's feelings toward problem solving instrumentality and includes items such as 'I always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough' and 'It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals'. Respondents record their response by circling their choice on a Likert-type scale rated from 1 to 4, 1 being not true at all to 4 exactly true. Item scores were totalled and divided by the number of items that were answered, thereby rendering a score between 1 and 4, the higher scores indicating higher perceived self-efficacy. Schwarzer reports extensive psychometric, validity and norm data, reporting coefficient alpha levels of between .74 and .93. For this present study, measures of internal consistency produced alpha coefficients of .81.

The perceived self-efficacy questions taken from Schwarzer (1993) are reproduced in Appendix 1, on the pages that ask respondents how they feel about problem solving. The questions are numbered 1 to 10.

Learning self-efficacy

Respondents feelings towards undertaking work related training was measured using a scale developed by Hill and Elias (1990). The scale contains 5 items, such as 'How do you rate your ability to learn new work-related knowledge and skills?' and 'Please indicate how your ability to learn has changed in your years with your organization'.

Respondents indicate on a Likert-type scale from 1 to 5, 1 being a lowest score and 5 the highest for each item. Hill and Elias suggest that the domain specific questions enable the researcher to use this score to evaluate possible interaction effects among other variables. The items have been reworded slightly to New Zealand common English usage rather than American usage to enhance the face validity of the scale. Hill and Elias interviewed their subjects, recording their responses 1 to 5 on a Likert-type scale. The questionnaire for this research project used a self-report version of the Hill and Elias questions. Hill and Elias report coefficient alpha levels of .56. For this present study, measures of internal consistency produced alpha coefficients of .70.

The learning self-efficacy questions taken from Hill and Elias (1990) are reproduced in Appendix 1, on the pages that ask respondents how they feel when they know they have to attend work related training. The questions are numbered 1 to 5.

Psychological Well-being

Psychological well-being was measured using 10 items chosen from a possible 20 that make up the Affectometer 2 (Kammann and Flett, 1983). 5 positive and 5 negative items were chosen. An example of a positive item being 'My life is on the right track.' An example of a negative item being 'I wish I could change some part of my life.' The Affectometer 2 asks respondents how often they have had that feeling over the past few weeks, and to indicate this on as scale of 1 to 5, 1 being 'not at all,' 2 being 'occasionally,' 3 -being 'some of the time,' 4 being 'often,' and 5 being 'all the time.' Kammann and Flett suggest that the score reflects both the short and long term elements of well-being. Kammann and Flett report an alpha coefficient of .95 and also report reliability and validity data. Prior to scoring, items were re-coded 0 to 4 as per Kammann and Flett. For scoring, the positive items, 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9 are added together to form a positive affect score. The negative items 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 are added together to form a negative affect score. A net psychological well-being score is then obtained by subtracting the negative affect score from the positive affect score.

Kammann and Flett report alpha coefficients for reliability for the ten sentence short version as .78. For the current study the alpha coefficient was .82.

The psychological well-being questions taken from Kammann and Flett (1983) are reproduced in Appendix 1, on the pages that ask respondents about their feelings of well-being. The questions are numbered 1 to 10.

Age

Respondents were asked to give the year of their birth. This was used to calculate their chronological age in years.

Gender

Sex was coded 1 for males and 2 for females.

Relationship status

Respondents were asked to indicate their relationship status by choosing their own definition. Examples given were single, married, currently partnered, etc.

Ethnic origin

Respondents were asked to record their ethnic origin based on categories used by Statistics New Zealand (1998). These categories included New Zealander of European decent, New Zealander of Māori decent, New Zealander of Asian decent, Pacific Island groups, or to specify other.

Current position

Respondents were asked to record the position currently held. Examples given were accountant, sales, administrator, clerk, shift worker, etc. Depending on the responses

given, respondents were divided into seven groups. The coding used was 1 for managers, 2 for executives who did not have a management role, 3 for team leaders or supervisors, 4 for administrators, 5 for general staff members, 6 for sales personnel, and 7 for others.

Tenure

Respondents were asked two questions with regard to tenure, firstly how long they had worked for their current employer and secondly how long they had held their current position within the organization. The replies were coded in years or part thereof.

Management status

Respondents were asked to answer yes or no to the question as to whether or not they supervised other staff. This question was then used to divide respondents in two groups, either 1 for those who manage staff or 2 for the others.

Gross income

Respondents were asked to declare their gross annual from their current position as one figure, either a weekly amount, monthly or annually. This information was then calculated to an annual gross income figure.

Dependent family

Respondents were asked three questions with regard to caring for dependent family members. Firstly, did the respondent care for dependent family members, secondly, whether or not the dependent family resided with the respondent, and thirdly, if the

family members were children, parents, partner, or others.

Training and education

Respondents were asked a series of questions designed to ascertain their current education status, how they acquired the skills they use for their present job, what training was provided by their employer, and whether they were currently undertaking education or training, and if so for what purpose (such as personal interest, job requirement, or to further career). Respondents were also asked about their own plans with regard to future education or training possibilities in terms of purpose, timing and whether the respondent intended to undertake this study part time whilst still working or to study full time.

Willingness to undergo training

A composite variable was created to measure willingness to undergo training. This variable contained the scores from three questions in the education section of the questionnaire. Participants were asked if they were currently required to train as part of their job; if they were currently pursuing or completing formal education or training; and if they had any intentions of pursuing any other formal qualifications, education or training in the future. Respondents who answered yes to any of these three questions were included in the new composite variable.

Procedure

The research was a survey design and used a self-report questionnaire to collect the data. Human Resource Managers from the organizations that participated were initially approached by a letter from the researcher inviting participation. The resulting discussions defined what would be required of the organization with regard to selection of participants, and whether it would be necessary to personalise some of the questions in the questionnaire. The circulation and collection of questionnaires

and what could be expected of the researcher in the form of feedback, in return for their organization's involvement were also discussed.

Each organization appointed a liaison person with whom the researcher worked on a day to day basis. The subjects were approached by mail and were provided with an information sheet that detailed what the study was about, and who was undertaking it. Included was an explanation of what was expected from the respondent, what their rights were if they chose to participate and what they could expect in return from the researcher. Issues of confidentiality were outlined, and a contact address for the researcher and her supervisor were given. Each survey was packaged to contain a copy of the survey document as displayed in Appendix 1, and a confidential reply envelope.

The package was personally addressed to each individual inviting participation from lists generated by the organization's pay roll department, and posted via the organization's internal mailing system. The reply envelope was addressed to the researcher care of the liaison person who held the unopened returned packages for bulk return to the researcher. These were returned to the researcher by courier for opening and data entry. The return period varied from a few days to six weeks. The requests for information about the study were removed when the packages were opened by the researcher and filed separately so as to preserve the confidentiality of the respondents. Data from each organization was entered as a consecutive block. In total 196 completed questionnaires were returned representing an overall response rate of 45.58 percent.

CHAPTER SIX

Results

Mean Scores and Correlations Between Variables

For the total sample (N = 196) the means, standard deviations and reliability coefficients of the research variables are presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1. Means, Standard Deviations and Reliability Coefficients of Research Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	Alpha coefficient
Learning self-efficacy	19.08	3.14	.79
Perceived self-efficacy	32.46	3.53	.81
Psychological well-being	.31	1.15	.82
Occupational affect com.	21.99	4.30	.79
Occupational continuance com.	15.70	4.26	.82
Occupational normative com.	15.15	3.94	.75
Organizational affect com.	16.92	3.78	.71
Organizational continuance com.	13.35	3.60	.77
Organizational normative com.	10.13	2.97	.79

Hill and Elias (1990) do not report the mean and standard deviation scores for their learning self-efficacy measure. They report an alpha coefficient of .56, for this study the alpha coefficient was .79. For perceived self-efficacy, Schwarzer (1993) reports a mean of 27.0 and standard deviation of 4.7. For this study the alpha coefficient was .81. Schwarzer reports alpha coefficients of between .74 and .94. Kammann and Flett (1983) report mean of 1.57 and standard deviation score of 1.20 for the Affectometer 2 measure of psychological well-being. The difference between the mean reported by Kammann and Flett could be a function of the use of the 10 item short form versus the full scale of 40 items. For the organizational commitment scale, Meyer, et al. (1993) report means of 3.91, 4.03, 3.04 for affective, continuous and normative commitment,

and standard deviation scores of 1.47, 1.39, 1.41 respectively. For the occupational commitment scale, they report means of 5.38, 4.73, 3.07, and standard deviation scores of 1.47, 1.39, 1.41 respectively. The difference in mean and standard deviation scores between those reported by Meyer, et al. and this study could be a function of the 5 point Likert scale used in this study compared to the 7 point scale used by Meyer, et al, or it may be a function of the sample.

Organizational Affective Commitment

An inspection of the correlation coefficients in Table 6.2 reveals that there was some significant correlation between the various commitment scores. Organizational affective commitment was positively correlated with organizational normative commitment ($r = .45$, $p = < .01$), occupational normative commitment ($r = .34$, $p = < .01$), occupational affective commitment ($r = .30$, $p = < .01$), and occupational continuance commitment ($r = 13$, $p = < .05$). These correlations were similar to those reported by Meyer, et al. (1993). Organizational affective commitment positively correlated with learning self-efficacy ($r = .14$, $p = < .05$) and age ($r = .16$, $p = < .05$), and negatively correlated with manage staff ($r = -.13$, $p = < .05$). Although the size of these effects were small the direction of the effects was such that respondents reporting positive feelings about their employing organization tended to: report higher levels of self-efficacy in a learning situation; be older and more likely to be involved with managing staff.

Organizational Continuance Commitment

Organizational continuance commitment and occupational continuance commitment were positively correlated ($r = .70$, $p = < .0$) suggesting that for those for whom it

Table 6.2: Inter-Correlations of the research Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	-.-															
2	-.05	-.-														
3	-.27**	.17**	-.-													
4	.09	.39**	-.15*	-.-												
5	-.45**	-.26**	.08	-.13*	-.-											
6	-.15*	.52**	-.12*	.37**	-.06	-.-										
7	.13*	-.09	.07	-.17**	-.10	-.16*	-.-									
8	.04	.04	.07	.03	-.11	-.05	.16*	-.-								
9	.06	.05	-.02	.14*	-.25**	.14*	.04	.24**	-.-							
10	-.12	.02	.10	.04	.02	.07	.06	.04	.14*	-.-						
11	-.15*	.07	-.10	.12*	-.20**	-.01	.09	.26**	.17**	-.56**	-.-					
12	-.20**	.32**	-.06	.31**	.01	.34**	-.07	.02	.00	.13	-.04	-.-				
13	-.09	.06	-.00	-.00	-.05	.13*	.02	.17**	-.08	.15*	.04	.24**	-.-			
14	.03	.07	-.06	.14*	-.14*	.08	.09	.18**	.08	-.01	.31**	.18**	.37**	-.-		
15	-.23**	.31**	-.00	.32**	.03	.34**	-.05	.06	-.04	.03	-.04	.70**	.25**	.09	-.-	
16	-.05	.03	-.02	.05	-.05	.05	.07	.14*	-.13*	.13*	.06	.23**	.69**	.51**	.23**	-.-

$**p < .01$ $*p < .05$

Variable labels:- 1 – Gross income, 2 – organizational tenure, 3 – gender, 4 – age, 5 – manage staff, 6 – job tenure, 7 – willingness to undergo training, 8 – learning self-efficacy, 9 – perceived self-efficacy, 10 – psychological well-being, 11 – occupational affective commitment, 12 – occupational continuance commitment, 13 – occupational normative commitment, 14 – organizational affective commitment, 15 – organizational continuance commitment, 16 – organizational normative commitment.

would be costly to leave their current employers, it would also costly to leave their current occupation. Organizational continuance commitment was positively correlated with organizational normative commitment ($r = .51$, $p = < .01$) and with occupational normative commitment ($r = .25$, $p = < .01$). These correlations were similar to those reported by Meyer, et al. (1993). Among the demographic variables, organizational continuance commitment was positively correlated with job tenure ($r = .34$, $p = < .01$), organizational tenure, ($r = .31$, $p = < .01$), age ($r = .30$, $p = < .01$), and negatively correlates with gross income ($r = -.23$, $p = < .01$). These moderate effects suggest that the respondents who have been in their jobs (and with the organization) are more likely to feel that they have too much to lose if they were to leave the organization voluntarily. The moderate effect also suggests that older employees are more likely to hold the same view with regard to staying with the organization. The correlation suggested that the less the employee earned the higher the reported level of organizational continuance commitment was likely to be.

Organizational Normative Commitment

Organizational normative commitment was positively correlated with occupational normative commitment ($r = .69$, $p = < .01$), and with occupational continuance commitment ($r = .20$, $p = < .01$). Meyer, et al. (1993) report correlations of a similar magnitude and direction. Leaning self-efficacy ($r = .14$, $p = < .05$), perceived self-efficacy ($r = .13$, $p = < .05$), and psychological well-being ($r = .13$, $p = < .05$) were positively correlated with organizational normative commitment. Although the size of these effects was small the direction indicates that respondents reporting positive feelings of self-efficacy in learning and personal situations are more likely to an obligation to remain with the organization. The effects also indicate that those respondents who report that they felt happier also felt a responsibility to remain with the organization.

Occupational Affective Commitment

Occupational affective commitment was positively correlated with leaning self-efficacy ($r = .26$, $p = < .01$), perceived self-efficacy ($r = .17$, $p = < .01$), age ($r = .12$, $p = < .05$), and negatively correlated with psychological well-being ($r = -.56$, $p = < .01$), with manage staff ($r = -.20$, $p = < .01$), and with gross income ($r = -.15$, $p = < .05$). Although the magnitude of these effects were modest the direction indicates that respondents reporting feelings enthusiasm for their present occupation tended to report higher levels of efficacy in learning and personal situations, be older, be more likely to manage staff. They also tended to earn lower salaries and reported lower feelings of general happiness.

Occupational Continuance Commitment

Occupational continuance commitment and occupational normative commitment were positively correlated ($r = .23$, $p = < .01$). Meyer, et al. (1993) report a positive correlation between theses two variables of ($r = .22$, $p < .05$). Occupational continuance commitment was positively correlated with job tenure ($r = .30$, $p = < .01$), with organizational tenure ($r = .29$, $p = < .01$) and with age ($r = .25$, $p = < .01$), and negatively correlated with gross income ($r = -.21$, $p = < .01$). The direction of these effects and the moderate size of the effects was such that respondents reporting that they had worked for their current employer for longer periods, had held their present job for longer, were more likely to report that they would find it disruptive to change jobs. These respondents were likely to be older, and earn lower salaries.

Occupational Normative Commitment

Occupational normative commitment was positively correlated with learning self-efficacy ($r = .16$, $p = < .05$), with psychological well-being ($r = .15$, $p = < .05$), and with job tenure ($r = .13$, $p = < .05$). The size of these effects were small, but the direction of these effects was such that respondents reporting a sense of responsibility to stay in their present job tended to: report higher levels of self-efficacy in learning

situations; feeling happier; and had held their current job for longer.

Willingness to Undergo Training

Willingness to undergo training was positively correlated with learning self-efficacy ($r = .18$, $p = < .01$), and with gross income ($r = .14$, $p = < .05$), and negatively correlated with job tenure ($r = -.15$, $p = < .05$), and with age ($r = -.16$, $p = < .05$). Although the size of these effects was small the direction these effects suggests that respondents who were willing to undergo training offered by their organization were more likely to report positive feelings of efficacy in learning situations. These respondents were also likely to be earning higher incomes; be younger; and more likely to have been in their current job for a shorter period.

Perceived Self-efficacy

Perceived self-efficacy was positively correlated to learning self-efficacy ($r = .25$, $p = < .01$), with job tenure ($r = .16$, $p = < .05$), and with age ($r = .15$, $p = < .05$), and negatively correlated with manage staff ($r = -.26$, $p = < .01$). The modest size of these effects coupled with the direction of these effects was such that respondents reporting positive feelings of personal efficacy were more likely to also report positive feelings of efficacy in learning situations; be older and more likely to be involved in managing staff.

Learning Self-efficacy

Learning self-efficacy was negatively correlated with manage staff ($r = -.12$, $p = < .05$). The modest size of this effect suggests that respondents reporting positive feelings about self-efficacy in learning situations are more likely to be involved with managing staff.

Psychological Well-being

Psychological well-being was positively correlated with perceived self-efficacy ($r = $

.13, $p = < .05$), and with gross income ($r = -.12, p = < .05$). Although the size of these effects were modest the direction of these effects was such that respondents reporting positive feelings about their personal capabilities also tended to report higher levels of personal abilities to solve problems; and that these decisions were not based on their present salary.

Demographic Variables

Amongst the demographic variables, organizational tenure was positively correlated with job tenure ($r = .52, p = < .01$), with age ($r = .39, p = < .01$), and was negatively correlated with manage staff ($r = -.26, p = < .01$), and with gender ($r = -.17, p = < .01$). The size of these effects and the strength of these effects was such that those who had been with their current employer the longest had held their current job for longer, were male, and were more likely to be involved with managing staff.

Gender was negatively correlated with gross income ($r = -.27, p = < .01$), and with age ($r = -.14, p = < .05$). Manage staff was negatively correlated to gross income ($r = -.45, p = < .01$), and age ($r = -.14, p = < .05$), and job tenure ($r = -.12, p = < .05$). The modest size of these effects and the direction of these effects were such that men are likely to earn more, and be older employees. The effects and direction also suggest that those who manage staff earned higher salaries, were older and had held their jobs for longer.

Job tenure was positively correlated to age ($r = .37, p = < .01$), and negatively correlated with gross income ($r = -.15, p = < .05$). The size modest size of these effects and the direction of the effects was such that respondents who reported having been in their current job for longer periods were older, and earned lower salaries.

Training-commitment relationship

Prior to statistical analysis (SPSS/PC), the variables were screened for assumptions of

statistical analysis. Following the suggestion of Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) that conventional but conservative alpha levels (e.g. $p < .001$) be used to evaluate the significance of skewness and kurtosis, no univariate outliers were found. Three cases with high Z scores were identified to be multivariate outliers through Mahalanobis' distance with $p < .001$. These three cases were deleted from the subsequent analysis

The results of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses, using the six occupational and organizational commitment scores as the DV are presented in Tables 6.3 to 6.8 (for learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, and psychological well-being). Each table displays the standardised regression coefficients (beta), R, R^2, adjusted R^2, and change in R^2. The difference between R^2 and adjusted R^2 reflects "...adjustment made for expected inflation in sample R" (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989, p. 160) as a function of sample size, number of independent variables, and the value of R^2.

To test for a possible moderating effect of psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy, and learning self-efficacy, on the willingness to undergo training-commitment relationship, procedures outlined by Cohen and Cohen (1983) were used to calculated deviation scores and cross product vectors. Three vectors were formed by calculating the cross-product term of the deviation scores for psychological well-being x willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training, and learning self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training. In this way the variance accounted for by the interaction terms were assessed after controlling for the main effects entered at Step 1 and Step 2. Baron and Kenny (1986) state that when both the moderator and the independent variables are continuous (as with the variables in this study), the measure of the effect of the independent variable is a regression coefficient.

Table 6.3: Hierarchical multiple regression of demographic, learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy and psychological well-being on organizational affective commitment, showing standardised regression coefficients, R, R², adjusted R², and change in R² of all respondents (N=175)

Predictor	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Gross Income	-.08	-.08	-.09
Organizational tenure	-.07	-.08	-.08
Gender	-.07	-.09	-.08
Age	.13	.13	.12
Manage staff	-.19*	-.16	-.16
Job tenure	.05	.07	.08
Leaning self-efficacy		.15	.14
Willingness to undergo training		.06	.04
Perceived self-efficacy		-.02	-.01
Psychological well-being		-.01	-.01
Perse x willing to train			-.11
PWB x willing to train			.01
Learnse x willing to train			-.04
R	.22	.28	.30
R²	.05	.08	.09
Adjusted R²	.02	.02	.02
R² change	.05	.03	.02

$*p < .05$, $**p < .01$.
PWB = psychological well-being; perse = perceived self-efficacy; learnse = learning self-efficacy; Willing to train = willingness to undergo training.

For Table 6.3, considering organizational affective commitment as DV – after step 1, the R for regression was not significantly different from zero, $F(6, 169) = 1.45$, $p > .05$. Managing staff contributed significantly to the prediction of organizational affective commitment and 5% (2% adjusted) of the variability of organizational affective commitment was predicted by knowing the scores on these demographic variables. However, at a bivariate level, organizational affective commitment was positively correlated with age, and negatively correlated with manage staff. With the addition of learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, and psychological well-being to the equation, $R² = .08$, $F(10, 165) = 1.38$, $p > .05$. Neither learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, nor psychological well-being contributed significantly to the prediction of

organizational affective commitment and together 8% (2% adjusted) of the variability of organizational affective commitment was predicted by knowing the scores of learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training and perceived self-efficacy. The addition of these four variables resulted in a non significant change in R^2 (R^2 change = .03, p >.05). At a bivariate level, organizational affective commitment was positively correlated with learning self-efficacy. After step 3, with the addition of the interaction terms, perceived self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training, psychological well-being x willingness to undergo training and learning self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training to the equation there was a non significant reduction in R^2 (R^2 change = .02, p >.05).

Table 6.4: **Hierarchical multiple regression of demographic, learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy and psychological well-being on organizational continuance commitment, showing standardised regression coefficients, R, R^2, adjusted R^2, and change in R^2 of all respondents (N=175)**

Predictor	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Gross Income	-.17*	-.18*	-.18*
Organizational tenure	.13	.12	.12
Gender	.00	-.00	.00
Age	.27**	.28**	.28**
Manage staff	.04	.03	.03
Job tenure	.18*	.20*⁻	.20*
Leaning self-efficacy		.05	.06
Willingness to undergo training		.04	.04
Perceived self-efficacy		-.06	-.07
Psychological well-being		-.03	-.03
Perse x willing to train			.02
PWB x willing to train			-.01
Learnse x willing to train			.02
R	.49**	.50**	.50**
R^2	.24**	.25**	.25**
Adjusted R^2	.22**	.21**	.19**
R^2 change	.24**	.01**	.00**

*p < .05, **p < .01.
PWB = psychological well-being; perse = perceived self-efficacy; learnse = learning self-efficacy; Willing to train = willingness to undergo training.

For Table 6.4, considering organizational continuance commitment as DV – after step 1, the R for regression was significantly different from zero, F (6, 169) = 9.04, p <.01. Gross income, age, and job tenure contribute significantly to the prediction of organizational continuance commitment and together 24% (22% adjusted) of the variability in organizational continuance commitment was predicted by knowing the scores on these demographic variables. Earlier bivariate correlation indicated that organizational continuance commitment was positive correlation with gross income, with age, with job tenure, and with organizational tenure. After step 2, with the addition of learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, and psychological well-being scores to the equation, R^2 = .25, F (10, 169) = 5.55, p <.01. Neither learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy nor psychological well-being contribute significantly to the prediction of organizational continuance commitment and together 25% (21% adjusted) of the variability in organizational continuance commitment was predicted by knowing the scores on learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, and psychological well-being. These four variables resulted in a significant change in R^2 (R^2 change .01, p <.01). After step 3, with the addition of the interaction terms, perceived self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training, , psychological well-being x willingness to undergo training and learning self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training to the equation there was reduction in R^2 (R^2 change = .00, p <.01) however it remained significant.

For Table 6.5, considering organizational normative commitment as DV – after step 1, the R for regression was not significantly different from zero, F (6, 169) = .82, p >.05. None of the demographic variables contributed significantly to the prediction of organizational normative commitment and together 3% (1% adjusted) of the variability of organizational normative commitment was predicted by knowing the scores on these demographic variables. After step 2, with the addition of learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, and

Table 6.5: Hierarchical multiple regression of demographic, learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy and psychological well-being on organizational normative commitment, showing standardised regression coefficients, R, R^2, adjusted R^2, and change in R^2 of all respondents (N=175)

Predictor	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Gross Income	-.14	-.13	-.12
Organizational tenure	-.09	-.13	-.11
Gender	-.05	-.06	-.04
Age	.05	.06	.03
Manage staff	-.15	-.18	-.16
Job tenure	.08	.13	.14
Leaning self-efficacy		.16*	.15
Willingness to undergo training		.10	-.01
Perceived self-efficacy		.25**	.22**
Psychological well-being		.11	.09
Perse x willing to train			-.18*
PWB x willing to train			-.16*
Learnse x willing to train			.04
R	.17	.31	.40**
R^2	.03	.10	.17**
Adjusted R^2	-.01	.04	.09**
R^2 change	.03	.07	.06**

*p < .05, **p < .01.
PWB = psychological well-being; perse = perceived self-efficacy; learnse = learning self-efficacy; Willing to train = willingness to undergo training.

psychological well-being scores to the equation, R^2 = .10, $F (10, 165)$ = 1.77, p <.05. Together 10% (4% adjusted) of the variability in organizational normative commitment was predicted by knowing the scores on learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy and psychological well-being. Earlier bivariate correlation indicated that organizational normative commitment was positively correlated with learning self-efficacy and with psychological well-being and negatively correlated with perceived self-efficacy. The addition of the four variables, learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, and psychological well-being resulted in a significant change in R^2 (R^2 change = .07, p <.05). After step 3 with the addition of the interaction terms, perceived self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training, psychological well-being x

willingness to undergo training, learning self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training to the equation, perceived self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training and psychological well-being x willingness to undergo training prove significant, indicating a possible moderating effect. There was a reduction in R^2 (R^2 change = .06, $p < .01$), that remained significant.

Table 6.6 Hierarchical multiple regression of demographic, learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy and psychological well-being on occupational affective commitment, showing standardised regression coefficients, R, R^2, adjusted R^2, and change in R^2 of all respondents (N=175)

Predictor	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Gross Income	.02	-.03	-.02
Organizational tenure	.04	.04	.03
Gender	-.08	-.06	-.04
Age	.11	.10	.10
Manage staff	.16	-.10	-.08
Job tenure	-.10	-.04	-.04
Leaning self-efficacy		.24**	.24**
Willingness to undergo training		.10	.07
Perceived self-efficacy		.15*	.16**
Psychological well-being		-.58**	-.58**
Perse x willing to train			-.13*
PWB x willing to train			-.03
Learnse x willing to train			.10
R	.25	.67**	.69**
R^2	.06	.45**	.47**
Adjusted R^2	.03	.42**	.43**
R^2 change	.06	.39**	.02**

*p < .05, **p < .01.
PWB = psychological well-being; perse = perceived self-efficacy; learnse = learning self-efficacy; Willing to train = willingness to undergo training.

For Table 6.6, considering occupational affective commitment as DV – after step 1, the R for the regression was not significantly different from zero, $F(6, 169) = 1.80$, $p > .05$. None of the demographic variables contributed significantly to the prediction of occupational affective commitment and together 6% (3% adjusted) of the variability in occupational affective commitment was predicted by knowing the scores

on these demographic variables. Earlier bivariate correlations indicated that occupational affective commitment was negative correlated with manage staff, and positive correlated with gross income and with age. After step 2, with the addition of learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, and psychological well-being scores to the equation, $R^2 = .45$, $F(10, 165) = 13.66$, $p < .01$. Learning self-efficacy, perceived self-efficacy, and psychological well-being contributed significantly to the prediction of occupational affective commitment and together 45% (42% adjusted) of the variability in occupational affective commitment was predicted by knowing the scores on learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, and psychological well-being. Earlier bivariate correlation indicated that perceived self-efficacy was positively correlated with occupational affective commitment. The addition of these four variables, learning self-efficacy, perceived self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, and psychological well-being, resulted in a significant increment in R^2 (R^2 change = .39, p <.01). After step 3, with the addition of the interaction terms, perceived self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training, psychological well-being x willingness to undergo training and learning self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training to the equation, perceived self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training was significant indicating a possible moderating effect. There was a significant increment in R^2 (R^2 change = .02, p <.01).

For Table 6.7, considering occupational continuance commitment as DV – after step 1, the R for regression was significantly different from zero, $F(6, 169) = 6.91$, p <.01. Age and job tenure contributed significantly to the prediction of occupational continuance commitment and together 20% (17% adjusted) of the variability in occupational continuance commitment was predicted by knowing the scores on these demographic variables. Earlier bivariate correlation indicated that occupational continuance commitment was positively correlated with age, with job tenure, and with organizational tenure, and negatively correlated with gross income. After step 2, with

Table 6.7: Hierarchical multiple regression of demographic, learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy and psychological well-being on occupational continuance commitment, showing standardised regression coefficients, R, R^2, adjusted R^2, and change in R^2 of all respondents (N=175)

Predictor	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Gross Income	-.13	-.13	-.12
Organizational tenure	.14	.14	.14
Gender	-.05	-.06	-.06
Age	.20**	.21**	.20**
Manage staff	.03	.03	.02
Job tenure	.18*	.19*	.18*
Leaning self-efficacy		.02	.03
Willingness to undergo training		.03	.05
Perceived self-efficacy		-.03	-.04
Psychological well-being		.06	.06
Perse x willing to train			.10
PWB x willing to train			-.05
Learnse x willing to train			-.00
R	.44**	.45**	.46**
R^2	.20**	.20**	.21**
Adjusted R^2	.17**	.15**	.15**
R^2 change	.20**	.01**	.01**

$*p < .05, **p < .01.$
PWB = psychological well-being; perse = perceived self-efficacy; learnse = learning self-efficacy; Willing to train = willingness to undergo training.

the addition of learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, and psychological well-being scores to the equation, $R^2 = 20$, $F (10, 165) = 4.18$, $p < .01$. Neither learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, nor psychological well-being contributed significantly to the prediction of occupational continuance commitment. Together 20% (15% adjusted) was predicted by knowing the scores on learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, psychological well-being. The addition of these four variables resulted in a significant increment in R^2 (R^2 change $= .01$, $p < .01$). After step 3, with the addition of the interaction terms, perceived self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training, psychological well-being x willingness to undergo training, and learning self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training to the equation, there was no

increment in R^2 (R^2 change = .01, p <.01), however it remained significant.

Table 6.8: Hierarchical multiple regression of demographic, learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy and psychological well-being on occupational normative commitment, showing standardised regression coefficients, R, R^2, adjusted R^2, and change in R^2 of all respondents (N=175)

Predictor	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Gross Income	-.11	-.10	-.09
Organizational tenure	-.07	-.10	-.10
Gender	-.06	-.08	-.06
Age	-.04	-.04	-.05
Manage staff	-.14	-.15	-.13
Job tenure	.16	.20*	-.21*
Leaning self-efficacy		.16*	.15
Willingness to undergo training		.01	-.04
Perceived self-efficacy		-.19*	-.17*
Psychological well-being		.12	.11
Perse x willing to train			-.23**
PWB x willing to train			.06
Learnse x willing to train			.07
R	.20	.31	.38**
R^2	.04	.10	.15**
Adjusted R^2	.01	.04	.08**
R^2 change	.04	.06	.05**

*p < .05, **p < .01.
PWB = psychological well-being; perse = perceived self-efficacy; learnse = learning self-efficacy; Willing to train = willingness to undergo training.

For Table 6.8, considering occupational normative commitment as DV - after step 1, the R for regression was not significantly different from zero, F (6, 169) = 1.71, p >.05. None of the demographic variables contributed significantly to the prediction of occupational normative commitment and together 4% (1% adjusted) of the variability in occupational normative commitment was predicted by knowing the scores on these demographic variables. Earlier bivariate correlation indicated that occupational normative commitment was positively correlated to job tenure. After step 2, job tenure, non significant at step 1 becomes significant indicating a possible suppression effect at step 2. With the addition of leaning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo

training, perceived self-efficacy and psychological well-being scores to the equation, $R^2 = .10$, $F(10, 165) = 1.73$, $p > .05$. Together 10% (4% adjusted) of the variability in occupational normative commitment was predicted by knowing the scores on learning self-efficacy, willingness to undergo training, perceived self-efficacy, and psychological well-being. The addition of these four variables resulted in a change in R^2 (R^2 change $= .06$, $p > .05$) that was non significant. Earlier bivariate correlation indicated that occupational normative commitment was positively correlated with learning self-efficacy and with psychological well-being. After step 3, learning self-efficacy, significant at step 2, changes to become non significant at step 3, indicating a possible partial mediating effect. With the addition of the interaction terms, perceived self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training, psychological well-being x willingness to undergo training, and learning self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training to the equation, perceived self-efficacy x willingness to undergo training interaction is significant, indicating a possible moderating effect. There was a reduction in R^2 (R^2 change $= .05$, $p < .05$), however it remains significant.

Mediating Effect

To test for a possible mediating effect of psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy and learning self-efficacy on the willingness to undergo training-commitment relationship, a series of multiple regressions were performed as per Baron and Kenny (1986). Baron and Kenny suggest that "...three regressions are performed. First regressing the mediator on the independent variable; second, regressing the dependent variable; on the independent variable and third, regressing the dependent variable on both the independent variable and on the mediator. Separate coefficients for each equation should be estimated and tested" (p. 1177). To establish mediation, they suggest that the following conditions must be met. The independent variable must be significant against the mediator in the first equation. In the second equation, the independent variable must be significant against the dependent variable. In the third equation, the mediator must be significant against the dependent variable. Baron and

Kenny suggest that if these conditions are held "...then the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second" (pp. 1177). They also state that "because the independent variable is assumed to cause the mediator, these two variables should be correlated" (p. 1177).
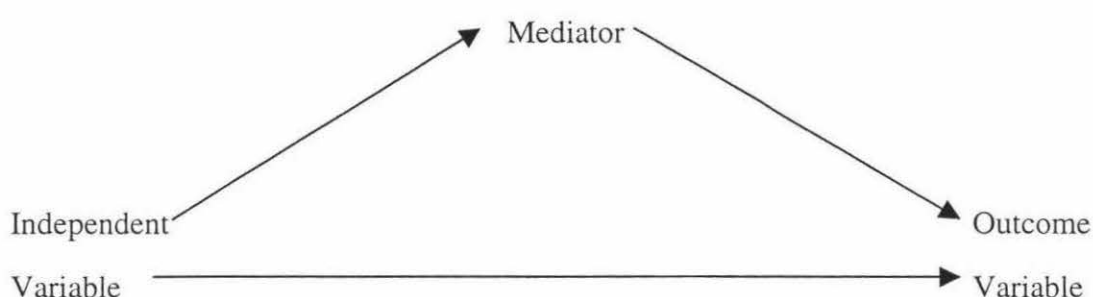
Figure 6.1: Mediational Model (as per Baron and Kenny, 1986, p. 1176).

Using the Baron and Kenny (1986) model for the first equation psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy and learning self-efficacy as the DV's were individually regressed with the demographic data previously used in earlier regression analyses and willingness to undergo training as a standardised regression. Baron and Kenny (1986) state that it is not necessary to use a hierarchical or stepwise regression. Table 6.9 displays the standardised regression coefficients (beta), R, R^2, adjusted R^2, and change in R^2 (refer Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989, as discussed previously).

For Table 6.9, considering psychological well-being as DV, the R for regression was not significantly different from zero, $F(7, 170) = .84$, $p > .05$. None of the variables contributed significantly to the prediction of psychological well-being and together 3% (1% adjusted) of the variability of psychological well-being was predicted by knowing the scores on these variables. The lack of a significant relationship (beta .08, $p > .05$) between the possible mediator variable psychological well-being and willingness to undergo training suggests that no further analysis was required as described by Baron and Kenny (1986) to explore the for a possible mediating effect on the willingness to undergo training-commitment relationship.

Table 6.9: **Standardised multiple regression of demographic, willingness to undergo training on psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy, and learning self-efficacy, showing standardised regression coefficients, R, R², adjusted R², and change in R² of all respondents (N=177)**

Predictor	PWB	Perse	Learnse
Gross Income	-.12	-.07	-.07
Organizational tenure	-.04	-.16	.02
Gender	.06	-.01	.06
Age	.03	.10	.09
Manage staff	-.04	-.29**	-.18*
Job tenure	.10	-.18	-.08
Willingness to undergo training	.08	.07	.19
R	.18	.32**	.28*
R²	.03	.10**	.08*
Adjusted R²	-.01	.06**	.04*
R² change	.03	.10**	.08*

* $p < .05$; **$p < .01$. PWB = Psychological well-being; Perse = perceived self-efficacy; Learnse = learning self-efficacy.

Considering perceived self-efficacy as DV in Table 6.9 - the R for regression was significantly different from zero, $F(7, 170) = 2.69$, $p < .01$. Manage staff contributed significantly to the prediction of perceived self-efficacy and together 10% (6% adjusted) of the variability in perceived self-efficacy was predicted by knowing the scores on these variables. However, the lack of a significant relationship (beta .07, $p > .05$) between the possible mediator variable perceived self-efficacy and willingness to undergo training suggests that no further analysis was required as described by Baron and Kenny (1986) to explore for a possible mediating effect on the willingness to undergo training-commitment relationship.

Considering learning self-efficacy as DV in Table 6.9 - the R for regression was significantly different from zero, $F(7, 170) = 2.04$, $p < .05$. Manage staff contributed significantly to the prediction of learning self-efficacy and together 8% (4% adjusted) of the variability in learning self-efficacy was predicted by knowing the scores on

these variables. However, the lack of a significant relationship (beta .19, $p > .05$) between the possible mediator variable learning self-efficacy and willingness to undergo training suggests that no further analysis was required as described by Baron and Kenny (1986) to explore for a possible mediating effect on the willingness to undergo training-commitment relationship.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Discussion

Goldstein (1991) presents the argument that training has consequences other than those directly desired by the organization and in recognition of this there is a growing body of literature that supports the role that personal characteristics have to play in the training process. Characteristics such as psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy and self-efficacy in learning situations that formed part of this study, have implications in the training process (refer Staw, Bell and Clausen, 1986, Bandura, 1997 and Hill and Elias, 1990).

Organizational and occupational commitment have developed over a number of identifiable stages and overall most researchers would agree it is a multidimensional construct (refer Staw, 1977; Kanter, 1968; Mowday, et al., 1982; Meyer, et al., 1993). Organizational commitment becomes a desirable attribute in employees when an organization has invested in staff training (e.g. O'Driscoll, 1989; Reilly and Orsak, 1991; and Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999). The different dimensions of affective, continuance, and normative commitment have the potential to play a separate role in this relationship (e.g. Feij, 1998; and Iverson and Buttigieg).

To summarise the research goals, Goal 1 was to explore the possibility that respondents who reported willingness to undergo training would also report higher levels of commitment to their employing organizational and to their occupation. Goal 2 was to consider the possibility that psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy or learning self-efficacy may mediate or moderate the training-commitment relationship. Goal 3 submits that there would be no difference between the management and non-management samples when reporting on the three different dimensions of organizational or occupational commitment.

Research Goal Number 1: that those employees who report willingness to undergo training, will report higher levels of commitment to their organization and to their occupation.

This research goal was not supported, contrary to research by Cohen (1992), Nystrom (1990), Noe (1986), and Noe and Schmitt (1986). Willingness to undergo training was found to correlate with gross income, with age, with job tenure, and with leaning self-efficacy, but not with any of the commitment variables. The willingness to undergo training measurement appears to be problematic in this context, given that it was a combination of questions regarding the respondent's current and future intentions to become involved in formal training or study programmes, rather than an outright question as to how willing the respondent felt about undergoing training. The lack of a clear distinction with the willingness to undergo training measure appears to have contributed significantly to the lack of replication by this research project.

The association that was found between willingness to undergo training and learning self-efficacy lends some support to Hill and Elias (1990). Hill and Elias found a similar result with upper echelon managers in their sample, whereas the data collected for this research project was comprised of 66 percent of respondents who did not manage staff. It could be argued that with recent restructuring and the retraining that this involves, employees might have been able to use their recently-gained knowledge and skills in their work environment, thus supporting the mastery experience element of efficacy acquisition (Bandura, 1997).

With regard to the positive correlations of willingness to undergo training with age, and willingness to undergo training with job tenure, these two correlations run counter to the commonly held belief that older staff and those who have held their jobs for longer tend to be less willing to undergo training, (e.g. Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999, Feij, 1998, Cascio, 1998, and Mowday, et. al, 1982). Given the nature of the

organizations involved in this study with regard to recent restructuring and surviving redundancy, together with the fact that most of the employees had held their present jobs for less than three years, it is perhaps not surprising that the individuals involved with this study who scored higher on the willing to undergo training measure also felt more confident in learning situations. However, this did not then translate into commitment to the organization or to their occupations, as may have been suggested by Cohen (1992), Nystrom (1990) and Hill and Elias (1990). The cross-sectional nature of this study does not allow any exploration of the possible developmental nature of commitment to the organization or occupations, compared with a longitudinal study that may be better suited to track the developmental part of this process. Mowday, et al., (1982) suggest that the development of commitment may involve the subtle interaction of behaviours and attitudes over time.

Research Goal Number 2: that the training-commitment relationship may be mediated or moderated by psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy or learning self-efficacy.

There was no evidence to suggest that there was a mediating effect of any of the three constructs of psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy, and learning self-efficacy, on the training-commitment relationship when using the Baron and Kenny (1986) mediational model of analysis. From the hierarchical regression analyses, some inconclusive results emerged with regard to what may be partially mediating effects of learning self-efficacy on organizational normative commitment and occupational normative commitment. These results may in part operate through the interaction terms that were entered last into the hierarchical regression model, but it would require further research to investigate the function of this relationship. The inconclusive measure of willingness to undergo training measure may have also been a contributing factor. Future research with a more accurate measure may well find the suggested mediating effects.

The lack of mediating effects from the Baron and Kenny (1986) mediatorial model does not support earlier research by Miller, Schooler, Kohn, and Miller (1979) who report the role of psychological well-being as a mediator in the employment-attitude relationship. Staw, Bell and Clausen (1986) and Staw and Ross (1985) suggest that individual characteristics such as judgements of psychological well-being affect the individual's attitude organizational issues such as job redesign, training, and organizational change. Gerhart (1987) supports Staw and Ross, but suggests that measurement problems of positive and negative affect sometimes preclude accurate prediction of the power of these characteristics. It could perhaps be suggested that the Affectometer 2 measure used in this research project has not translated well into the work environment. The research of Staw and colleagues and Gerhart supports earlier work by Cook and Wall (1980) and Clegg and Wall (1981) who suggest that some scales developed for measuring psychological well-being do not always translate well into the work situation, especially with workers lower in the hierarchy. The Affectometer 2 scale was developed in New Zealand and so criticisms of inappropriate cultural context would not apply as they might with measures developed elsewhere. The majority of instances where the Affectometer 2 has been used, are in health research, where it has performed consistently well (refer Kammann, Christie, Irwin and Dixon, 1979; Kammann and Flett, 1983; Flett, Biggs and Alpass, 1995). This area would benefit from comparative study and further investigation.

There was no mediating effect recorded for perceived self-efficacy on the training-commitment relationship. Thus the results did not support Jex and Gudanowski (1992) who discuss the mediation role of perceived self-efficacy. They suggest that reduced perceived self-efficacy beliefs might lead to job related strains. No mediating effect was recorded for learning self-efficacy on the training-commitment relationship. The research results do not support the Hill and Elias (1990) assertion that learning self-efficacy mediated the relationship between the training-commitment

relationship in their management sample. The different results for this current research project may be in part attributable to the heterogeneous nature of the occupations represented by the respondents in this research project, compared with the Jex and Gudanowski and Hill and Elias samples. Cohen (1992) raised this issue when discussing the nature of his results over a wide occupational spread. However, this issue will be discussed in more detail under the limitations section of this chapter.

There was no moderating effect reported for learning self-efficacy on the training-commitment relationship. The lack of moderating effect of learning self-efficacy on the training-commitment relationship as well as being a casualty of the previously discussed willingness to undergo training measure may also suggest that the learning self-efficacy measure was problematic. If learning self-efficacy is regarded as efficacy in a task, it may have been more appropriate to measure this construct as suggested by Locke, Frederick, Lee and Bobko (1984), instead of using the little known Hill and Elias (1990) measure. However, the reliability coefficient generated by the research data, for the learning self-efficacy measure was acceptable at .79. Anastasi (1988) advises that reliability coefficients of .80 to .90 are ideal.

The Locke, et al (1984) questionnaire measures more-directly the magnitude and strength estimates of the individual's feelings of ability when faced with undertaking a specific task. In defence of the decision to use the Hill and Elias (1990) measure, it was felt by this researcher, that learning self-efficacy in the context of this research was not aimed at a specific training programme, but to the more general suggestion that the individuals involved would, over a period of time, undergo training for more than one reason. In some instances these training programmes were general introductions to the organization and to the jobs they were about to begin, or the introduction of organizational or job changes that were about to happen for existing staff. In others instances, training was for a specific skill required by the organization, such as changes to customer service requirements, or the introduction of

new security procedures.

A moderating effect was found for perceived self-efficacy on the training-commitment relationship for organizational and occupational normative commitment. A moderating effect was also found for perceived self-efficacy on the training-commitment relationship for occupational affective commitment. This suggests that perceived self-efficacy may strengthen the training-commitment relationship lends some support to Jex and Bliese (1999) who suggest that self-efficacy beliefs operate as a moderator to strengthen the impact of stressor-strain relations. They suggest that those employees who display higher levels of self-efficacy prefer training programmes that are relatively informal compared to employees with lower levels of efficacy, who prefer to be in more structured learning situations. Saks (1994) also found that self-efficacy operated as a moderator between training method and anxiety, especially when employees were new to the job. Earlier research by Gist (1989) suggests that in recognition of the moderating role of self-efficacy in training situations, effective training strategies may need to be tailored to the efficacy of new employees, in particular. Bandura (1997) suggests that rapid technological change and social changes in the workplace constantly require reappraisal of personal efficacy to master new skills and roles. He suggests that whilst this increases the opportunities for individuals to manage their own careers, it also creates uncertainty and job insecurity. For the less efficacious, Bandura suggests, this can be a source of continual stress. These issues have implications for Human Resource management and will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Iverson and Buttigieg (1999), Feij (1998), Hellman and McMillin (1994), Kelly (1992), and Meyer and Allen (1988) all discuss the role of training in the development of organizational commitment. They all suggest that the development of affective commitment is more likely to occur from training programmes that involve new recruits to the organization. Hellman and McMillin and Feij both suggest that the

appropriate training programmes enhance separate aspects of organizational commitment. They suggest that the inclusion of socialisation in newcomer training programmes has a positive effect on affective commitment in particular. This was also supported by Kelly, when studying customer service oriented employees and by Meyer and Allen when studying university graduates who had just begun full-time employment. The established connection between affective and normative commitment will be discussed in more detail shortly.

Psychological well-being was found to moderate the training-commitment relationship for organizational normative commitment. This lends some support to Staw, Bell and Clausen (1986) and Staw and Ross' (1985) suggestion that individual characteristics such as judgements of psychological well-being affect the individual's attitude to organizational issues such as job redesign, training, and organizational change. Cook and Wall (1980) and Clegg and Wall (1981) also suggest this when researching psychological well-being and organizational commitment. Gerhart (1987) supports Staw and Ross, but suggests that measurement problems of positive and negative affect sometimes preclude accurate prediction of the power of these characteristics. Contrary to Gerhart, Cook and Wall, and Clegg and Wall, the measure of psychological well-being, using the Affectometer 2, to explore the moderating role did not appear to be problematic.

By producing a moderating effect, this research project is beginning to explore the possibility that psychological well-being strengthens the training-commitment relationship. However this area is very much under-researched and more empirical evidence would need to be accumulated before generalisations or predictions could be made.

When discussing psychological well-being as a moderator variable, Isen and Baron (1991, cited in Judge, 1993) suggest that individuals who display higher levels of

psychological well-being are more motivated to avoid unpleasant outcomes. Isen and Baron go on to suggest that under these circumstances, these employees may be more willing to take proactive steps, which may lead to leaving their jobs voluntarily when situations at work become unpleasant or stressful.

Discussing the training-commitment relationship, Nystrom (1990) suggests that employees, who are provided with opportunities to increase their skills and knowledge, reciprocate with increased levels of commitment to the organization and to their jobs. Data from this research found that organizational normative commitment is strongly correlated with organizational affective commitment. Meyer et al. (1993) report correlations of a similar magnitude (as do Aranya and Jacobson, 1975; Reilly and Orsak, 1991; and Allen and Meyer, 1996). These researchers suggest that there is sufficient evidence to confirm affective and normative commitment as being clearly distinguishable constructs. Allen and Meyer suggest that it may not be possible for a strong obligation to the organization to develop (a characteristic of normative commitment) without having positive emotional feeling for it. Allen and Meyer also suggest that longitudinal research involving newcomers to the organization may plot the course of commitment development. Randall, Fedor and Longnecker (1990) and Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) discuss organizational normative commitment as having similar characteristics to organizational affective commitment. This research project supports this literature, by reporting a relatively strong correlation between organizational normative commitment and organizational affective commitment. Randall, Fedor and Longnecker and Iverson and Buttigieg suggest that employees displaying high levels of normative commitment to the organization are less likely to leave voluntarily. These researchers also suggest that these employees have feelings of high reciprocity toward the organization and will be more receptive to organizational change and the personal consequences those changes may bring, such as undergoing training or retraining.

These relationships among the commitment scores, together with the interaction effect of perceived self-efficacy on the training-commitment relationship, have implications for Human Resource Managers when developing training policy and strategies. This research lends support to Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) who suggest that employees who display high levels of normative commitment are less likely to leave the organization voluntarily; will have feelings of reciprocity towards the organization, and will be more receptive of organizational change and the personal consequences those changes might bring, such as undergoing training. Considering the hierarchical and staffing changes that have recently occurred within the organizations that were involved with this research, there is some support demonstrated for the Iverson and Buttigieg assertions with regard to organizational change.

Research Goal Number 3: that there will be no difference reported between management and non-management samples for levels of organizational affective, continuance or normative commitment. Nor will there be a difference reported between management and non-management samples for occupational affective, continuance or normative commitment.

For organizational continuance and normative commitment, occupational continuance and normative commitment there was no reported difference between the management and non-management samples, thus supporting in part the research goal. This gives support to Cohen (1992) and Loscocco (1990) who suggest that the traditional separation between management and non-management employees is eroding in organizations that have structures that value input and autonomy at all levels of the organization.

Some difference between management and non-management respondents appeared with regard to organizational affective commitment and occupational affective commitment. There was evidence at a bivariate level of a negative correlation

between the two commitment scores and manage staff, however the failure of these indicators to be carried through to the predictive analysis limits the value that can be placed on this relationship in particular. Caution should also be attached to drawing strong conclusions from this data because of the proportion of management to non-management staff in this sample. One third of respondents reported that they managed staff, compared with two thirds who reported they did not manage staff.

Additional Findings

This research found correlations between organizational continuance commitment with age, with organizational tenure, and with job tenure that were all positive. From the hierarchical regression analysis gross income, age, and job tenure were significant predictors of organizational continuance commitment. Current research was able to account for 20 percent of the variance in organizational continuance commitment at the time, with ten independent variables. Similar results were found from the hierarchical regression analysis for occupational continuance commitment, where age and job tenure were found to be significant predictors of occupational continuance commitment. It is noted that the current research was able to account for 16 percent of the variance in occupational continuance commitment at the time, with ten variables. These two variables (age and job tenure) together with organizational tenure and with gross income were found to correlate with occupational continuance commitment. With regard to the continuance commitment-age association, several researchers (e.g. Mowday, et al., 1982; Cascio, 1998; and Feij, 1998) suggest that as employees age, they become less accepting of change. With regard to the reported correlations between continuance commitment, and organizational tenure and

continuance commitment and job tenure - these correlations are also reported by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Cohen (1995 and 1999) who suggest that organizational tenure and job tenure are positively correlated to organizational continuance commitment. This, they suggest, reduces the likelihood of employees who have worked for the organization for longer, or who have held their jobs for longer, being likely to leaving their jobs voluntarily.

Interpreting this trend, Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) suggest that individuals who have held their jobs for longer, and have been working for the same organization for longer are less inclined to be flexible and less accepting of organizational change. This research whilst lending support to the view that those employees who are less likely to accept change are consequently less likely to feel disposed to undertake training programmes that will introduce them to changes required in the workplace (e.g. Irving, Coleman and Cooper, 1997), also found the contrary relationships when exploring the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the training-commitment relationship for research goal number two. Data suggests that self-efficacy moderates the training normative commitment relationship. In this context it could be suggested that normative commitment might be a more desirable characteristic than continuance commitment.

Mobley (1977) confirms the connection between organizational continuance commitment tenure, and employee turnover, suggesting that although the correlation is weak, it is consistent. Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) also hold this view, suggesting that in this respect, organizational continuance commitment demonstrates similar characteristics to organizational affective commitment. Where it differs, they suggest, is with respect to organizational change. Organizational continuance commitment,

they suggest, has a negative impact on organizational change because employees high in continuance commitment feel 'locked' into the organization because of what they see as the high cost of leaving. Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin and Jackson (1989) support this less positive aspect of organizational continuance commitment.

Allen and Meyer (1993) suggest that the various components of affective, continuance and normative commitment may become more relevant at different points in a career. Reilly and Orsak (1991) also suggest there is a relationship between career stage and continuance commitment in the same way data from this research project has indicated. It could be concluded that those who have held their jobs for longer, and have been with the organization for longer are more likely to demonstrate occupational continuance commitment characteristics. It could also be speculated that these employees remain in their jobs because they feel the need to stay (Meyer, et al., 1993).

From the hierarchical regression analysis perceived self-efficacy, learning self-efficacy, and psychological well-being were significant positive predictors of occupational affective commitment. It is noted that the current research was able to account for 42 percent of the variance in occupational affective commitment at the time, with the ten variables in the regression analysis. At bivariate level, data revealed an association between occupational affective commitment with perceived self-efficacy and with learning self-efficacy that were both positive. When discussing self-efficacy, Bandura (1997) suggests that those employees who report higher levels of role self-efficacy will find their jobs less stressful, manage workplace conflict better, and will usually outperform their less efficacious peers. This research offers

support to the Bandura submission, with both perceived self-efficacy and learning self-efficacy relating to occupational affective commitment, considering that affectively committed employees are thought to remain in their occupation because they want to stay (Meyer, et al., 1993).

Cropanzano, James and Konovsky (1993) suggest that there is a positive relationship between positive feelings of psychological well-being and affective commitment. Cook and Wall (1980) suggest that in the development of organizational commitment, psychological well-being plays an important role that fosters trust and reduces anxiety in the workplace. This research project data produced a relationship between higher levels of psychological well-being and organizational normative commitment. Randall, Fedor, and Longnecker (1990) and Iverson and Buttigieg (1999), suggest there are similarities between organizational normative commitment and organizational affective commitment, with the implication that employees displaying high levels of normative commitment to the organization are less likely to leave the organization. However, normative commitment tends to bring out feeling that employees ought to stay, compared with affective commitment which tends to be thought of as a more positive attribute, suggesting feelings of wanting to stay with the organization. The implications of these distinctions will discussed further later in this chapter.

There was also evidence, from the hierarchical regression to suggest that job tenure indicated a possible suppression effect on occupational normative commitment. However, the explanation of such effects is ambiguous and difficult to interpret. Smith, Ager and Williams (1992) suggest that such suppression effects are ambiguous making interpretation of regression results problematic. Cascio (1998) suggests in a general sense, that suppressor variables are related to moderator variables in as much

as they can affect the relationship between the criterion and predictor. Cascio presents the argument that suppressor variables do have a significant relationship with the predictor, but suggests that the goal is seldom obtained with more than four or five predictor variables. This research used up to ten independent variables in the regression analyses thus making the interpretation of the role of job tenure in relation to occupational normative commitment problematic.

Implications

Cohen (1999) suggests that there is good theoretical as well as empirical support for a relationship between occupational and organizational commitment. He goes on to suggest that where occupational commitment levels are low, then correspondingly organizational commitment levels will also be low. This research project highlighted moderately strong correlations between organizational affective commitment and occupational affective, continuance and normative commitment; between organizational continuance commitment and occupational continuance commitment; and between organizational normative commitment and occupational continuance and occupational normative commitment (as per Table 6.2). Aranya and Jacobson (1975), Ferris and Aranya (1983), Reilly and Orsak (1991), Meyer, et al. (1993), and Irving, Coleman and Cooper (1997) report similarly strong relationships.

Distinctions between affective and normative commitment have already been highlighted as research data have been discussed. Several researchers present arguments for these similarities (refer Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; and Randall, Fedor and Longnecker, 1990). These researchers go on to suggest that although

similar in characteristics, there are some major differences. The one with the most implication for this study is the difference that those employees who demonstrate higher levels of normative commitment are less supportive of organizational change. Often these employees are older or have been with the organization or in their jobs longer. Human resource policy makers and strategists need to be aware of this distinction in commitment, which has implications for training employees who are affected by organizational change, so that training dollars are spent effectively.

Data suggested that issues of efficacy can play a role to strengthen the training-commitment relationship. From this, it could be suggested that training programmes which introduce organizational change should include experiences that will strengthen efficacy of the trainees, especially when older staff, or those who have been with the organization for long periods, are involved (as suggested by Bandura, 1997; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; and Gist, 1989). Bandura also suggests that supervisors are able to affect the efficacy of their subordinates by being supportive of those who are about to undergo training (the verbal persuasion element of efficacy acquisition), and then in the post-training period, support the transfer of training into the workplace and encourage the use of the newly learned skills and knowledge (the performance accomplishment/ mastery experience element of efficacy acquisition). Goldstein and Gilliam (1990) suggest that here is the need for full organizational support to encourage older employees to attend training and retraining programmes. Under these circumstances, Latham, et al. (1998) suggest that it is not surprising that older employees are reluctant to undergo training. Goldstein and Gilliam also suggest that the negative relationships that exist between age and performance may stem from situational constraints, where organizations are reluctant to involve older employees

in development programmes.

There is also a growing body of research that suggests it is possible for organizations to capitalise on affective commitment when developing Human Resource strategies and policy. Hellman and McMillin (1994), Feij (1998), and Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) suggest that early in the employment relationship organizations should ensure jobs are challenging but achievable. They also suggest that training programmes include organizational socialisation and introduce the organizational culture so that new employees affiliate quickly with the organization. This way research suggests that the development of organizational affective commitment is encouraged and works as a positive force for the employee and the organization.

O'Driscoll (1989) suggests that organizational commitment is generally a desirable characteristic to foster in employees to build on strategies that encourage increased productivity. However he cautions that, in the long term, there are hazards of over-commitment which are frequently overlooked. Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) suggest that fostering the right kind of commitment is desirable and that it has an integral role in the formulation of Human Resource strategies such as staff training. Reilly and Orsak (1991) suggest that the right kind of commitment should both motivate and be beneficial to work behaviours.

Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) suggest that because of the multi-dimensional nature of commitment, and the Meyer, et al. (1993), approach in particular, organizations are able to use these different commitment types to the advantage of both the organization and their staff. Meyer, et al. (1989) suggest that affective commitment can be developed through activities that encourage the employee to remain with the organization because the *want* to. Whereas employees strong in continuance

commitment remain because they *need* to; employees strong in normative commitment remain because they feel they *ought* to. Both Iverson and Buttigieg and Meyer, et al. (1989) suggest that affective commitment is the more positive attribute for both the organization and the employee. Shouksmith (1994) suggests that affective commitment is enhanced by employees who have positive job related skill levels. He also suggests that employees who report positive well-being also report normative commitment, whereas employees who report high levels of continuance commitment are reportedly seeking opportunities for promotion.

There is evidence from the research data to suggest that organizational affective and normative commitment are likely positive outcomes of appropriate training programmes. This research project found linkages between self-efficacy and self-efficacy in learning with organizational affective commitment and organizational normative commitment. This is supported by Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) who suggest that strategies that foster these commitment characteristics will be rewarded with employees who are less likely to leave, less likely to be absent and more likely to accept organizational change. Hill and Elias (1990) suggest that under these circumstances the investment organizations make in training will bring the dividends the organization is looking for.

Measures, Limitations of the Study and Directions for Future Research

Feij (1998), supported by Morrow (1983) suggests that because organizational and occupational commitment have such a wide variety of attempts at definition it is difficult to operationalize these constructs into research. Feij does however, suggest that the Meyer et al. (1993) scale has practical application because it attempts to investigate the construct from a context that does not confine exploration to issues of turnover and because it includes issues of socialisation. Irving, Coleman and Cooper (1997) support earlier construct validity research by Meyer, et al. (1993) that the

occupational commitment scale measures the three separate constructs of affective, continuance and normative commitment. Irving, Coleman and Cooper suggest that the measure is equally valid when applied across a wide variety of occupations or when used to measure a single occupational group, as Meyer, et al. did with nurses.

With regard to the correlation reported between occupational affective commitment and age: Meyer, et al. (1993), report a similar correlation, however they attribute this to the nature of the profession used in their sample (in their case nurses). Whilst this research data produced a similar but smaller correlation to Meyer, et al., their age/commitment parallel can not be drawn as confidently from the respondents who supplied data for this survey, because of the wide variety of occupations reported. Support is thereby generated for the Irving, Coleman and Cooper (1997), who suggested that the measure would transfer into organization-wide research. However the issue of heterogeneity of the sample used in this research needs to be raised. Managers, as self-categorised, ranged from individuals who reported gross income excess of $180,000 per annum, to those who report that they earned $34,000 per annum. Little is known about how many staff any of these individuals manage, but it could be assumed that this varies widely. There is no way of knowing from the data collected what influence this had on the results. In line with Cohen (1992) it would be suggested that future research categorise occupational groups more specifically.

Cohen (1992) suggests that categorisation may enhance the understanding of how commitment may be increased so that investments made through training programmes can be maximised. An issue complicating data collection and demographic spread, were problems associated with recruiting organizations for this research project. However management status data could have been more profitably categorised between supervisor and manager.

Whilst the Meyer, et al. (1993) measure is sound in terms of psychometric properties,

this research project used a five point Likert scale to collect data for organizational and occupational commitment scales. Meyer et al. (1993) used a seven point scale. Reilly and Orsak (1991) suggest that the seven point scale increases the chance of explaining more variability in these constructs. This distinction could have been of benefit to this research.

It would be recommended that future research involving willingness to undergo training asks a more straightforward question to report this variable so as to eliminate the problems discussed earlier with the composite variable used in this research. The distinction between perceived self-efficacy and learning self-efficacy did not contribute greatly to this research. It could be suggested for future research that this distinction is not necessary, even on the basis argued earlier, because training programmes will inevitably vary from organization to organization.

The Schwarzer (1993) measure of self-efficacy is a well researched and well respected measure and there were no problems associated with its use in this research. The Affectometer 2 measure of psychological well-being, whilst not widely used in organizational research, does measure a relatively stable construct. As discussed earlier, in general, psychological well-being measures are reliable for self-report and the choice of the Affectometer 2 for this research was not problematic. A distinct advantage of this measure was the fact that it was designed in New Zealand and could not be said to introduce issues of cultural bias that other measures may bring with them. O'Driscoll (1989) does suggest that there are differences in culture and attitude to commitment in New Zealand compared to Japan and United States of America. When using the Meyer, et al (1993) measures in this research where it was felt necessary, more appropriate wording for questions was used (as discussed in Chapter 5) so as to make the questions as relevant to the respondents as possible without altering the nature of the question.

With regard to the exploration of possible moderating effects, Cronbach (1987, cited in Cascio, 1998), Aguinis and Stone-Romero (1997) and Holmbeck (1997) suggest that often moderator search strategies are fraught with difficulties. Cascio suggests, that whilst not bearing a direct relationship to either the predictor or the criterion, moderator variables enhance these relationships. Cascio also suggests that there are differing recommendations with regard to sample size and power-related issues when using multiple regression analysis. These issues become apparent in this research making clear conclusions difficult to reach.

With regard to questionnaire design, the value of pre-testing cannot be underestimated, but assuming one has a well-designed questionnaire does not eliminate issues of social desirability bias nor does it eliminate problems associated with sampling and response rate. It must be assumed that within organizational research there will be under-reporting as well as over-reporting for a variety of reasons that will not be understood by the researcher, nor will these elements always be readily detectable (Krosnick, 1999). The anonymity of the participants in this research would hopefully increase the motivation to provide accurate responses. There are however, limitations that need to be considered especially when generalisations are being made from self-report research data.

The use of self-report formats has been discussed as a source of common methods variance as used with commitment and other measures that use Likert-type scale measurement. Several authors have suggested that the more behaviourally based measures will alleviate this artifact (e.g. Jex and Bliese, 1999, and Somers, 1995, and Morrow, 1983,). Spector (1987) argues that the use of properly developed research instruments is relatively resistant to the methods variance problem. Kaplan, Sieber and Ganiats (1997) report that self-report well-being scales compare well with interviewer administered forms.

With regard to sampling and response rates, Krosnick (1999) suggests that gaining representative samples is problematic. This research project endeavoured to attain a representative spread from the organizations involved, but this was severely limited because the researcher did not have total freedom of to use truly random sampling methods. The overall response rate of 45.58 percent, whilst positive leaves 54.42 percent that were not returned. One can only speculate as to the reasons for this and the impact the return of these surveys would have had on the final outcome of the study. The limitations of these issues are acknowledged.

One area of organizational research overlooked by this project was that of the role played by organizational culture. Future research that involves training and commitment research would do well to consider the interaction of this construct. Argyris (1993 and 1999) by categorising organizations as 'learning organizations' suggests that the learning culture of the organization is highly influential on training.

Overall, this research has shed some light on the training-commitment relationship and the influence of the three variables of psychological well-being, perceived self-efficacy, and learning self-efficacy on this relationship. Whilst difficult to generalise, these conclusions do provide some replication of the Hill and Elias (1990) study and extend it on include non-management staff. This study demonstrates the complexity of the training-commitment relationship and supports, in broad terms, the research that has been undertaken of newcomers to the organization. However, it also reveals areas that would benefit from further research that might in time, benefit organizations and those who work in them.

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APPENDIX ONE

Questionnaire used the collect survey data

TRAINING and COMMITMENT
RESEARCH

INFORMATION SHEET

Please read this Information Sheet before proceeding with the questionnaire

1. *What is this study about and who is doing it?*

This study is being undertaken as part of my Master of Arts degree in psychology. The research looks at how people feel about the organization that they work for and their occupation when they undergo training as part of their job.

My name is Raewyn Harrison and I am a postgraduate student at Massey University. This research is of particular interest to me because of my work with corporations prior to my returning to university as an older student. My supervisor is Dr Ross Flett, Senior Lecturer at Massey University. Raewyn can be contacted on 06 358 6002 or by Email at raewyn.h@clear.net.nz or Dr Flett through the School of Psychology, Massey University, on 06 356 9099, or by Email at R.A.Flett@massey.co.nz

2. *What will I be asked to do?*

It will take about 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. You will be asked for you views on your job and the organization you work for. No one who knows you will ever see your answers, or be able in any way to link your name to your completed questionnaire.

3. *What are my rights as a participant in this study?*

* You have the right to contact the researchers at any time during the study to discuss any aspect of it.

* You have the right to decline to participate, to refuse to answer any question(s), or to withdraw from the study at any time.

* You provide information on the understanding that it is completely in confidence to the researchers, to be used only for the purpose of the research.

* You have the right to receive a summary of the results of the study upon its completion.

4. *What can I expect from the researchers?*

We will treat your responses with total confidentiality and assure you of complete anonymity. If we decide to publish any results these will only be in summary form. If any results are supplied to your employer these will also only be in summary form. The questionnaires will be destroyed upon completion of the study.

TRAINING and COMMITMENT
RESEARCH

Instructions

Please read these instructions carefully before proceeding.

a) Please do not write your name on the questionnaire.

b) Remember that all information provided by yourself is confidential to the researcher.

c) Please answer the questionnaire yourself giving your answers only.

d) Please complete all sections taking care not to skip any pages.

e) Please complete the questionnaire as soon as possible.

f) It is recommended that you complete the questionnaire in one sitting.

g) Please do not go over your answers once you have completed the questions.

h) Remember to complete the final page if you wish to receive a summary of the results.

i) There are no right or wrong answers. Try to be as honest as possible when answering the questions.

j) Please return the questionnaire as soon as you have completed it using the envelope provided.

k) If you have any questions about the questionnaire, or the study itself, please contact either the researcher or her supervisor.

TRAINING and COMMITMENT
RESEARCH

Firstly we would like some background information about you.

Complete the questions by filling in the appropriate answer, or circling the option that best applies to you.

1. In what year were you born?   19[   ]

2. What sex are you?   MALE I FEMALE

3. What is your relationship status?   ....
                                        (eg. single, married, currently partnered, etc.)

4. What is your ethnic origin?

                    Please mark the appropriate box
                    New Zealander of European descent   [   ]
New Zealander of Māori descent   [   ]
                    New Zealander of Asian descent   [   ]
                    Pacific Island groups   [   ]
                    Other, please specify ....   [   ]

5. How long have you worked for your present employer?

                                        ....
                                        months I years
                                        (please circle one)

6. What is your current work title?

(eg: accountant, administrator, manager, clerk, team leader, team member, etc.)

7. How long have you held your current position?.................**months I years**
                                        (please circle one)

8. Is your current position   FULL TIME I PART TIME
                    (please circle one)

9. Do you supervise other staff?   YES I NO
                    (please circle one)

10. What is your income before tax from this position?

$............................... per week | month | year

(please circle one)

11. Do you currently care for dependent family members? YES | NO

(please circle one)

If you answered **YES** to question **11, please answer the next two questions,** otherwise please go forward to the next page.

12. Do any of these dependent family members reside with you?

YES | NO

(please circle one)

13. Are these dependent family members children | parents | partner | other

(please circle as appropriate)

Please continue on the next page.

The following questions relate to training and education

1. **How did you acquire the skills and knowledge necessary for you to do your current job?**

    Please mark the appropriate boxes
    1. By watching others do their jobs   [   ]
    2. On-the-job training and experience   [   ]
    3. In-house company education/training programmes   [   ]
    4. Training programmes organised by the
       company, such as attending polytech
       or other courses   [   ]
    5. I bought the necessary skills with me   [   ]
    6. Other (Please record on the line below)

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2. **Does the organization that you are currently working for require you to undertake training as part of your job?**   **YES | NO | DON'T KNOW**
   (please circle one)

If you answered **YES** to question **2 please answer the next question, otherwise please go forward to question 4.**

3. **On average, how many days a year would you spend attending training or education programmes as part of your job.** (Please record on the line below)

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4. **Please indicate your highest level of education by marking the appropriate box.**

    3 years or less secondary school   [   ]
    4 years or more secondary school   [   ]
    Completed diploma/ certificate (eg. polytech)   [   ]
    Undergraduate degree/diploma (eg. BA, BCom, BSc, etc.)   [   ]
    Postgraduate degree/diploma (eg. MBA, MA, PhD, etc.)   [   ]

5. **Do you have any other formal qualifications?**
    (eg. Trade Certificate, Chartered Accountancy, NZIM, NZCE, etc. Please record in the space below)

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6. **Are you currently pursuing or completing any formal qualification, education, or training not already acknowledged or recorded above?**

   YES | NO
   (please circle one)

If **YES** please provide details:

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7. If you answered **YES** to question 6, **please indicate the purpose for which you are pursuing the qualification (eg. personal interest, job requirement, to further your career, etc.).**

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8. **Do you intend to pursue any other formal qualification/education/training?**

   YES | NO
   (please circle one)

If you answered **YES** to question **8 please answer the next three questions, otherwise please go forward to page 7.**

9. **Please indicate when you intend to pursue this by marking the appropriate box:**

within the next 1 - 2 years?	[ ]
within the next 3 - 5 years?	[ ]
not within the next 5 years	[ ]

10. **How will you pursue this qualification?**

Part time whilst still working	[ ]
Full time	[ ]

11. **Please indicate the purpose for which you are intending to pursue the qualification** (eg. personal interest, job requirement, to further your career, etc.):

We would like to ask you how you feel about the work that you do.

Please answer by circling the number that best indicates how you feel.

1. My job is important to my self-image.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

2. I regret having entered this job.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

3. I am proud of the job that I do.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

4. I dislike my job.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

5. I do not identify with my job.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

6. I am enthusiastic about my job.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. I have put too much into my job to consider changing now.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

8. Changing jobs now would be difficult for me to do.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to change my job.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

10. It would be costly for me to change my job now.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

11. There are no pressures to stop me from changing jobs.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

12. Changing jobs now would require considerable sacrifice.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

13. I believe people who have been trained in a particular job have a responsibility to stay in that job for a reasonable period of time.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

14. I do not feel any obligation to remain in my present job.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

15. I feel a responsibility to my job to remain in it.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

16. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel that it would be right to leave my job now.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

17. I would feel guilty if I left my job.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

18. I am in my present job because of a sense of loyalty to it.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

We would now like to ask you how you feel about problem solving.

Please answer by circling your choice on the scale provided.

1. I always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.

1	2	3	4
Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True

2. If someone opposes me, I can find means and ways to get what I want.

1	2	3	4
Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True

3. It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.

1	2	3	4
Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True

4. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**
Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True

5. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**
Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True

6. I can resolve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**
Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True

7. I remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**
Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True

8. When I am confronted with a problem, I usually find several solutions.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**
Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True

9. If I am in a bind, I can usually think of something to do.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**
Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True

10. No matter what comes my way, I'm usually able to handle it.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**
Not at all True	Barely True	Moderately True	Exactly True

Please continue on the next page.

We would now like to ask you how you feel when you know you have to attend work-related training.

Please answer by circling your choice on the scale provided.

1. How do you rate your ability to learn new work-related knowledge and skills.

1	2	3	4	5
I don't feel able		I feel able		I feel highly able

2. Please indicate how your ability to learn has changed in your years with your organization.

1	2	3	4	5
I feel less able		no change		I feel more able

3. Please indicate how much you enjoy work-related learning.

1	2	3	4	5
don't enjoy at all		enjoy		enjoy very much

4. Please rate your present level of motivation to keep up-to-date with work-related training.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all motivated				highly motivated

5. Please indicate how your motivation to keep up-to-date with work-related training has changed in your years with your organization.

1	2	3	4	5
less motivated		no change		more highly motivated

Please continue on the next page.

We would like to ask you about feelings of personal well-being.

Circle the number that most accurately describes how often you have had that feeling over the *past few weeks.* You do not need to spend a long time on each item.

1. My life is on the right track.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	occasionally	some of the time	often	all of the time

2. I wish I could change some part of my life.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	occasionally	some of the time	often	all of the time

3. My future looks good.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	occasionally	some of the time	often	all of the time

4. I feel as though the best years of my life are over.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	occasionally	some of the time	often	all of the time

5. I can handle any problems that come up.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	occasionally	some of the time	often	all of the time

6. I feel like a failure.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	occasionally	some of the time	often	all of the time

7. I smile and laugh a lot.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	occasionally	some of the time	often	all of the time

8. Nothing seems very much fun any more.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	occasionally	some of the time	often	all of the time

9. I think clearly and creatively.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	occasionally	some of the time	often	all of the time

10. My thoughts go around in useless circles.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	occasionally	some of the time	often	all of the time

We would like to ask you how you feel about the organization you work for.

Please answer by circling what best indicates how you feel.

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my working life with this organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree -	Strongly Agree

4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

10. I feel I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

15. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

16. This organization deserves my loyalty.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

17. I would not leave my organization right now because I feel a sense of obligation to the people in it.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

18. I owe a great deal to my organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

We would like to ask you how you feel about the people you work with as part of your job. If you do not have customers as such, please consider your fellow workmates to be your customers.

Please answer the next three questions by writing the number that best indicates how you feel in the space beside statement a, b, c, d, e, and f.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**
not at all	a little	quite a lot	very much

1. To what degree do you think each of the following *is expected* of you as part of your job?

_____ a. To make a customer feel important.
_____ b. To try to feel sympathy and understanding for the customer.
_____ c. To make the customer like and trust you.
_____ d. To conceal any negative feelings about the customer.
_____ e. To smile and behave in a friendly manner toward the customer.
_____ f. To actually feel friendly and warm toward the customer.

2. To what degree do you think each of the following *should be expected* of you as part of your job.

_____ a. To make the customer feel important.
_____ b. To try to feel sympathy and understanding for the customer.
_____ c. To make the customer like and trust you.
_____ d. To conceal any negative feelings about the customer.
_____ e. To smile and behave in a friendly manner toward the customer.
_____ f. To actually feel friendly and warm toward the customer.

3. To what degree do you think you *actually do* each of the following as part of your job?

_____ a. To make the customer feel important.
_____ b. To try to feel sympathy and understanding for the customer.
_____ c. To make the customer like and trust you.
_____ d. To conceal any negative feelings about the customer.
_____ e. To smile and behave in a friendly manner toward the customer.
_____ f. To actually feel friendly and warm toward the customer.

How often would you say that the following statements are true about you:

Please answer by circling the number that best indicates how you feel.

4. I *appear* friendly and pleasant to customers.

1	2	3	4	5
never	rarely	sometimes	often	always

5. I *feel* friendly and pleasant to customers.

1	2	3	4	5
never	rarely	sometimes	often	always

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements about you.

Please answer by circling the number that best indicates how you feel.

6. I believe I *should appear* friendly and pleasant to customers.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. I believe I *should feel* friendly and pleasant to customers.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

TRAINING and COMMITMENT
RESEARCH

Request for Summary of Results

If you want to receive a summary of this study please complete the following details. Detach the sheet from the questionnaire and include it with the questionnaire in the envelope provided. The sheet will be separated from the questionnaire when the envelope is opened and will be held separately until the study has been completed at which stage it will be used to forward the results to you. Confidentiality is assured. This sheet will not be used by the researcher to identify any individual response.

The summary of results should to be available in July/August 1999 and will be distributed about that time.

Name: ....

Address: ....

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