THE EFFECTS OF STRATEGIC AND CULTURAL SATISFACTION, AND JUSTICE ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

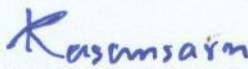**Keeratiya Rujimora**

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial

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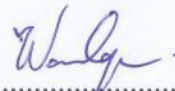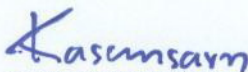
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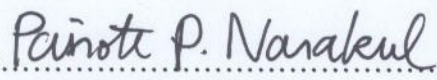
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ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation	The Effects of Strategic and Cultural Satisfaction, and Justice on Organizational Commitment
Author	Miss Keeratiya Rujimora
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This research aims to study the effects of strategic satisfaction and cultural satisfaction on employees' organizational commitment level and other various organizational factors ranging from perceived organizational support (POS), distributive and procedural justice, age and job positions. Total 400 questionnaires are collected from current employees of 12 companies from five industries, which are banking, retail, service, energy and, food and beverage and use multiple regression analysis to assess findings incorporated with interviews. The data collection period started in June 2014. The author collected paper-based questionnaires for six months for the purpose of quantitative research and extend further two months for the interviews to complete the qualitative part. Further two months are set to complete the research report with full data analysis and conclusion.

Strategic satisfaction, cultural satisfaction, procedural justice, interaction effect of distributive and procedural justice, POS and age significantly affect commitment level of employees positively. This is the very first time we explore on the concept of satisfaction on factors, which have an impact on commitment level. Private sectors can use the insights from this research to improve their employees' commitment level by aligning their perceived performance and employees' expectation.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

1.1.1 The Importance of Organizational Commitment

If there should be any aspects to identify the success of an organization apart from its financial performance, one should not overlook the impact of the retention of talented human resources and the motivated workforce, all of which is largely measured by the term "organizational commitment". It has been proved that committed employees are less likely to leave an organization than those who are uncommitted (Angle, & Perry, 1981; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Since committed employees are considered to be valuable assets for every organization, it is crucial for an organization to study what actually has an impact on increase in organizational commitment of its employees and how to achieve the highest level of organizational commitment.

To employees, commitment to an organization and to the work itself can add meaning to their lives (e.g., increase in perceived self-worth). To organizations, committed employees would be beneficial due to the potential for increased performance and for reduced turnover and absenteeism. It is considered fruitful for any organization to understand the process through which its employees become committed to the organization and how that process can be managed. This will be of considerable benefit for both employees and managers (Mowday, 1999).

1.1.2 The Increasing Turnover Rate in Thailand

In terms of voluntary employee turnover or "resigned employees", Vietnam (13.9%) ranked the top of Asia Pacific region in 2012 followed by the Philippines (13.0%). Hong Kong, India, Malaysia, South Korea, and Taiwan also experienced the double-digit turnover rate in the same year. In 2013, China, India, Japan, Singapore

and Thailand registered a slightly higher voluntary turnover, while Indonesia, Malaysia, Taiwan and Vietnam had a lower voluntary turnover, which might signify tightening of readily available labor. The reasons most often cited by employees who voluntarily left their employers are better jobs, better (higher) pay and a better work/life balance elsewhere (Towerswatson, 2012).
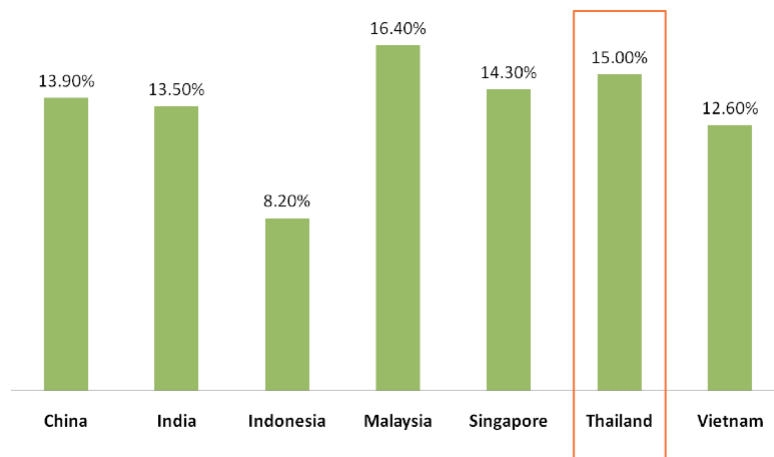
Figure 1.1 Regional Employee Turnover
Source: Haygroup, 2013.

It is noted that developed countries have an average turnover of about 5%. By studying the causes for organizational commitment, public and private companies in Thailand will be able to cope with a high employee turnover rate.

A high turnover in Thailand will cause a disadvantage to the country in terms of human resource development and will reduce the nation's global competitiveness (Towerswatson, 2012). Thailand has seen an average turnover rate of more than 10% for several years. The country lacks consistent human resource development practices to maintain knowledge capital, making it difficult for Thai companies to compete in regional or global markets. Also, the high turnover can either benefit or harm employers, depending on the quality of resigned employees.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Many previous research studies have identified various antecedents of organizational commitment. The most interesting antecedents include the organizational strategy and culture (Tziner, 1987; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Vancouver, & Schmitt, 1991; Cable, & Judge, 1996; Van Vianen, 2000; Silverthorne, 2004; Nazir, 2005; Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki, 2005). Often previous research explored specific types of strategy and culture, which yielded a high level of organizational commitment. For example, the study by Lok (2003) found the innovative culture to be the most desiring type of culture for driving the organizational commitment. This research result made the researcher raise many questions that were still unanswered. Firstly, does the innovative culture serve as a magic tool for an organization in need for commitment? What will happen if most employees in an organization are very conservative and resistant to innovations? Will the innovative culture still yield a high commitment level?

In order to fully assess the effect of current organizational strategy or culture on commitment, the researcher explored the difference between the current strategy and culture and ones preferred by the employees. As employees are involved in organizational commitment, organizational strategy and culture should be assessed by considering employees' perception, not the CEO's perspective or what has been written in annual reports.

1.3 Selection Criteria in Research Setting

This research included only respondents from private-sector organizations. The reasons why the private sector not the public sector was targeted were as follows.

The first reason concerned stability of strategy. Strategies in public organizations often varied depending on the government, which usually rules the country for less than four years. With continuous change in strategies specified by different governments, it was difficult to truly examine one important independent variable: strategic satisfaction.

This was perhaps due to the fact that the respondents might not fully absorb the content of all strategies in a short time or fully sense strategic change over time. Another reason was that public-sector respondents might understand that organizational strategies were used for a short term and decided not to relate their organizational commitment level to their strategic satisfaction.

The third reason was diversity in culture. In Thai public organizations, one characteristic that most public organizations have in common was bureaucracy, which might cause the respondents to perceive organizational culture in the same way. Diversity was the reason why various industries were included in the study.

The fourth reason concerned exclusion of other impactful independent variables. Public-sector organizations in Thailand offer several fringe benefits and welfare to their employees, e.g., medical expenses to employees themselves as well as to their families, and the inclusion of pensions. In a country where the public welfare system is weak, public organizations' employees tended to have a high level of commitment to their organization because of strong employee welfare. Therefore, public organizations employees were excluded from the framework of this research and only private-sector organizations were studied.

The last reason was usefulness of research implications. In Thailand, private-sector organizations tended to compete with each other more severely than pubic organizations. There was more movement in the internal labor market because private organizations wanted to attract and retained best people to keep the organizations competitive in the market. The results of assessing factors that increased the level of organizational commitment would provide them with useful information that helped them to retain their employees, which were one of their most valuable assets.

1.4 Research Questions

1.4.1 What are significant factors which affect the level of organizational commitment of employees?

1.4.2 To what extent does each factor affect organizational commitment?

1.4.3 Does the difference between existing and expected level of each factor lead to different level of organizational commitment?

1.4.4 Is there any factor which affects the direction and/or strength of the relationship between another factor and organizational commitment level?

1.5 Research Objectives

1.5.1 To study the level of employees' organizational commitment in private sector across industries in Thailand.

1.5.2 To study the effect of various organizational factors on employees' organizational commitment level, ranging from perceived organizational support (POS), distributive and procedural justice, age and job positions

1.5.3 To study the effect of organizational strategic satisfaction and organizational cultural satisfaction on employees' organizational commitment.

1.5.4 To study the interaction effect between distributive justice and procedural justice on organizational commitment.

1.6 Definition of Specific Terms

Definitions of the following key variables were synthesized from many definitions given in previous research, they were summarized in Table 2.1 in Chapter 2.

1.6.1 Organizational commitment refers to strong attachment between employees and their organization. This can be seen in the way that the employees show a strong desire to remain in the organization by portraying desired behavior and effort to maintain their membership.

1.6.2 Organizational strategic satisfaction refers to the compatibility between employees' expectation of their organization's direction and actual organizations' objectives and its stream of important decisions. Strategic satisfaction therefore can be shown in terms of the compatibility between the ideas of the employees and those of the management team.

1.6.3 Organizational cultural satisfaction refers to the extent of compatibility between a set of cognitions that employees and their organizations portray, which includes values, norms, and assumptions. Organizational cultural satisfaction can be

shown in a way that the organization's values yield a positive impact to employees or are positively related to their expected values.

1.6.4 Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness in the outcomes an employee receives. The perception of fairness is proportionate to inputs and outcomes from his/her effort and is also in relation to his/her relevant colleagues.

1.6.5 Procedural justice Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of means, methods and procedures used to determine the outcomes of an employee's work. It is considered as both a process control and a decision control that made sure the decisions have sufficient evidence and open to criticism.

1.6.6 Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to the employees' perception of whether their organization considers them as individuals by valuing their contribution and caring about their wellbeing.

1.7 Research Methods

The sample of the study consisted of 400 employees in across different industries from large-scale companies to gain the sufficient size of business. The 10-point-scale questionnaire for data collection contained 61 items developed by the researcher based on previous research on organizational commitment, strategy and culture. The data were collected by sending the questionnaires to our sample. This quantitative research mainly used multiple regression to test eight hypotheses.

Moreover, the qualitative research was conducted to add more insights into the quantitative results. The data were collected from ten key informants purposively selected from 400 participants by in-depth interviews.

1.8 Scope of Study

1.8.1 Content

In this research, the dependent variable was organizational commitment and independent variables were factors affecting the level of commitment. Another focus included the concept of satisfaction with strategy and culture.

1.8.2 Sample

In order to reflect the true situation in the organizations, 400 current employees were selected from private organizations in different industries that met the criteria of business size by convenient sampling.

1.8.3 Geography

The chosen organizations operated nationwide and some had overseas subsidiaries; however, the data were collected from employees at headquarters in Bangkok. The reason behind this was not just convenience, but that the true organizational strategy and culture could be obviously seen at the headquarters.

1.8.4 Time

Six months were spent to collect the data from 400 samples by using questionnaire and two more months were used for the interviews of ten selected respondents to complete the qualitative part. Two more months were set to complete the research report with full data analysis and conclusion.

1.9 Organization of Dissertation

This dissertation consists of five chapters in total, which are introduction, literature review, methodology, research findings, and discussion and recommendation.

The first chapter, Introduction, described the background and the statement of problems starting from the high turnover problem in Thailand and ending with the importance of organizational commitment and benefits of using the concept of satisfaction to determine the organizational commitment level.

The second chapter, Literature Review concerned previous research related to organizational commitment, strategic satisfaction, organizational cultural satisfaction and impact of satisfaction on the commitment level of employees. Moreover, other related factors, which have impact on organizational commitment, were also reviewed e.g. distributive and procedural justice, perceived organizational support, age and job position.

The third chapter, Methodology described the rationale behind participant selection process, the instrumentation and the procedures of data analysis used in this research.

The fourth chapter, Research Findings includes the results of the data analysis run by SPSS program in stated framework. In this chapter, the results of all tested hypotheses were reported to see true relationship of all variables in the constructed model.

The fifth and final chapter, Discussion and Recommendation, discussed findings in the previous chapter and implications for Thai companies, on how to retain their employees and remain competitive in global markets.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Organizational commitment is the construct explored by many researchers due to its importance to human resource management within an organization. Before studying on the cause of commitment, it is worthwhile to develop more understanding in variables, which directly affect †he organizational commitment level.

In this chapter, the concept of satisfaction was reviewed. Satisfaction refers to the positive magnitude of perceived level of strategy and culture minus preferred ones through employees' perception. Other important variables reviewed included distributive and procedural justice, perceived organizational support, age and job position. However, the four studied variables, were organizational strategic satisfaction, and organizational cultural satisfaction, distributive and procedural justice, while perceived organizational support, age and job position were treated as control variables.

2.1 Organizational Commitment

2.1.1 Definition

In many previous studies, commitment has been repeatedly identified as one of the most important factors affecting work behavior of employees in organizations. However, approaches to the definition of organizational commitment have varied among famous researchers (Becker, 1960; Grusky, 1966; Kanter, 1968; Brown, 1969; Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Sheldon, 1971; Hrebiniak, & Alutto, 1972; Buchanan, 1974; Salancik, 1977; Weiner, & Gechman, 1977).

Firstly, the behavioral approach gained it presence when organizational commitment was defined by considering employees' commitment-related behaviors. For example, one could tell that an employee was committed to the organization when his/her behavior was beyond normative expectation in order to link him/herself to the organization (Salancik, 1977).

Secondly, the attitudinal approach emerged when organizational commitment was defined in terms of an attitude. For example, an employee was committed to the organization when his/her identity was linked to the organization (Sheldon, 1971) or when his/her goals and the organization's goals were congruent and that employee wished to remain the membership of the organization in order to pursue the organizational goals (Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970). March and Simon (1958) also pointed out that the attitudinal approach of commitment usually encompassed an exchange relationship in which individuals attached themselves to the organization in return for rewards or payments from the organization.

Porter, Crampon and Smith (1976) summarized these characteristics of organizational commitment:

1) A strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values;

2) Willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and

3) A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.

When characterized in this sense, commitment did not necessarily mean a pure loyalty to an organization. In fact, it did involve an active relationship that individuals were willing to devote themselves in order to make a contribution to the organization. It was not only the expression of beliefs and thoughts but also actions. It should be noted that individuals often allowed themselves to commit to more than one organization at a time: family or a group of friends, for example (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

The attitudinal approach considers that the concept of organizational commitment differed from that of job satisfaction in many ways. Commitment reflected a general affective response to the organization as a whole, whereas job satisfaction only reflected one's response to one's own job or some aspects of the job itself. Therefore, commitment emphasizes the attachment to the employing organization, including its goals and values, while satisfaction emphasized the specific task environment where an employee performed his/her own duties. Furthermore, organizational commitment was more stable over time compared to job satisfaction; for example, a day-to-day event might affect an employee's job satisfaction level but would not impact his/her commitment level on the overall organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974)

Attitudinal commitment tended to develop gradually over time when individuals realize the relationship between themselves and their employers. On the contrary, job satisfaction tended to reflect on immediate reactions to the work environment e.g. pay, supervision, etc. (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Porter et al., 1974).

2.1.2 Components of Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991) reviewed organizational commitment theories and research, and developed a model of commitment called a three-component model. Although there are various definitions of commitment, they reflect three general themes, which are affective attachment to the organization, perceived cost in leaving the organization and obligation to remain with the organization.

Affective attachment: Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) described affective attachment as strength of an individual's identification and involvement in the organization. This included the acceptance of organizational values, willingness to exert effort, and a desire to remain with the organization.

Perceived cost: Based on his side-bets theory, Becker (1960) described that perceived cost stemmed from the recognition of the costs, which would be lost from the termination of an activity. Kanter (1968) defined perceived cost as a cognitive-continuance commitment where a profit came with the continued participation and a cost incurred when leaving.

On the contrary, Salancik (1977) stated that under the right condition in behavioral commitment approach, intention to continue employment might persist without the recognition of the costs. Thus, the side-bets view of Becker was more consistent with the attitudinal approach.

Obligation: Marsh and Mannari (1977) described employees who were obliged to continue working in the organization as ones who found themselves moral to stay in the company. This resulted from normative pressures, which employees internalized, in the socialization process to act in accordance with organizational goals, as they believed it was the right thing to do.

Meyer and Allen (1991) developed a framework from these three general themes of commitment and described them as affective, continuance and normative

commitment and they treated these factors as components rather than types of commitment because it was possible for an individual to experience all three forms of commitment at the same time with varying degrees.

Affective commitment referred to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. These employees would continue their employment because they wanted to do so.

Continuance commitment referred to the employees' awareness of the cost in leaving the organization. These employees decide to remain with the organization because they need to do so.

Normative commitment referred to the employees' feeling of obligation to continue their employment. These employees decided to remain with the organization because they felt that they should do so.
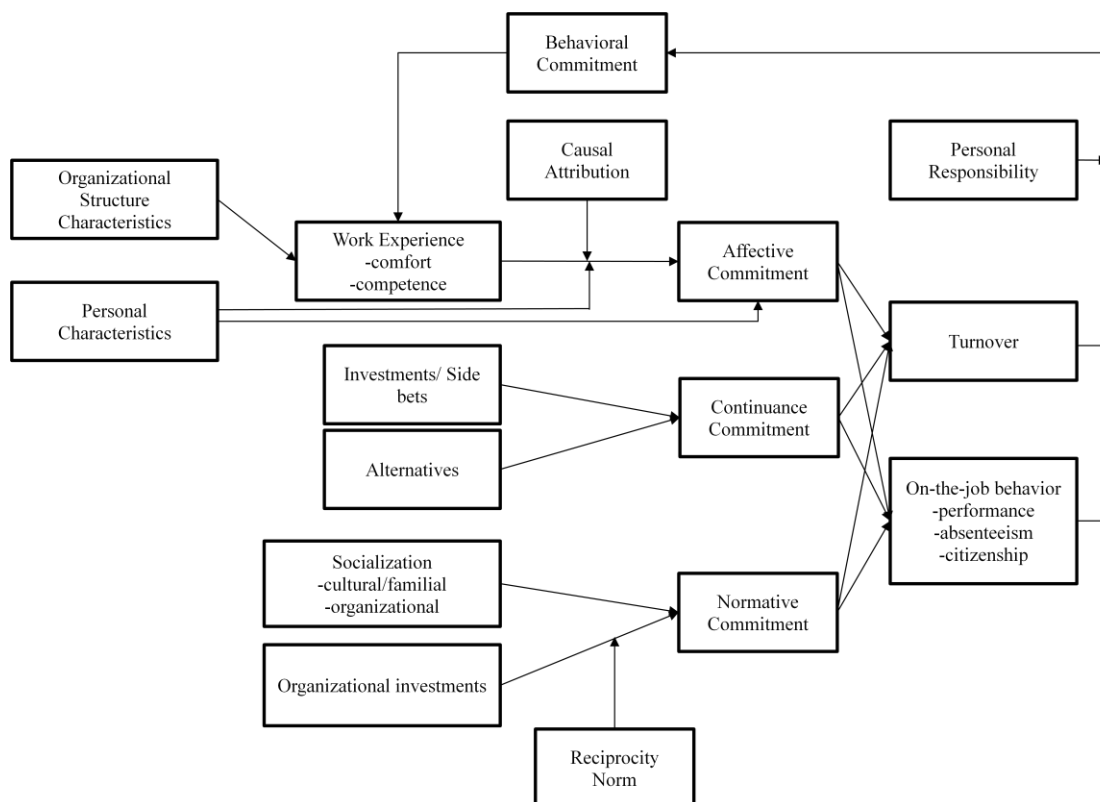
Figure 2.1 A Three-component Model of Organizational Commitment
Source: Meyer, & Allen, 1991.

2.1.3 Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Affective commitment: Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) noted that antecedents of affective commitment came from four factors: personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job-related characteristics and work experiences.

1) Personal characteristics: referred to the employees' personal dispositions rather than their demographic characteristics, with which the relationship to commitment was not consistent. The personal dispositions included need for achievement, affiliation and autonomy (Steers, 1977; Morris, & Snyder, 1979), higher order need (Cook, & Wall, 1980; Pierce, & Dunham, 1987), locus of control (Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987) and central life interest in work (Dubin, Champoux, & Porter, 1975).

Individuals whose work experiences were compatible with their personal dispositions should have a higher level of positive work attitude, resulting in a higher level of commitment (Hulin, & Blood, 1968; Hackman, & Oldham, 1976)

2) Organizational Structure: Affective commitment was related to decentralization of decision-making (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988; Morris, & Steers, 1980) and formalization of policies and procedures (Podsakoff, Williams, & Todor, 1986; O'Driscoll, 1987). However, the unit of analysis was at an individual rather than an organizational level. So, it could be implied that the influence of organizational structure was mediated by employees' work experience, relationship between employees and their supervisor, role clarity, etc.

3) Work experience: Herzberg (1968) stated that work experience could be divided into two categories: those that satisfied employees' need to feel comfortable in the organization, and those that contribute to employees' feelings of competence in the work role.

Continuance commitment: As continuance commitment referred to the recognition of cost to leave organizations, it was assumed that anything which increased perceived cost could be considered as an antecedent of continuance commitment.

Normative commitment: Based on the definition by Wiener (1982), normative commitment referred to the feeling of obligation to remain with an organization. Scholl (1981) stated that normative commitment might develop when an organization

rewarded the employees in advance e.g. supporting their college tuition or incurring a significant cost in providing employment e.g. job training. Employees' recognition of the organizational investment in them would result in their normative commitment in a way that they needed to repay the organization until the debt had been repaid.

2.1.4 Development Process of Organizational Commitment

Affective Commitment: Kelman (1958) attempted to classify the commitment process based on attitude change and found that affective commitment was involved with two categories: identification and internalization. Identification involved the acceptance of influence in order to maintain a satisfying relationship. Internalization involved the acceptance of influence based on shared values. An identification process was explained by an exchange mechanism where employees wanted to remain and were willing to exert effort because of the benefits gained from the relationship with the organization. In an internalization process, employees became committed to the organization, which shared the same values as their own.

Continuance commitment: The development process of continuance commitment was straightforward where anything that increased the cost of leaving an organization had the potential to create commitment. Commitment by default referred to a state that perceived cost accumulated over time without the employees' awareness, such as the increase in market value of the employees' skills (Becker, 1960). However, the perceived cost can produce continuance commitment only when employees were aware of it. Employees with a high level of continuance commitment were likely to exert more effort if they believed such behavior would result in continued employment. Thus, continuance commitment level varied by employees' evaluation of their behavior-employment link.

Normative commitment: Wiener (1982) suggested that normative commitment should be produced by the internalization of normative pressures, which occurred in the socialization process. This might begin with the observation of role models or the organization's usage of rewards and punishment programs. The concept of reciprocity could be translated into behavior for both affective commitment and normative commitment.

2.2 Organizational Satisfaction

2.2.1 Definition

Engel et al. (1968) introduced a concept of satisfaction stating that satisfaction increased as the performance/expectation ratio increased. Oliver (1980) also pointed out that the effects of expectation and discrepancy perceptions were a greater measurement of objective constructs. Expectations created a frame of reference for comparative judgment. Therefore, the outcomes poorer than expected would create a negative disconfirmation and those better than expected would create a positive disconfirmation. Satisfaction was, as a result, a combination of expectation effects and disconfirmation effects.

Churchill and Surprenant (1982) introduced the full disconfirmation paradigm, which consisted of four constructs: expectations, performance, disconfirmation and satisfaction. Expectations referred to anticipated performance, performance referred to the actual results, as perceived by the perception of evaluators, or what was called the perceived values. Disconfirmation arose from discrepancies between prior expectations and actual or perceived performance. It was concluded that the magnitude of disconfirmation generated satisfaction and dissatisfaction.
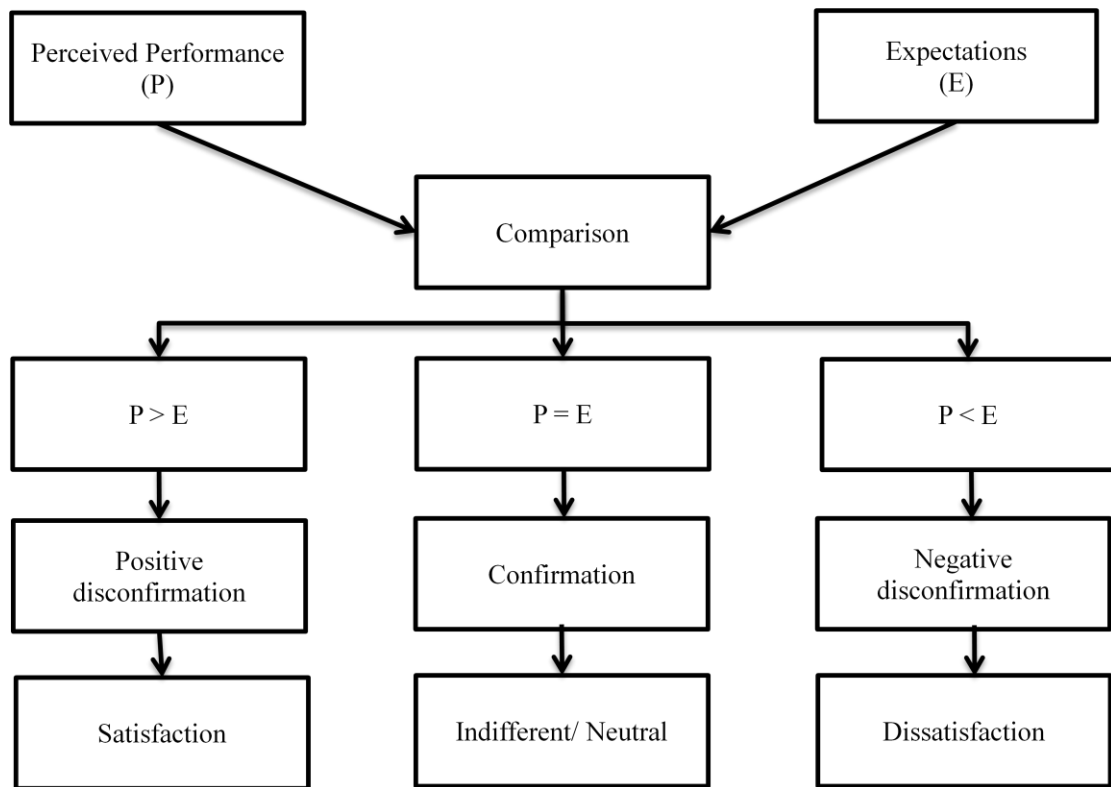
Figure 2.2 Disconfirmation Paradigms
Source: Churchill, & Surprenant, 1982.

Adopting the concept of disconfirmation paradigm, Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) developed a multiple-scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality or SERVQUAL. This scale was based on the idea that some values could not be measured objectively because they were abstract and elusive constructs. An appropriate approach to assess the true level of these constructs, e.g. satisfaction, was to use the gap between expectations and perceptions.

Lofquist and Dawis (1969) proposed that satisfaction resulted from "a harmonious relationship between the individual and his environment, suitability of the individual to the environment, and vice versa". Tom (1971) found that the greater the similarity between an individual's self-concept and his or her image of an organization, the more that individual preferred that organization.

2.3 Organizational Strategic Satisfaction

2.3.1 Definition

In order to clearly define organizational strategic satisfaction, one must firstly understand the meaning of organizational strategy.

Organizational strategy was mainly defined as a pattern of important decisions, which guided the organization in its relationship with its environment. Organizational strategy also affected its internal structure and processes and directly affected the organization's performance (Hambrick, 1980).

Wit and Meyer (1998) stated that organizational strategy was aimed at achieving a fit between an organization and its environment.

Mintzberg (1978) originated the widely used definition of strategy, i.e., a pattern in a stream of decisions. Strategy could be formulated through conscious processes before a decision was made or the strategy could be formed gradually through the decision making process itself.

Chandler (1990) defined strategy as "the determination of the basic long term goals and objectives of an enterprise and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals". The similarity of Chandler's definition and Mintzberg's was the process of decision-making. Chandler did not mention 'decision' directly but rather how to make use of decisions, in which Mintzberg referred to Chandler's definition as a "plan". However, Chandler's definition differed from Mintzberg's in the way that strategy needed to form consciously and theoretically.

Porter (1996) defined strategy as the process of creating a unique and valuable position with series of activities. Porter stressed the point that choice of activities an organization should pursue needed to be in favor of gaining competitive advantage. Porter's and Chandler's definitions of strategy matched each other in that both focused on the execution not only the planning.

In conclusion, Mintzberg (1978), Chandler (1990), and Porter (1996) asserted different perspectives on strategy. Mintzberg saw strategy as a process, Chandler's as resource allocation and Porter's as the creation of a unique position.

Organizations differ in strategic types in which they adopt to remain competitive in their environment. Some strategies are found to be more successful

than others and since organizational strategies directly impact to organization's performance and the well-being of its employees. This is a significant reason for employees to seek for organizations with high-performing strategies.

Moreover, some internal strategies of organizations are directly involve with how things are done in the organizations, which eventually have an impact on employees' job roles. Therefore, employees' satisfaction with organizational strategy has a significant impact on employees' behavior and their commitment to the organization.

In order to measure on organizational strategic satisfaction, dimensions of organizational strategies and the difference on gap between the perceived level and the expected level of each strategic dimension were identified to determine if the samples were satisfied with the organizational strategies.

2.3.2 Components of Organizational Strategic Satisfaction

Components of organizational strategy could be displayed in terms of dimensions, which consisted of bipolar characteristics. Dimensions of organizational strategy to be used as a measurement of organizational strategic satisfaction are derived from well-known typology of organizational strategies: for example, Miles and Snow's innovative strategy (Miles, Snow, Meyer and Coleman, 1978) and Porter and Millar, (1985) competitive advantage strategy (Porter, & Millar, 1985). There were five dimensions relevant to this research.

Narrow target Vs. Broad target referred to the scope of business ranging from the market to the provision of products and services. This dimension was derived from Porter's dimension of competitive strategy called "Competitive Scope" which was used to define the target range of an organization's market scope.

Slow response Vs. Fast response referred to speed to market or the rate at which an organization responded to change in environment. This dimension was derived from Mile and Snow's innovative strategy, which concerned the timing in response to change or to competitors' actions.

Tight control Vs. Loose control referred to the level of flexibility of an organization. This dimension was derived from Mile and Snow's innovative strategy, which described the management style within an organization whether it focused on efficiency (cost) or on results.

Cost focus Vs. Differentiation referred to the focus of an organization whether it was interested in the management of cost or the development of products and services. This dimension was derived from Porter's dimension of competitive strategy called "Competitive Advantage" which was used to define the focus of the organization whether it gave more importance to controlling the cost or the advantage of being unique in the market.

Dynamic vs. Stable referred to characteristics of the market environment where the organization was located. This dimension was derived from Mile and Snow's innovative strategy, which discussed the speed of change in the organization's market target.

2.3.3 Antecedents of Organizational Strategic Satisfaction

Previous research of strategy typology was reviewed in order to come up with components or dimensions of organizational strategy to measure satisfaction with organizational strategy. The famous and widely accepted were those of Miles and Snow's Innovation Strategy Typology and Porter's Competitive Advantage Strategy. All these typologies could be synthesized into various dimensions as mentioned earlier and were proved to be suitable to measure organizational strategic satisfaction.

2.3.3.1 Miles and Snow's innovation strategy typology

According to Miles, Snow, Meyer and Coleman (1978), most organizations can be categorized based on types of adaptation strategy: prospector, defender, analyzer, or reactor. The key dimensions used to identify these four types of strategy are speed to the market and breadth of the market domain (scope of market)

1) Defender

Defender organizations are matured and well-established firms with a narrow product-market domain. The defender's primary focus is on improving the efficiency of existing operations.

Defending strategy involves offering of limited products in defined markets. The focus of this strategy is tight control and efficiency to lower costs. The defender's success can be measured by the ability to maintain or increase its dominance in the market, such as, gaining more market share in its niche market.

The downside of the defender is that it might ignore the innovations that are outside their current scope of market and lose the opportunity.

2) Prospector

Prospector organizations are innovative firms, the focus of which is on looking for potential or prospecting opportunities. However, its innovative approach to both products and markets can be costly in terms of operation efficiencies.

Prospecting strategy involves the consistency in improving the firm's products and services with the ultimate goal of being first to the market. The focuses of prospectors are innovations and flexibility to gain speed to the market. Prospectors often develop new products in a broad range or enter new markets. As they often act like entrepreneurs, the behavior of risk-taking, openness to change and decentralization are present in these firms.

The downside of prospectors are that as they welcome change and often focus on problem finding, the organizations might lose the focus on solving the problems. Moreover, decentralization may lead to underused or overused of resource allocation.

3) Analyzer

Analyzer organizations always assess their competitiveness in the market, in which they will rapidly adapt to change in the way they see as most promising.

The analyzer approach is a mix of defenders and prospectors, the focus of which is on minimizing risks while maximizing profits. Analyzers maintain a stable core business while lurking for new opportunities at the same time. The challenge is to keep the balance between the two strategies: stability and change.

4) Reactor

Reactor organizations are slow to respond to the changing environment in the market. Only strong pressure will be able to force reactor organizations to adopt innovation or change.

One main characteristic of reactor strategy is its lack of consistent strategy. Reactors often respond too slowly to the changing environment and result in poor performance. Reactor organizations fail to unify and make strategic directions or make any change in order to respond to pressures in markets.

Table 2.1 Miles and Snow's Strategy Typology

	Strategy	**Environment**	**Organizational Characteristics**
Prospector	Innovate. Find new market opportunities. Grow. Take risks.	Dynamic, growing	Creative, innovative, flexible, decentralized
Defender	Protect turf. Retrench, hold current market.	Stable	Tight control, centralized, production efficiency, low overhead
Analyzer	Maintain current market plus moderate innovation.	Moderate change	Tight control and flexibility, efficient production, creativity
Reactor	No clear strategy. React to specific conditions. Drift.	Any condition	

Source: Miles, Snow, Meyer, & Coleman, 1978.

2.3.3.2 Porter's Competitive Advantage Strategy

Porter (1985) asserted in his study that there were two basic types of competitive advantage for an organization: low cost and differentiation. When combined with the scope of market at which organizations are aimed to get their competitive advantage, Porter was able to identify four types of competitive advantage strategies: cost leadership, differentiation, cost focus and differentiation focus.

1) Cost Leadership

Organizations which pursue the cost leadership strategy set their positions to be low cost producers in the market with a broad range of products and services. Mass production, high technology and access to raw materials are the

key sources of economies of scale. The low cost will enable organizations to offer low selling prices while maintaining the margin above the competitors. However, cost leadership organizations cannot avoid differentiating their products and services and keep them up to the market standard so that discounts will not offset the advantage of the low cost.

The important point of cost leadership strategy is that it must be preempt, in which only one firm will benefit from this kind of strategy. When too many firms pursue to be cost leaders at the same time, the profitability of the market will be destroyed.

2) Differentiation

Organizations adopt a differentiation strategy so that they will be unique in the market in valuable dimensions through the eyes of customers. A reward which the firms get in return for the supply of special needs is a premium price.

Differentiation can be found in the product itself, the channel of distribution or the marketing approach. Differentiating organizations must always try to differentiate over time to keep the premium price above the cost of differentiation.

Unlike cost leadership, differentiation strategy can be opted by a number of organizations, as there are many valued attributes or dimensions of business to be differentiated from the rivals'.

3) Focus

Organizations with focus strategy depend on a narrow scope of competition or niche markets. In order to serve a specific target segment, focus organizations gain competitive advantage by being the only suppliers in the market.

Focus strategy can be divided into two variants: cost focus and differentiation focus. Cost-focus organizations seek cost advantage in their target segment, while differentiation-focus organizations seek to differentiate in their target segment. This indicates that there are segments, which are still poorly served in the market or industry. In case the focuser's target segment has no difference from other target segments, the focus strategy will not succeed. However, there is still room for many focusers at a time as long as each focuser chooses to present its products in a different target segment.

Competitive advantage

	Lower cost	Differentiation
Broad Target	1. Cost Leadership	2. Differentiation
Narrow Target	3a. Cost Focus	3b. Differentiation Focus

(Competitive scope — vertical axis label on left)

Figure 2.3 Porter's Competitive Advantage Strategy
Source: Porter, 1985.

2.3.4 The Impact of Organizational Strategic Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment Level

Numerous studies have examined the person-organization fit and its positive impact on organizational commitment (e.g., Tziner, 1987; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991; Cable, & Judge, 1996; Vianen, 2000; Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki, 2005). In these studies, the person-organization fit has been defined as value congruence (Meglino et al., 1989; Boxx et al., 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991), goal congruence (Vancouver, & Schmitt, 1991), or direct perceptions of fit (Tziner, 1987; Cable, & Judge, 1996).

Silva, Hutcheson and Wahl (2010) identified organizational strategic satisfaction as a dimension of the person-organization fit and its impact on the level of commitment and intention to stay. The relationship between organizational strategic satisfaction and employees' commitment was found to be positive, with moderation of employees' perception of other job alternatives.

To elaborate, employees who perceived many alternative job options and those who had a misfit in the preferred organizational strategy and the existing one were less committed to the organizations than their counterparts. Surprisingly, when

job alternatives were limited, employees who perceived misfit in organizational strategy had the same level of commitment as those who were satisfied with organizational strategy. A similar pattern was also found with intention to stay.

The study confirmed that employees do assess their organization's strategy, at least for the purpose of adaptation and this assessment is directly impact to employees' attitudes toward their organization.

In Da Silva et al.'s research, an assumption that employees had a preference for the type of strategy their organization adopted. It was found that the greater a fit or congruence between the organization's actual strategy and the employees' ideal or preferred strategy, the more committed the employees would be to the organization. Moreover, Silva et al. (2010) also found that this positive relationship was moderated by the employees' perception of available job alternatives. For example, in the case of a misfit in strategy preference, an employee who had limited alternative job options might be more committed to the organization than an employee who had many alternative job possibilities.

Similarly, Wheeler, Gallagher, Brouer and Sablynski (2007) found that employees whose preferred organizational strategies misfit with the existing ones, had a lower level of job satisfaction.

Many studies also confirmed that when the employees' personal goals and values match the goals and values of the organization would result in a lower level of intention to leave the organization (O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vancouver, & Schmitt, 1991; Cable, & Judge, 1996; Lovelace, & Rosen, 1996). Person-organization fit also had a positive relationship with employees' tenure (Bretz, & Judge, 1994; Chatman, Ostroff, & Rothausen, 1997). Therefore, we can assume that high satisfaction in strategy would also result in high level of commitment.

Hypothesis 1: The greater level of organizational strategic satisfaction results in the greater level of employees' organizational commitment.

2.4 Organizational Cultural Satisfaction

2.4.1 Definition

In order to clearly measure organizational cultural satisfaction, one must firstly understand the definition of organizational culture.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) gave the definition of organizational culture as the "integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thought, speech, action and artifacts and depends on man's capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations". The informal cultural elements of an organization can be described by the way things are done around the organization.

O'Reilly et al. (1991) defined organizational culture as a set of cognitions that is shared by members an organization, which includes fundamental assumptions, values, behavioral norms and expectations.

Schein (1992) defined organizational culture as "a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems". In this definition, socialization plays an important role in the passing on of assumptions to the new generation of employees.

Rowe and Dickel (1994) defined organizational culture as a combination of shared values, attitudes, beliefs, rituals, norms, expectations, and assumptions of the people within the organization. They stated that corporate rituals provided employees with a way of how things worked out inside the organization, such as, social interaction, priorities, and ways in which employees dealt with one another. They also addressed the significance of socialization process, in which new employees would be assisted to understand and adhere to practices and procedures in the organization.

Hellriegel et al. (2004) defined organizational culture similar to that of Rowe, that is, organizational culture was the pattern of shared assumptions, values and norms that shaped the socialization activities, languages, symbols, rites and ceremonies of a group of people. The definition emphasized how organizational culture assisted employees in being introduced and socialized into the organization.

The widely accepted definition of organizational culture was a set of cognitions shared by members of a social unit (e.g. Ceertz, 1973, Smircich, 1983).

In summary, organizational culture is a product of the combination of what makes organization an organization. To elaborate, it is the product of business type, employees, customers, size and location and operation scheme (Rowe, & Dickel, 1994). On the other hand, organizational culture is also influenced largely by the macro level of other cultures e.g. society and industrial cultures. In order to determine organizational culture, one would find it easier to compare it to personality as culture affects how people behave by their own wills.

With regard to the concept of satisfaction (Churchill, & Surprenant, 1982; Engel et al., 1968, Oliver, 1980; Parasuraman et al., 1988), initial expectations were found to have a negative effect on the disconfirmation experience, whereas perceived performance had a positive effect. In turn, disconfirmation positively affected satisfaction. When the perceived level of culture exceeded the expected level, employees would be more satisfied with the company than vice versa. It could also be concluded that expectations and performance directly affected satisfaction.

Recent studies have moved to focus on the idea that organizations possessed cultures, which impacted certain types of individuals (e.g., Wilkins, & Ouchi, 1983). The pervasiveness and importance of values in organizational culture were fundamentally linked to the psychological process of identity formation in which individuals appeared to seek a social identity that provided meaning and connectedness (Ashforth, & Mael, 1989).

Various research indicated that individuals tended to classify themselves into social categories, e.g., gender, race, ethnicity, and organizational affiliation, and to use such categories to define themselves. This was an underlying basis for people to reside in groups and be attracted to those seen similar to them (Brewer, 1979; Moreland, 1985). In the same way, Schneider (1987) proposed that individuals might be attracted to organizations they perceived as having values similar to their own. Likewise, organizations attempted to recruit newcomers who were likely to share the organizational values, who would be further socialized and assimilated, and those who did not fit leave.

Organizations which reward specific behaviors would be attractive to different kinds of people. However, the initial values provided only a starting point. The socialization process would help shape the preferred and expected behaviors within organizations to further enhance organizational cultural satisfaction (Chatman, 1989).

A number of previous studies suggested that organizational cultural satisfaction increases commitment, job satisfaction, and performance. The research question was: To what extent is organizational cultural satisfaction associated with individual commitment, satisfaction, and longevity with an organization (Mount & Muchinsky, 1978; Meir, & Hasson, 1982; Holland, 1997)?

In order to address that question, it was first necessary to demonstrate that organizational culture which individuals prefer are comparable to cultures which currently exist in the organization. Secondly, the relationship between individual preferences and organizational culture needed to be assessed across a broad range of values (Caldwell, & O'Reilly, 1990; O'Reilly et al., 1991). Lastly, to assess organizational cultural satisfaction, dimensions of organizational culture and the difference or gap of the perceived level and the expected level of each cultural dimension needed to be identified to determine if the samples were satisfied with their organizational culture.

2.4.2 Components of Organizational Culture

To assess organizational cultural satisfaction, it was necessary to measure quantitatively certain dimensions of culture, which would help to understand the systematic effects of culture on individual behaviors. The focus should be on the central values, which were relevant to both an individual's self-concept and the organization's value system (Wiener, 1988).

Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv and Sanders (1990) conducted a research in twenty organizations in the Netherlands and Denmark with the unit of analysis at organization level. The survey items included the national culture dimensions' and items on perception of daily practices beyond basic facts, such as nationality, education, gender and age group were added.

Hofstede et al. (1990) described six independent dimensions to identify a variety of organizational practices to be used to identify organizational culture. The six dimensions were briefly stated below.

2.4.2.1 Process-oriented Vs. Results-oriented

Process-oriented cultures focus on routines whereas results-oriented ones focus on outcomes. This dimension also gets an impact from the degree of homogeneity in organizational cultures where it is a measure of cultural 'strength'. A study by Peters and Waterman (1982) confirmed the hypothesis   that strong cultures are more results-oriented than weak ones.

The dimension was used in Harrison and Stoke's (1992) cultural typology as a dimension of "Formalization". They regarded process-oriented as "high formalization" and results-oriented as "low formalization".

2.4.2.2 Job-oriented Vs. Employee-oriented

Job-oriented cultures focus on the employees' performance only, whereas employee-oriented cultures focus more on employees' well-being. This dimension has become part of organizational culture, which lies beyond individual managers' discretion. The dimension has developed from historical factors, e.g. founders' philosophy and history of crises, which were involved with layoffs.

This dimension was used in Rowe et al.'s cultural typology (1994) as a dimension of "Organizational orientation", where they considered job-oriented as "technical" and employee-oriented as "social".

2.4.2.3 Professional Vs. Parochial

Professional culture existed in organizations in which the members identified themselves with their profession. These members usually had high education. On the contrary, parochial culture exists in organizations in which the members identified themselves from the organizations they work for. This dimension was known as local and cosmopolitan and derived from a contrast between internal and external scopes of reference (Merton, 1949).

The dimension was used in Harrison and Stoke's (1992) cultural typology as a dimension of "centralization". They considered professional as "decentralized" and parochial as "centralized". The typologies which represented professional and parochial were Harrison and Stoke's atomistic culture and power culture, respectively.

2.4.2.4 Open Systems Vs. Closed Systems

This dimension reflected the communication style in organizations whether the organizations preferred the flow of information to be internal or external

and how difficult it was for outsiders to be allowed to witness the organization's information. Organizational openness often involved elements from national culture differences.

The dimension was used to identify cultural typology in Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (1983) cultural typology as "focus of attention". In their study, they considered open systems as "external" and closed systems as "internal". It was also used in Rowe et al.'s cultural typology (1994) as "organizational values/norms". They related open systems to "achievement" and closed or controlled systems to "performance".

2.4.2.5 Tight Vs. Loose Control

This dimension concerned the degree of formality and punctuality within the organization and was largely involved with the organization's functional technology. For example, banks and pharmaceutical companies were often expected to show tight control, whereas marketing firms and advertising agencies were often expected to display loose control. However, even in the same industry or technology, different levels of control were still present in different organizations.

The dimension was used in Hellriegel et al.'s cultural typology (1983) as "formal control orientation" and they considered tight control as "stable" and loose control as "flexible".

2.4.2.6 Pragmatic Vs. Normative

This dimension described how an organization dealt (flexible or rigid) with its external environment, particularly its customers. Business units which dealt with selling might find themselves using a flexible or pragmatic way in dealing with its customers, while units involved in the application of rules and procedures might often found themselves to be more rigid or normative. This dimension actually measured the degree of customer orientation.

2.4.3 Antecedents of Organizational Cultural Satisfaction

Typologies gained importance as they could best describe the variation of many cultural dimensions. Hofstede reviewed previous research on cultural typology in order to come up with components or dimensions of culture to further assess organizational cultural satisfaction. All the typologies listed below were synthesized by him into various dimensions and were proved to be suitable to measure organizational cultural satisfaction.

In this part, a number of typologies from many studies were illustrated with diagrams for better understanding.

2.4.3.1 Hellriegel's Typology of Organizational Culture

Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw and Oosthuizen (2004) classified organizational cultures into four types: bureaucratic culture, clan culture, entrepreneurial culture, and market culture. All of them were different in the dimensions of formal control orientation and focus on attention.
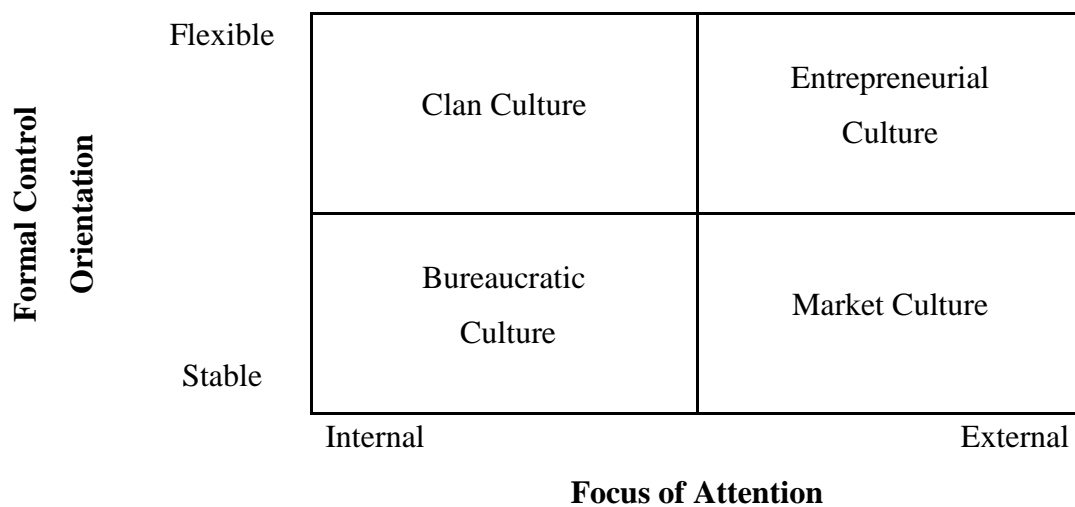
Figure 2.4 Hellriegel's Organizational Culture Typology
Source: Hellriegel et al., 2004.

The formal control orientation (the vertical axis; y) was relatively measured within an organization and ranged from stable control to flexible control. The focus of attention (the horizontal axis; x), on the other hand, ranged from internal functioning to external functioning.

Bureaucratic culture: This type of organization valued rules and procedures. Such organizations largely emphasized hierarchy and formality and focused their performance on predictability and stability. The focus of attention of the organizations was internal, and the formal control was stable.

Clan culture: This type of organization valued tradition, loyalty and organizational commitment. Employees in this type of organizations would be shaped

by the socialization process to understand that they should contribute to the best interest of the company even that meant to put their effort beyond the agreed contracts.

The socialization process included the mentoring of existing employees to new ones and also peer pressures to adhere the organizational norms. The environment of clan culture often resulted in group think and caused restrictions in innovation and risk-taking behavior.

These organizations usually rewarded the commitment of employees by offering them security. Performance was evaluated by teamwork, participation and consideration for people. The focus of attention of such organizations was internal, and the formal control was flexible.

Entrepreneurial culture: This type of organizations valued risk-taking behavior, dynamism and creativity and their employees were encouraged to be initiative, borderless and quickly adaptive to change. The focus of attention was external and formal control orientation was flexible in order to stimulate innovation and change.

Market culture: This type of organizations valued competitiveness and profitability. The relationship between the employees and the organization was contractual; they exchanged on agreed level of performance in return for an agreed compensation. The formal control orientation was quite stable; the focus of attention was external.

2.4.3.2 Rowe's Typology of Organizational Culture

Rowe and Dickel (1994) categorized organizational cultures into four types based on the dimensions of organizational values or norms and the organization's orientations. The value dimension ranged from an open system to a controlled system. An open system referred to innovative organizations, whereas a controlled system referred to followers in the market trend. The dimensions of an organization's orientation ranged from technical to social.

In a technical- oriented organization, differentiation and the task itself were valued while in a social-oriented organization, more concern was given people and relationship.

	Achievement (Open system)		

Organizational values/ Norms

QUALITY CULTURE	**CREATIVE CULTURE**
Effective Planning Problem Solving **Accepts Change**	Innovation Entrepreneurship Risk Taking **Initiates Change**
PRODUCTIVE CULTURE	**SUPPORTIVE CULTURE**
Efficiency, Consistence Procedure, Rituals **Resists Change**	Teamwork Cooperation Growth **Responds to Change**

Performance (Controlled system)

Technical (differentiation)   Social (Integration)

Organization's orientations

Figure 2.5 Rowe's Organizational Culture Typology
Source: Rowe, & Dickel, 1994.

The four organizational cultures with different characteristics were described below.

The productive culture: This type of organizations focused on efficiency and consistency. The dimension of values and norms stressed a controlled system or performance, and the organization's orientation was technical. Due to the technical orientation combined with the controlled system, this type of organizations tended to resist change.

The quality culture: This type of organizations focused on employees' abilities in effective planning and problem solving. Such organizations were often found flexible in approaches and processes and more receptive to change. They valued the achievement of individuals, but also required technical orientation.

The creative culture: This type of organizations valued innovation, entrepreneurship, including the risk-taking behavior. Organizations in this type often initiated change itself. In general, they valued individual achievement and tended to be social- oriented.

The supportive culture: This type of organizations was characterized by teamwork, cooperation, and reinforcement. The dimension of values and norms focused on a controlled system or performance, and the organization's orientation was social, which resulted in rapid response to change.

2.4.3.3 Harrison and Stokes's Typology of Organizational Culture

Harrison and Stoke (1992) classified organizational cultures into four types based on the variation in dimensions of formalization and centralization.
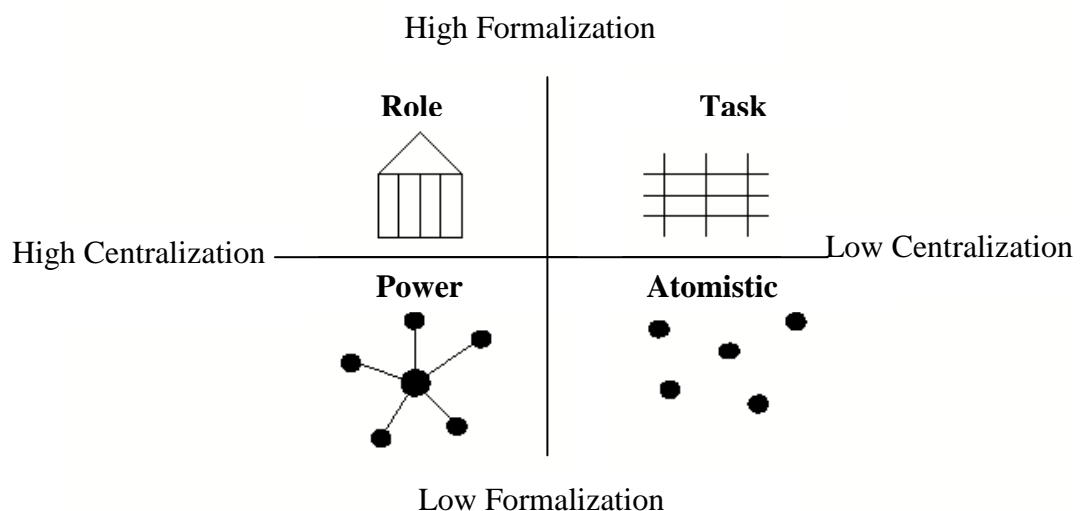
Figure 2.6 Harrison and Stokes's Organizational Culture Typology
Source: Harrison, & Stoke, 1992.

The power culture: This type of organizational culture was often seen in small organizations, where the entire organization revolved around the person in charge. This might result in inequality of access to resources, which in turn gave an opportunity for controlling over other people. The fact that every important decision would be made solely from a single source of power, and that the person in charge remained in absolute authority could create problems for the organization because of single-minded decisions and lack of bureaucracy (Martin, 2001).

A good thing about power culture was that it could quickly respond to change. However, the success depended largely on the abilities of the person who had power.

The role culture: This type of organizations focused on rules, procedures and job descriptions. The orientation towards rules led the organizations to bureaucracy and their principles were rationality, order and authority. Tasks and responsibilities in the role culture were delegated top down. Good things about role culture included the fact that jobs in role- oriented organizations were largely specific with a concrete scope of work and could be done without continuous direct supervision from the management team (Harmse, 2001). However, the downside of this cultural type was that trust was not something to be assumed on employees, and that they had to be controlled. Therefore, job autonomy and discretion were hardly given to low-ranked employees. As a result, innovations and risk-taking decisions might be limited in organizations with such a cultural type. Such organizations often found themselves respond slowly to changes in the environment, as they preferred to do things by the rules (Harrison, & Stokes, 1992).

The task culture: This type of organizations was able to align their employees' personal interests with organizational goals. Systems and structures were important drives in serving the organization's mission and could be changed when the mission altered (Harrison, & Stokes, 1992; Harmse, 2001). The systems and structures were different from rules and procedures in the role culture in the way that they were more flexible and adaptive to change.

An advantage of this cultural type was that contributions from employees would be maximized, as they shared the same purpose with their organizations. This also resulted in enthusiasm, a high level of energy and involvement. However, the downside could be a high level of stress, burnout, and disillusionment when results were not achieved. Task culture organizations were often under-organized with the lack of procedures and planning. Moreover, when missions differed in different parts of the organization, the organization may lose its unity (Harrison, & Stokes, 1992).

The atomistic culture: This type of organizations was based on mutual trust between the employees and the organization. The employees believed they were

valued as persons, not a workforce (Harrison, & Stokes, 1992). Outstanding characteristics included a warm and caring atmosphere, a high level of contribution and commitment, which resulted from a sense of belonging.

The advantages of the atomistic culture included a high level of motivation, enthusiasm and team loyalty, which contributed to high performance and productivity, and morale of organizational members. The downside of this cultural type was that it tended to avoid confrontations and conflicts. Moreover, the individual performance assessment might not be straightforward but based on kindness, which might result in inefficiency of the organization (Harrison, & Stokes, 1992).

2.4.4 The Impact of Organizational Cultural Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment

Organizational culture is a significant factor in the study of organizational behavior as it is one of the key fundamental capabilities for how an organization functions. Organizational culture is used to determine how well an employee fits into the organizational context, and it has been asserted that a consensus between the employee and his/her organization is important (O'Reilly et al., 1991, Silverthorne, 2004, Nazir, 2005).

Furthermore, many research studies found that organizational culture was correlated with the commitment level of employees in the organization (Silverthorne, 2004, Nazir, 2005). A strong culture created consistency in the beliefs and values largely shared throughout the organization. This definition directly linked culture to commitment. The culture was considered very strong when the employees realized the organizational goals and they worked for those goals which increased their commitment level. No matter how strong the culture would be, it definitely affected and influenced the action of every employee in the organization (Deal, & Kennedy, 1982). It is asserted that an individual is attracted to organizations with similar values to their own and will retain a higher commitment level (O'Reilly et al., 1991, Smith, 2003).

The purpose of this chapter is to gain insights into organizational cultures, cultural dimensions and typologies in order to answer the research questions related to the impact of organizational cultural satisfaction on the commitment level of

employees in sample organizations as stated in Chapter 1. Hofstede's dimensions of organizational culture were selected to use in this research.

O'Reilly (1989) and Chen (2004) believed that organizational culture was an important factor in driving employee commitment. Sathe (1983) also asserted that the shared values in organizational culture helped employees to identify themselves and feel attached to the organization.

Rowe and Dickel (1994) pointed out that there was a gap between the existing and preferred organizational cultures, and Harrison and Stokes' study (1992) enabled organizations to identify whether the gap existed in their work environment.

The gap in culture existed when there was a difference between the existing organizational culture and the preferred or desired culture (Bourantas, & Papalexandris, 1992). Bourantas and Papalexandris (1992) assessed the effect of the cultural gap on the commitment of an organization's managers, and found that a negative cultural gap (perceived as poorer than expected) negatively affected the level of commitment of managers towards their organizations, and a positive gap (perceived as better than expected) positively affected the level of commitment.

The concept of a negative gap and a positive gap confirmed the research by Parasuraman et al. (1988), which supported the measurement of satisfaction by calculating these gaps.

Organizational culture influences employees by putting pressure on them to think and act consistently with the existing organizational culture (Greenberg, & Baron, 2003). Nazir (2005) stated that the high level of commitment could be achieved when employees found themselves sharing the same values with their organizations.

Socialization process works by integrating employee values with the existing values of the organization, so it likely results in an optimum level of organizational cultural satisfaction, which finally should increase the employee commitment level (Nazir, 2005).

Clugston, Howell and Dorfman (2000) and Rowe and Dickel (1994) believed that the right type of culture would result in a high commitment level and high performance. Martin (2001) suggested that a strong achievement culture would be the best cultural type for yielding a high level of commitment due to the fact that employees would be supportive to organizational goals.

Many researchers agree that culture is an important factor in determining how much an individual is satisfied with an organizational context (Schein, 1985; Kilmann, Saxton, & Serpa, 1986) and that individuals' values and expectations, interaction with organizational situations, and incentive systems and norms affected their attitudinal and behavioral responses. Therefore, we can assume that high level of cultural satisfaction would result in high level of commitment

Hypothesis 2: The greater level of organizational cultural satisfaction results in the greater level of employees' organizational commitment.

2.5 Distributive and Procedural Justice

2.5.1 Definition

Greenberg (1990) suggested that the concept of organizational justice could explain many organizational behavior outcome variables. Organizational justice by itself referred to the role of fairness, which was directly related to the workplace. It concerned the way employees perceived if they were treated fairly in their jobs and the perception affected other work-related variables. Two sources of organizational justice were distributive justice, which explained the fairness of the outcomes an employee receives, and procedural justice, which explained the fairness of the procedures used to determine those outcomes (Folger, & Greenberg, 1985).

Folger and Konovsky (1989) defined distributive justice as "the perceived fairness of the amount of compensation employees receive" and procedural justice as "the perceived fairness of the means used to determine those amounts". To some extent, different impacts were caused by different types of justice.

According to equity theory, distributive justice was defined as "the perceived proportion of individual's inputs into and outcomes derived from the relationship in comparison with the inputs and outcomes of relevant others" (Adams, 1965). This kind of justice shaped an individual's work motivation and job satisfaction (Walster et al., 1978).

Another set of theory stated that employees' reactions depended on the fairness of the procedures used by the other party to plan and implement resource allocation decisions. Thibaut and Walker (1975) defined procedural justice as "(a) a

process control, referring to how much people are allowed to present evidence on their behalf before the decision is made, and (b) decision control, whether individuals have any say in the actual rendering of the decision".

2.5.2 Components of Distributive and Procedural Justice

Various principles are used to assess how rewards or resources are distributed. Equality, equity, and need are among the most widely used criteria to determine fairness of outcome distribution (Deutsch, 1975).

In case that equality is regarded as the ultimate criterion in determining who gets what, rewards will be distributed equally among all persons. However, due to the differences in the level of need, this will not result in an equal outcome.

According to the principle of need, those who need more of a benefit or resource will receive more, as evidenced when colleges offer needs-based scholarships, or states provide welfare for the poor.

Another acceptable approach in a competitive environment is the principle of equity, where benefits are distributed in proportion to an individual's contribution. Thus, those who make a greater productive contribution to their group deserve to receive more benefits. This sort of distribution is typically associated with a competitive environment as in private organizations where everyone has an equal chance to compete or an equal access to information in order to help them make a contribution.

A system of competition has been proposed that includes safety nets for those who cannot compete. This sort of system combines the principle of equity with that of need. It has attempted to reward people for their productivity at the same time that it has ensured their basic needs are met. An example of this system is the guarantee bonus given to every employee.

Finally, resources might be distributed in accordance with social utility, or what is in the best interest of society as a whole. The argument frequently made by high-paid executives is that they deserve their high salaries because of their contributions to the businesses and their taking more risks and responsibilities. Thus, paying them highly benefits society as a whole. Others, however, contended that taxing them highly and using the income to provide services to the less fortunate would be of greater overall benefit to the society.

As for the components of procedural justice. Leventhal, Karuza and Fry (1980) suggested that procedures for determining the decisions related to employees were fair needed to have the following characteristics;

1) Consistency of implementation
2) Free from self interest
3) Based on the basis of accurate information
4) Provide opportunities to correct the decision
5) Concern the interests of all related parties, and
6) Follow moral and ethical standards

Blader and Tyler (2003) suggested a four-component model of procedural justice. The model identifies two dimensions, procedural function and the source of the procedure, which are combined to develop the components that give procedural justice judgments their meaning. Blader and Tyler referred to the structural aspects of groups, such as group rules, as "formal" influences on justice, whereas particular individuals were referred to as "informal" influences on the overall perception of process fairness.

The two dimensions, procedural function and source, are theoretically orthogonal to each other and can be crossed to establish a model that stipulates four types of concerns that people have when judging process fairness. These four types of concerns or judgments are:

1) Evaluations of formal rules and policies related to how decisions are made in the group (formal decision-making).

2) Evaluations of formal rules and policies that influence how group members are treated (formal quality of treatment).

3) Evaluations of how a particular group of authorities makes decisions (informal decision making), and

4) Evaluations of how a particular group of authorities treats group members (informal quality of treatment).

Each of these concerns is hypothesized and tested to see its influence on the overall assessment of procedural justice.

2.5.3 Antecedents of Distributive and Procedural Justice

To determine distributive justice antecedents, many research studies identified relevant organizational outcomes that reflected the general perception of the term "distributive justice": pay, benefits, punishments, security, job complexity, supervision, rewards intrinsic to the job, seniority benefits, fringe benefits, and job status, for example (Adams, 1965).

However, based on equity theory, these mentioned outcomes would be qualified as antecedents when combined with individuals' assessment of their relevant inputs e.g. effort, expertise, tenure or special expertise, in comparison to the relevant inputs and outcomes of referent colleagues. In short, any benefits that are given out freely irrelevant to effort will not count as the outcomes of distributive justice (Ambrose, & Arnold, 2005).

As for procedural justice antecedents, Lind and Tyler (1988) described many procedural justice phenomena, suggesting that people saw procedures as a source of important information about their social identity. Lind, Tyler and Huo (1997) argued that procedures would be perceived as fair if they comprised a significant message that an employee was a full-fledged member of the group or society mandating the procedures. Procedures in Lind's term were described as fair when they offered reassurance that the person would not be excluded from the group or relegated to a second-class status, with accompanying diminution of social identity.

Tyler (1989) developed three relational variables on the basis of group-value theory. These relational variables turned out to be important antecedents of procedural justice judgments. The findings confirmed that relational variables were significantly correlated with procedural justice judgments. As procedural fairness judgments were used as summary judgments about relationships with groups and organizations, it made sense that fairness would be defined largely in relational terms. An organizations was often seen as representative of the entire group or society, and thus perception of one's relation to an organization was an important indicator of one's relation to the entire group.

Some particular relational issues that people seem to consider most in making procedural justice judgments are:

1) Inferences about the organization's motivations, especially its willingness to consider employees' needs and to try to make fair decisions (trust in benevolence),

2) Feelings that the organization has treated its employee with dignity and respect appropriately for a full-fledged member of the group (status recognition), and

3) The belief that decisions are based on a full and open accurate assessment of the facts (neutrality)

2.5.4 Impact of Distributive and Procedural Justice on Organizational Commitment

Cropanzano and Folger (1991) asserted that distributive justice was more influential than procedural justice in terms of determining an individual's satisfaction with the results of decisions such as satisfaction in the pay level, while procedural justice was more important when used for an individual's evaluation of the system or institution that enacted the decision, such as organizational commitment and trust in the supervisor. Although an individual's satisfaction is considered as an antecedent of organizational commitment, the impact of distributive justice on organizational commitment must not be overlooked.

McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) confirmed that procedural justice was a more important predictor on organizational outcomes (e.g. organizational commitment and trust in the supervisor) than distributive justice, whereas distributive justice was a more important predictor for personal outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction) than its counterpart.

So to speak, the fairness of an organization's procedures had a greater impact on organizational commitment than the fairness of personal outcomes on the ground that procedures helped define an organization's capabilities to treat its employees fairly. An example of situation was when employees saw procedures or the evaluation methods as fair, they would view the organization positively, even if they were not satisfied with their salary raise.

2.5.5 Interaction Effects of Distributive and Procedural Justice on Organizational Commitment

Brockner and Wiesenfeld (1996) stated that fairness in outcome and fairness in procedures could not be studied separately to one another because the effect of procedural justice on an individual's reaction to a decision depended largely on the level of outcome favorability and vice versa. Cropanzano and Folger (1991) confirmed that to fully understand fairness, the effect of interaction between outcomes and procedures needed to be considered.

Greenberg (1987) found an interaction of distributive justice and procedural justice. That is, an individual saw a high pay as fair regardless of procedures, but would see a low pay as fair only when procedural justice was used.

McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) confirmed Greenberg's statement as they found that employees who felt procedures were fair tended to have a higher level of organizational commitment than those who perceived otherwise, and this specific gap of commitment level was larger when distributive justice was low. When procedural justice was low, organizational commitment varied significantly as a function of distributive justice. When procedural justice was high, organizational commitment varied little as a function of distributive justice.
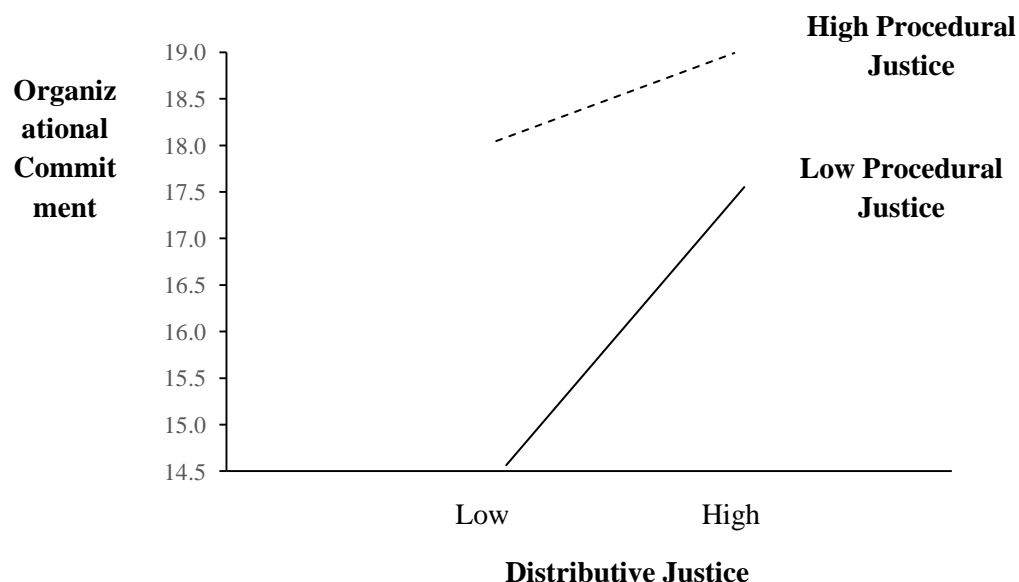
Figure 2.7 Interaction Effects of Distributive and Procedural Justice on Organizational Commitment

Source: McFarlin, & Sweeney, 1992.

In line with the referent cognitions theory (Cropanzano, & Folger, 1989), these interactions showed that the combination of unfair procedures and low outcomes produced the lowest level of organizational commitment. On the contrary, fair procedures produced a high organizational commitment level regardless of the outcome level. It could be concluded that under the fair procedures, employees would find it difficult to imagine more possible positive outcomes.

The referent cognitions theory also explained why these interactions had effects on organizational outcomes, but not personal ones. It could be said that when employees were dissatisfied with their outcomes, they needed to justify that their dissatisfaction resulted from poor procedures, and organizational outcomes represented a valid target to blame. That was why organizational outcomes were an institutional source of procedures that affected employees. Therefore, we can set hypotheses that perceived procedural justice and perceived distributive justice are positively related to organizational commitment and that procedural justice and distributive justice have interactive effects on organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived procedural justice is positively related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived distributive justice is positively related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 5: Procedural justice and distributive justice have interactive effects on organizational commitment.

2.6 Perceived Organizational Support

2.6.1 Definition

According to Eisenberger, Huntington and Hutchison (1986) and Graen and Scandura (1987), there were two types of social exchange. Exchange between an employee and an employing organization was called Perceived Organization Support (POS) while exchange between an employee and his/her supervisor was called leader-member exchange (LMX).

The concept of "Perceived Organizational Support" or POS helps to explain the development of employees' commitment to an organization. The term POS is

defined as "the global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values employees' contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1986). In the social exchange framework, a high level of POS creates a feeling of obligation, which not only results in the commitment to their employer but also develop their behaviors that support organizational goals.

POS is a new concept and many studies have shown that POS is distinctive from other concepts, such as perceived supervisor support, organizational politics and organizational commitment. However, there is a particular concept worth comparing with POS, organizational climate. POS is based on a particular work history of an employee and his/her perception on whether the employer has committed to him/her as an individual while the organizational climate reflects an individual's interpretation of the work environment he/she shares with other employees. (Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990).

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986) suggested on the definition of perceived organizational support as, in order for employees to meet needs for approval, affiliation, esteem, and to determine the company's readiness to compensate the increased effort with better rewards and remuneration; they will form a perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being.

2.6.2 Components of Perceived Organizational Support

According to organizational support theory, there are psychological processes underlying the consequences of perceived organizational support.

Firstly, the reciprocity values, POS should produce employees' obligation to care about the organization's welfare and to help the organization to reach its objectives. Secondly, the caring, approval and respect resided in POS should answer the employees' socioemotional needs, thus leading them to incorporate organizational membership and role status into their social identity. Lastly, according to the theory of performance-reward expectancies, POS should strengthen employees' beliefs that their organization recognizes and rewards the improved performance.

These processes, if exercised wisely, should result in favorable outcomes for the organization in terms of higher commitment level, performance and reduced

turnover rate, and for the employees in terms of an increase in job satisfaction (Rhoades, & Eisenberger, 2002)

According to Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro (1990), the perception of being valued and cared about by the organization was related to three factors, which were

1) Conscientiousness in carrying out conventional job responsibilities

2) Expressed affective and calculative involvements in the organization, and

3) Innovation on behalf of the organization in the absence of anticipated direct reward or personal recognition

2.6.3 Antecedents of Perceived Organizational Support

Wayne, Shore and Liden (1997) identified developmental experiences and promotions as two key antecedents of Perceived Organizational Support. Eisenberger et al. (1986) argued that employees develop perceptions of organizational support because they tended to ascribe traits and personalities into organizations through a process of "personification" (Levinson, 1965). The personification of an employer reflected the accumulation of rewards and punishment that the employees received from employer or other more powerful members over time. POS increased when the employees viewed the organization's actions as discretionary and reflecting a positive evaluation towards them.

According to signaling theory, employees observe that there is linkage between certain human resource decisions and valued rewards. Two types of human resource practices are investment in individuals (e.g. training) and organizational recognition (e.g. salary increase) (Shore and Shore, 1995). Employees tend to see these human resource decisions as meaningful indicators for their future organizational support.

This finding was in line with feedback theory (Sheridan, Kratochwill, & Elliott, 1990), which explains that an employee is likely to seek for information relevant to his/her important personal goals: for example, career opportunities and continued employment. These human resource decisions are viewed by employees as indicating positive evaluations. However, benefits which are not related to performance (e.g. retirement benefits) are not associated with POS.

In summary, discretionary organizational investment referred to developmental experiences and organizational recognition referred to promotions. According to signal theory and feedback theory, employees who received more promotions and developmental experiences tended to perceive a higher level of POS.

2.6.4 Impact of Perceived Organizational Support to Organizational Commitment Level

Eisenberger (1988) stated that perceived organizational support should strengthen affective attachment to the organization. Therefore, employees with high-perceived support were predicted to express stronger feelings of affiliation and loyalty to the organization. Perceived organizational support was associated with expectancies that high performance would produce material rewards, such as pay and promotion, and social rewards, such as approval and recognition.

Wayne et al. (1997) developed an integrated model of social exchange to link the outcome of POS and that of LMX. They expected that POS would be associated with outcomes that affected the whole organization while LMX would be associated with outcomes that affected leaders and immediate work groups. According to social exchange theory, the model assumed that POS would contribute to an organization's performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), reflecting the fact that employees who felt they were well supported by the company tended to reciprocate by giving back better performance and to engage more in desired organizational behavior.

Moreover, the model assumed that POS would exclusively affect affective commitment and intention to quit, which was consistent with Eisenberger's statement (1990) that employees became affectively committed to their organizations when they feel that organizations are committed to them (POS). Likewise, Guzzo, Noonan and Elron (1994) stated that employees who viewed their organization gave them low support tended to seek employment elsewhere.

POS was proven to have a positive relationship with affective commitment and a negative relationship with intention to leave as shown in the model below.
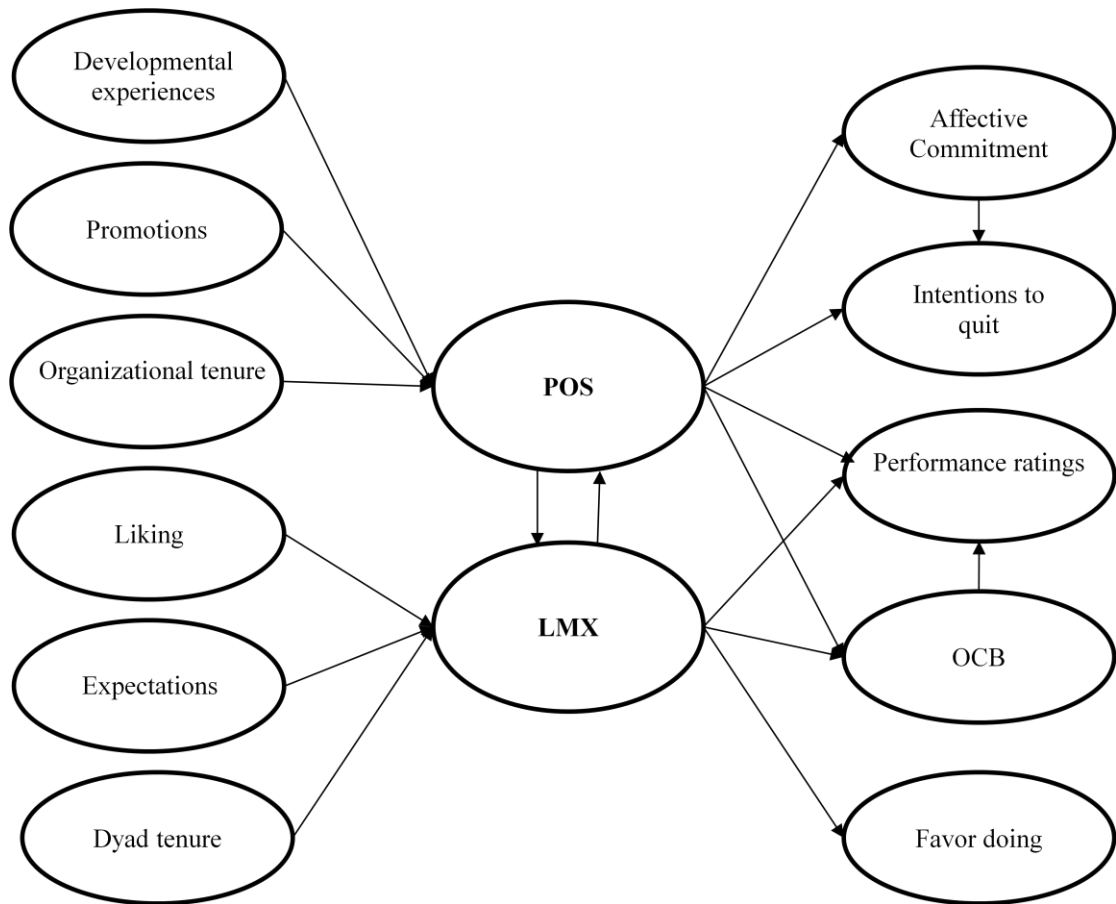
Figure 2.8 Structural Path Estimated of POS Hypothesized Model
Source: Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997.

As reviewed earlier, affective commitment was one of the three components contributing to organizational commitment. Therefore, POS which was positively related to affective commitment should also be positively related to the organizational commitment as a whole. Therefore, employees with high-perceived support are predicted to express stronger feelings of affiliation and loyalty to the organization and eventually result in high commitment level.

Hypothesis 6: Perceived organizational support is positively related to organizational commitment.

2.7 Job Position and Age

2.7.1 Definition

A job position is generally defined as a brief description of responsibilities and authority held by a particular employee in the organization. Descriptions of job positions include the terms executive, manager, director, chief, supervisor, staff etc.

In this study, job positions of the samples were divided into two categories: managers and staff. A Manager is defined as a person responsible for controlling or administering all or part of a company or similar organization, whereas staff is defined as persons who mainly work under the authority or control of a manager within an organization.

There is a distinction in the roles of managers who have subordinates and those who do not. Managers who have subordinates tend to assess human resource skills. However, to avoid the difficulty in defining the term managers, the titles that organizations have given the respondents were used as criteria.

The definition of age is straightforward. This research took into consideration the age of the respondents to see the relationship between their age and their commitment level. It was also assumed that age often came in package with maturity, emotional intelligence and life experience.

2.7.2 The Impact of Job Position on Organizational Commitment

According to O'Malley (2000) and Karrash (2003), commitment antecedents have been studied in the form of personal characteristics or employees' contribution to the organization. This suggests that the personal attributes of employees interact with determinants of commitment in the workplace. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1992) investigated the role of personal characteristics and found that demographic factors of the employees could predict their commitment to the organization.

Dex, Scheibl, Smith, & Coussey (2000) stated that employees at a high job level generally had a higher level of commitment than those at a low level in organizations. An earlier study conducted by Sommer, Bae and Luthans (1996) found that length of service and job rank of the employees were significantly related to employee commitment at work.

Olukayode (2013) confirmed with empirical evidence that a significant association existed between job status and employee commitment. This meant the employees' grade and distinction was important in determining employees' commitment level to the organization.

Table 2.2 Correlation between Job Satisfaction, Occupational Commitment, Intent to Stay and Demographic Characteristics Among Chinese Nurses

Variables	Intent to Stay		Occupational Commitment		Job Satisfaction	
	r	Sig(2-tailed	r	Sig(2-tailed	r	Sig(2-tailed
Age	0.158	<0.001	0.093	0.035	0.096	0.030
Educational level	-0.014	0.760	0.032	0.466	-0.004	0.936
Years of employment	0.069	0.118	0.025	0.572	0.045	0.309
Job position	0.174	<0.001	0.213	<0.001	0.142	<0.01

Source: Wang, Tao, Ellenbecker, & Liu, 2012.

2.7.3 The Impact of Age on Organizational Commitment

Wang, Tao, Ellenbecker and Liu (2012) studied the impact of nurses' demographic variables on organizational commitment and found that they were positively related to the level of occupational commitment. Job positions in most cases were positively related to increasing age. Most older nurses were likely to have a higher position, wage, more benefits, and greater achievements, contributing to a higher level of occupational commitment. However, education level and years of employment had no significant correlation with occupational commitment.

Researchers using career-stage models to examine the age/tenure-commitment relationship have primarily relied on Super's developmental model (1957), which argued that younger and less experienced workers would be less committed to their employers than would older, more tenured workers. According to Super's theory, people passed through four stages: trial, establishment, maintenance, and decline. In the trial stage, workers were the least committed and involved with their jobs. In the

establishment stage, worker commitment and involvement increased and remained at a high level throughout the maintenance stage. In the final stage, decline, people were beginning to or preparing to withdraw from their jobs and might experience a decline in commitment and involvement.

There are three explanations for the relationship between age/tenure and commitment. First, older and more tenured workers have more access to positive work experiences, thus having a higher level of commitment (Allen, & Meyer, 1993; Meyer, & Allen, 1997; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). A second explanation for the difference in commitment between older and younger workers is generational. Allen and Meyer (1993) examined the relationship between commitment and career stages based on age and job tenure using a sample of library employees and a sample of clerical, supervisory, and management personnel in a hospital. They found that affective commitment was more strongly associated with age than tenure.

The final explanation, referred to as the moderating hypothesis, states that change in commitment is due to age and tenure interacting with work experiences. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) theorized that different experiences might affect commitment at various career stages. In a worker's early employment period, factors such as supervision and relations with coworkers may be most important, while at later stages of the career, job autonomy may be more important. Therefore, we can hypothesize that high job position would result in high commitment level and age is positively related to commitment level.

Hypothesis 7: Job position is positively related with organizational commitment level; accordingly, managers have a higher commitment level than staff.

Hypothesis 8: Age is positively related with organizational commitment level

Table 2.3 Synthesized Definitions of Key Variables

Variables	Authors	Definition	Synthesized Definition
Organizational Commitment	Salancik (2007)	Behavioral approach: an employee is committed to an organization when a person is behaving more than normative expectation in order to link oneself to the organization.	Organizational Commitment refers to strong attachment between employees and their organization. This can
	Sheldon (1971)	Attitudinal approach: an employee is committed to an organization when a person's identity or personal goals are linked to the organization.	be seen in the way that the employees show a strong desire to remain in the
	Hall et al. (1970)	A person wishes to remain the membership of an organization in order to pursue the organizational goals.	organization by portraying
	Porter, & Smith (1976)	Three characteristics of commitment consists of a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.	desired behavior and effort to maintain their membership.
Organizational satisfaction	Engel et al. (1968)	A concept of satisfaction increases as performance: expectation ratio increases.	Organizational satisfaction refers to the compatibility

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Variables	Authors	Definition	Synthesized Definition
	Oliver (1980)	The effect of expectation and discrepancy perceptions is a suitable method in measuring objective construct. Satisfaction is a result of expectation effects and disconfirmation effects.	between perceived and expected performance which employees hold
	Churchill (1982)	The magnitude of disconfirmation generates satisfaction and dissatisfaction.	towards their own organizations in multiple
	Lofquist, & Dawis (1969)	Satisfaction results from "a harmonious relationship between the individual and his environment, suitability of the individual to the environment and vice versa"	dimension of values.
	Tom (1971)	The greater the similarity between an individual's self-concept and his or her image of an organization, the more that individual preferred that organization.	
Organizational strategic satisfaction	Hambrick (1980)	Organizational strategy is defined as a pattern of important decisions, which guide the organization in its relationship with its environment.	objectives and its stream of important decisions. Strategic satisfaction
	Wit, & Meyer (1998)	Organizational strategy is about achieving a match between an organization and its environment.	therefore can be shown in terms of the compatibility between the ideas of the

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Variables	Authors	Definition	Synthesized Definition
	Mintzberg (1978)	Strategy is pattern in a stream of decisions. Strategy can be formulated through conscious processes before the decision is made or the strategy can form gradually through the decision making process itself.	employees and those of the management team.
	Chandler (1990)	Strategy is the determination of the basic long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals.	
	Porter (1996)	Strategy is the process of creating a unique and valuable position with series of activities.	
Organizational cultural satisfaction	Deal and Kennedy (1982)	Organizational culture is the integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thought, speech, action and artifacts and depends on man's capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations.	Organizational cultural satisfaction refers to the extent of compatibility between a set of cognitions that employees and their organizations portray, which includes values, norms, and

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Variables	Authors	Definition	Synthesized Definition
	O'reilly et al. (1991)	Organizational culture is a set of cognitions shared by members of an organization, which includes fundamental assumptions, values, behavioral norms and expectations.	assumptions. Organizational cultural satisfaction can be shown in a way that the organization's values yield a positive impact to employees or are positively related to their expected values.
	Schein (1992)	Organizational culture is a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.	
	Rowe et al. (1994)	Defined organizational culture as a combination of shared values, assumption, norms and expectation of the people within an organization through socialization process.	
	Ceertz (1973)	Organizational culture can be thought of as a set of cognitions shared by members of a social unit	
	Holland (1985)	An individual will select a career that is similar to or fits with that person's self-concept	

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Variables	Authors	Definition	Synthesized Definition
	Meir, & Hasson (1982)	Fit between individuals' personalities and the contents of their occupations are associated with high level of probabilities that employees retain in their jobs	
	Ashforth, & Mael (1989)	The pervasiveness and importance of values in organizational culture are fundamentally linked to the psychological process of identity formation in which individuals appear to seek a social identity that provides meaning and connectedness	
	Chatman (1989)	The socialization process will help shape the preferred and expected behaviors within organizations to further enhance the cultural satisfaction	
	Schneider (1987)	Proposed that individuals may be attracted to organizations they perceive as having values similar to their own.	
Distributive Justice	Folger, & Konovsky (1989)	Defined distributive justice as "the perceived fairness of the amount of compensation employees receive"	Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness in the outcomes an employee

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Variables	Authors	Definition	Synthesized Definition
	Folger, & Greenberg (1985)	Distributive justice explains the fairness of the outcomes an employee receives	receives. The perception of fairness is proportionate to inputs and outcomes from his/her effort and is also in relation to his/her relevant colleagues.
	Adams (1965)	According to equity theory, distributive justice is defined as "the perceived proportion of individual's inputs into and outcomes derived from the relationship in comparison with the inputs and outcomes of relevant others"	
	Walster et al. (1978)	Distributive justice is a kind of justice that shapes individual's work motivation and job satisfaction	
Procedural Justice	Folger, & Konovsky (1989)	Defined procedural justice as "the perceived fairness of the means used to determine those amounts"	Procedural justice Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of
	Folger, & Greenberg (1985)	Procedural justice explains the fairness of the procedures used to determine outcomes.	means, methods and procedures used to determine the outcomes of

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Variables	Authors	Definition	Synthesized Definition
	Thibaut, & Walker (1975)	Procedural justice is a process control, referring to how much people are allowed to present evidence on their behalf before the decision is made, and decision control, whether individuals have any say in the actual rendering of the decision".	an employee's work. It is considered as both a process control and a decision control that made sure the decisions have sufficient evidence and open to criticism.
Perceived Organizational Support	Graen, & Scandura (1987)	POS refers to exchanges between an employee and employing organization	
	Eisenberger et al. (1986)	The term POS is defined as "The global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values employees' contributions and cares about their wellbeing"	Perceived organizational support refers to the employees' perception of whether their organization considers them as individuals by valuing their contribution and caring about their wellbeing.
	Kopelman et al. (1990)	POS is based on the particular work history of employees and their perception on whether their employers committed to them as an individual while organizational climate reflects on individual's interpretation of a work environment they share with other employees.	

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Table 2.4 Summary of Literature Reviews

Variables	Synthesized definition	Components	Antecedents	Impact to commitment
Organizational commitment	Organizational commitment is the strong attachment between employees and their organizations. This can be displayed in the way that employees show strong desires to remain in the organization by portraying desired behavior and effort to maintain their membership.	1) Commitment is based on three general themes: affective attachment to organizations, perceived cost in leaving and obligation to remain (Meyer, & Allen, 1991). 2) Three-component Model of organizational commitment: affective, continuance and normative commitment (Meyer, & Allen, 1991).	1) Antecedents of affective commitment derived from four factors; personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job-related characteristics and work experiences (Mowday et al., 1982). 2) Increase in perceived cost can be considered as antecedents of continuance commitment (Mowday et al., 1982).	N/A

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Variables	Synthesized definition	Components	Antecedents	Impact to commitment
			3) Normative commitment may develop when an organization rewards the employee in advance (Scholl, 1981)	
Organizational strategic satisfaction	Organizational strategic satisfaction refers to the match between employees' expectation of their organization's direction and actual organizations' objectives and its stream of important decisions. Organizational strategic	Five dimensions of organizational strategic satisfaction: 1) Narrow target Vs. Broad target 2) Slow response Vs. Fast response 3) Tight control Vs. Loose control	1) Miles and Snow's Innovation Strategy Typology (1978): Defender, Prospector, Analyzer and Reactor. 2) Porter's Competitive Advantage Strategy (1985): Cost leadership,	1) The organizational strategic satisfaction as a dimension of the person-organization fit concept and its impact to the level of commitment and intention to stay (Da Silva et al., 2010)

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Variables	Synthesized definition	Components	Antecedents	Impact to commitment
	satisfaction therefore can be displayed in terms of compatibility of ideas between those of employees and the management team.	4) Cost focus Vs. Differentiation 5) Dynamic vs. Stable (Synthesized by author of this research)	Differentiation and Focus.	2) By having personal goals and values that match the goals and values of the organization will result in lower levels of intentions to leave the organization (Cable, & Judge, 1996)
Organizational cultural satisfaction	Organizational cultural satisfaction refers to the extent of similarity between a set of cognitions, which includes values, norms, assumption, and expectation	Six dimensions of organizational cultural satisfaction: 1) Process-oriented Vs. Results-oriented 2) Job-oriented Vs.	1) Hellriegel's Organizational Culture Typology: bureaucratic culture, clan culture, entrepreneurial culture, and market culture.	1) An individual is attracted to organizations with the similar values with their own and will pertain in higher

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Variables	Synthesized definition	Components	Antecedents	Impact to commitment
	that employees and their organizations portray. The organizational cultural satisfaction can be displayed in a way that employees' preferred and expected behaviors within organizations are close to each other.	Employee-oriented 3) Professional Vs. Parochial 4) Open systems Vs. Close systems 5) Tight Vs. loose control 6) Pragmatic Vs. normative (Hofstede et al., 1990)	2) Rowe's Organizational Culture Typology: productive culture, quality culture, creative culture, and supportive culture. 3) Harrison and Stokes's Organizational Culture typology: power culture, role culture, task culture, and atomistic culture.	commitment level (O'Reilly et al., 1991; Smith, 2003). 2) Organizational culture correlates with the commitment level of employees in the organization (Nazir, 2005; Silverthorne, 2004).
Distributive justice	Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness in the outcomes an employee	Equality, equity, and need are among the most widely used criteria to determine	Outcomes e.g. Pay, benefits, punishments, security, job complexity,	Distributive justice is more influential than procedural justice in

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Table 2.4 (Continued)

Variables	Synthesized definition	Components	Antecedents	Impact to commitment
	receives. The perception of fairness is proportionate with inputs into and outcomes derived from their effort and also in relation to relevant others.	fairness of outcome distribution (Deutsch, 1975).	supervision, rewards intrinsic to the job, seniority benefits, fringe benefits, and job status would be qualified as antecedents when combined with individuals' assessment with their relevant inputs e.g. effort, expertise, tenure or special expertise (Adams, 1963).	terms of determining individual's satisfaction with the results of decisions such as satisfaction in pay level. However, these satisfactions are considered to be antecedents of organizational commitment (Cropanzano, & Folger, 1981).

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Variables	Synthesized definition	Components	Antecedents	Impact to commitment
Procedural justice	Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of means, methods and procedures used to determine outcomes for employees. It is considered as a process control and decision control that made sure the decisions have sufficient evidence and open to opinions.	1) Procedural characteristics (Leventhal, 1980): (a) Consistency of implementation (b) Free from self interest (c) Based on the basis of accurate information (d) Open opportunities to correct the decision (e) Concern the interests of all related parties, and (f) Follow moral and ethical standards	Three relational variables from the basis of group-value theory (Tyler, 1989): trust in benevolence, status recognition, and neutrality.	1) Procedural justice is more important when determining individuals' evaluation of the system or institution that enacted the decision, such as organizational commitment and trust in supervisor (Cropanzano, & Folger, 1981)

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Variables	Synthesized definition	Components	Antecedents	Impact to commitment
		2) Four types of procedural justice; formal/ informal decision making, formal/ informal quality of treatment (Blade, & Tyler, 2003)		2) Procedural justice is a more important predictor on organizational outcomes e.g. organizational commitment and trust in supervisor than distributive justice (McFarlin, & Sweeney, 1992).
Perceived organizationalsupport	Perceived organizational support refers to the perception of employees whether their organizations commit to them as an	Three psychological process of POS (Rhoades, & Eisenberger, 2002): 1) Create employees' obligation to care about the	1) Two key antecedents of POS: developmental experiences and promotions (Wayne et al., 1997).	1) Employees become affectively committed to organizations when they feel that organizations are

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Variables	Synthesized definition	Components	Antecedents	Impact to commitment
	individual by valuing their contribution and caring about their wellbeing.	organization's welfare and to help the organization to reach its objectives. 2) Lead employees to incorporate in organizational membership and role status into their social identity. 3) Strengthen employees' beliefs that their organizations recognize and reward the improved performance	2) Signaling theory: investment in individuals and organizational recognition (Shore, & Shore, 1995). 3) Feedback theory: discretionary organizational investment and organizational recognition (Sheridan et al., 1990).	committed to them (Eisenberger et al., 1990). 2) Employees who view their organizations with low support tend to seek employment elsewhere (Guzzo et al., 1994) 3) Integrated model of social exchange: POS is proven to have positive relationship with affective commitment and negative relationship with intention to leave (Wayne et al., 1997)

2.8 List of Hypotheses

Hypotheses to be tested were summarized in Table 2.5 below.

Table 2.5 List of Hypotheses

	List of Hypotheses
H1	The greater level of organizational strategic satisfaction results in the greater level of employees' organizational commitment.
H2	The greater level of organizational cultural satisfaction results in the greater level of employees' organizational commitment.
H3	Perceived procedural justice is positively related to organizational commitment.
H4	Perceived distributive justice is positively related to organizational commitment.
H5	Procedural justice and distributive justice have interactive effects on organizational commitment.
H6	Perceived organizational support is positively related to organizational commitment.
H7	Job position is positively related with organizational commitment level; accordingly, managers have a higher commitment level than staff.
H8	Age is positively related to organizational commitment level

2.9 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of organizational commitment was developed based on the literature reviews. The total seven independent variables were hypothesized to see if they had an impact on one dependent variable, which was organizational commitment.

The test variables included organizational strategic satisfaction and organizational cultural satisfaction, distributive and procedural justice. Also

distributive and procedural justices were hypothesized to find out if they had an interaction effect on the commitment level. Control variables included perceived organizational support, job position and age.
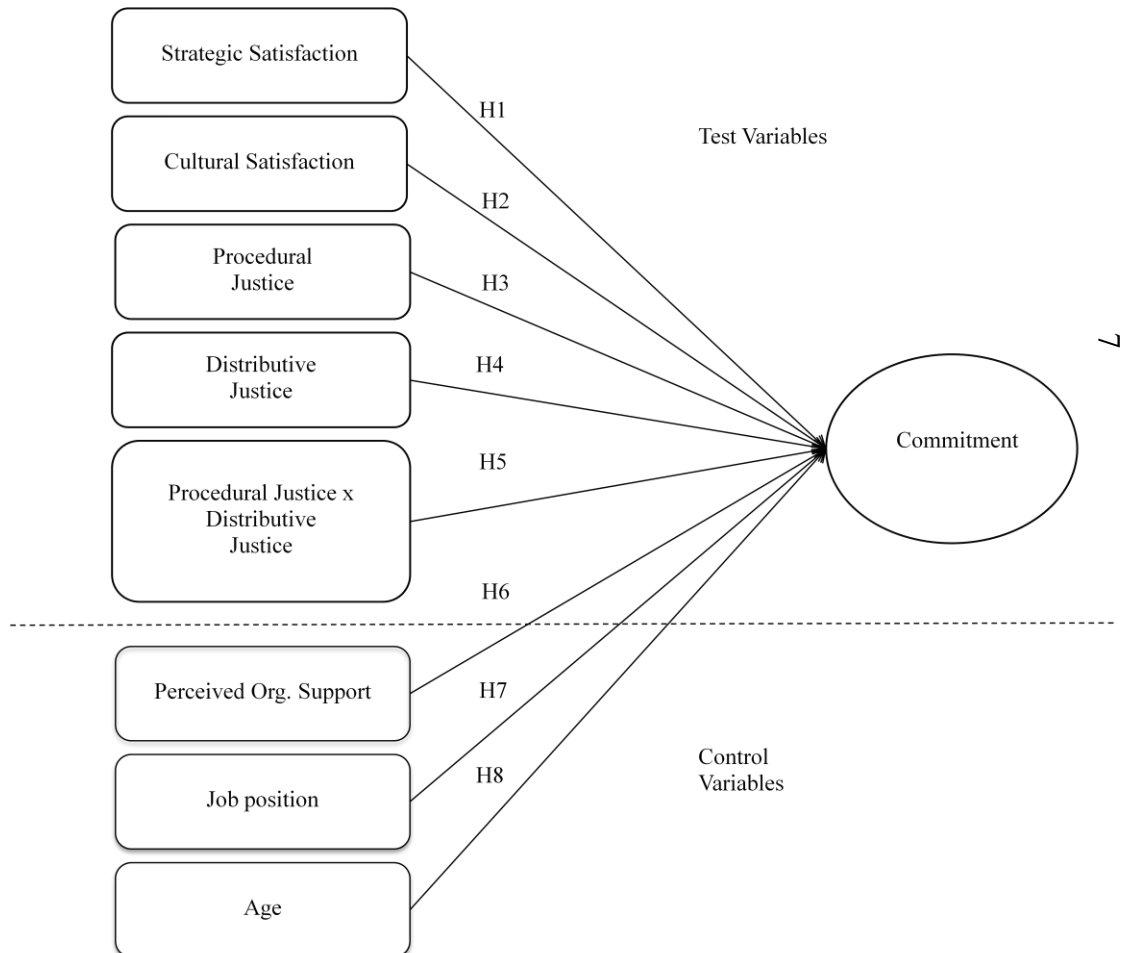
Figure 2.9 Conceptual Framework

Table 2.6 Summary of Relationship between Variables

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable	Relationship	Related literatures
Organizational strategic satisfaction		+	Da Silva et al. (2010); Wheeler et al. (2007); Cable, & Judge (1996); Lovelace, & Rosen (1996); O'Reilly et al. (1991); Vancouver, & Schmitt (1991); Bretz, & Judge (1994); Chatman, Ostroff, & Rothausen, (1997)
Organizational cultural satisfaction	Organizational Commitment	+	O'Reilly (1989); Chen (2004); Sathe (1983); Bourantas, & Papalexandris (1992); Greenberg, & Baron (2003); Nazir (2005), Clugston et al. (2000); Rowe et al. (1994); Martin (2001); Kilmann, Saxton, & Serpa (1986); Schein (1985)
Procedural justice		+	McFarlin, & Sweeney (1992); Thibaut, & Walker (1975); Blader and Tyler (2003)
Distributive justice		+	Cropanzano, & Folger (1981); Folger, & Konovsky (1989); Adams (1965); Walster et al. (1978)
Procedural justice x Distributive justice		+	Greenberg (1987); Brockner, & Wiesenfeld (1996)

Table 2.6 (Continued)

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable	Relationship	Related literatures
Perceived organizational support		+	Eisenberger et al. (1986); Rhoades, & Eisenberger (2002); Wayne at al. (1997), Guzzo et al. (1994)
Job position		+	Karrash (2003); Malley (2000); Dex, Scheibl, & Smith (2000); Sommer et al. (1996); Olukayode (2013)
Age		+	Wang et al. (2012); Super (1957); Allen, & Meyer (1993); Mowday et al.(1982)

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, research methodology was described in two sections: quantitative research method and qualitative research method. Each section encompassed three main topics: participants, instruments and procedures.

3.1 Quantitative Research Method

The model for organizational commitment was proved by multiple regression tools. The data were gathered from 400 current employees in selected companies by using a questionnaire.

3.1.1 Participants

The research aimed to cover all the major industries in Thailand; for example, banking, food, industrial products, retail and services to obtain a variety of strategies and cultures.

This research collected the data from a total of 400 employees in 12 companies. The samples included both managers and staff. In this study, only current employees of the 12 companies were selected to identify the actual or existing organizational strategy and culture and the preferred ones. Current employees would be best samples to witness the actual situations and to identify their preferred way of how things should be done in their companies.

Table 3.1 List of Companies Used as Sample

List of Companies Surveyed	No. of Samples
Banking industry	223
Bangkok Bank Plc.	47
Kasikorn Bank Plc.	65
Siam Commercial Bank Plc.	36
TMB Bank Plc.	75
Retail industry	60
Big C Supercenter Plc.	30
Robinson department store Plc.	30
Food and Beverage industry	23
Dutch Mill Co., Ltd.	9
Thai beverage Plc.	14
Energy and Chemicals	45
PTT Plc.	11
SCG Plc.	34
Service industry	49
Thai airways international Plc.	39
TOT Plc.	10
Total	**400**

Of course, the sample size affects the generalizability of the results (Hair et al., 2009). A general rule is that the ratio of observations to independent variables should never fall under 5:1. In this study, the desired level was 15-20 observations for each independent variable. When this level was reached, the results could be generalized because the samples could represent the population.

3.1.2 Instruments

3.1.2.1 Measures

The measurement tool for each of the variables in this study was a questionnaire. The questionnaire items were grouped into 5 sections. The first section

included demographic details of respondents, i.e., gender, age, position, monthly income, tenure and education level. This section sought the respondents' information about two control variables: job position and age.

The second section was to measure the level of "organizational commitment". The questions were adapted from the set of questionnaire items developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979). There are 15 items in total, which focused on the three components of organizational commitment: affective, continuance and normative commitment. Each item consists of Likert's scales ranging from 1 to 10. Score 1 means "Strongly disagree" whereas score 10 means "Strongly agree". Therefore, the commitment scores ranged from 15 to 150.

The third section measured the "organizational strategic satisfaction". The questionnaire items in this section were developed based on the study by Miles et al. (1978) and Porter and Millar (1985). There were 14 items in total focusing on the perceived existing strategies used in the organization and the preferred level. Each side of measurement ranged from 1 to 10. Score 1 means "Least" found and preferred, and score 10 means "Most" found and preferred. Eventually, both sides scoring will be calculated in terms of satisfaction where perceived level minus existing level. In each item, we will able to get a calculated score from -9 to 9. As we assigned -9 with the value of 1 and +9 with the value of 19, therefore the summation of organizational strategic satisfaction's level would yield the values from 14 to 266.

The fourth section measured the "organizational cultural satisfaction". It contained 16 items focusing on the perceived existing culture in the organization and the preferred scale. The items in this section were developed based on a study by Hofstede et al. (1990). Each side of measurement ranged from 1 to 10. Score 1 means "Least" found and preferred, and score 10 means "Most" found and preferred. Eventually, both sides scoring will be calculated in terms of satisfaction where perceived level minus existing level. In each item, we will able to get a calculated score from -9 to 9. As we assigned -9 with the value of 1 and +9 with the value of 19, therefore the summation of organizational cultural satisfaction's level would yield the values from 16 to 304.

The last section measured other related variables, ranging from distributive and procedural justice, perceived organizational support (POS). There

were 16 items in total. This section of the questionnaire was developed from the original survey items created by Wayne, Shore and Liden (1997) and Price and Mueller (1986).

Distributive justice was measured by three 10-point Likert scale items. Score 1 meant "Strongly disagree" and score 10 meant "Strongly agree" with specific aspects of distributive justice. The summative scores of the distributive justice level ranged from 3 to 30.

Procedural justice was measured by seven 10-point Likert scale items. Score 1 meant "Strongly disagree" and score 10 meant "Strongly agree" with specific aspects of procedural justice. The summative scores of the procedural justice level ranges from 7 to 70.

Lastly, perceived organizational support (POS) was measured by six 10-point Likert scale items. Score 1 meant "Strongly disagree" and score 10 meant "Strongly agree" with specific aspects of organizational support. The summative scores of the perceived organizational support level ranged from 6 to 60.

The questionnaire consisted of 61 10-point Likert scale items in total. Score 1 meant "Strongly disagree" and score 10 meant "Strongly agree". The reason for the use of the 10-point scales is that our variables examine the satisfaction between perceived and preferred strategy and culture. Therefore, we need to scale as detailed as possible to gain variations of the individual gap as following equation.

Commitment level = a + b_1 (organizational strategic satisfaction) + b_2 (organizational cultural satisfaction) + b_3 (Distributive justice) + b_4 (Procedural justice) + b_5 (Distributive x Procedural justice) + b_6 (POS) + b_7 (Job position) + b_8 (Age) + e_i

Table 3.2 Organizational Commitment Questionnaire Items

Questionnaire Items: Organizational Commitment (OCQ)
10 points-scale: Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree

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1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.

ข้าพเจ้าพร้อมที่จะทุ่มเทกับงานเกินกว่าที่หน่วยงานคาดหวังเพื่อให้องค์การนี้ประสบความสำเร็จ

2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.

ข้าพเจ้ามักจะบอกกล่าวกับเพื่อนเสมอว่าองค์การนี้เป็นองค์การที่ยอดเยี่ยมในการทำงานด้วย

3. I feel very loyal to this organization.

ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกว่าข้าพเจ้ามีความภักดีต่อองค์การนี้มาก

4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.

ข้าพเจ้าพร้อมทำทุกเรื่องที่ได้รับมอบหมาย ขอเพียงแค่ได้ทำงานในองค์การนี้

5. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.

ค่านิยมของตัวข้าพเจ้าและขององค์การนี้มีความคล้ายคลึงกัน

6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.

ข้าพเจ้ามีความภาคภูมิใจที่จะบอกผู้อื่นว่าข้าพเจ้าเป็นส่วนหนึ่งขององค์การนี้

7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. (Reverse)

จะทำงานที่ไหน องค์การใดไม่สำคัญ ตราบใดที่ลักษณะงานของข้าพเจ้ายังเป็นเหมือนเดิม

8. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.

องค์การนี้ให้แรงบันดาลใจแก่ข้าพเจ้าในการที่จะทำงานต่อไป

9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. (Reverse)

ถ้าสถานการณ์ในการทำงานแตกต่างออกไปจากปัจจุบันแม้เพียงเล็กน้อย ข้าพเจ้าก็พร้อมที่จะออกจากองค์การทันที

Table 3.2 (Continued)

<div align="center">

Questionnaire Items: Organizational Commitment (OCQ)

10 points-scale: Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree

</div>

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10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.

ข้าพเจ้าคิดว่าข้าพเจ้าได้ตัดสินใจอย่างถูกต้องแล้วในการเลือกที่จะทำงานให้กับองค์การนี

11. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. (Reverse)

ข้าพเจ้าไม่ค่อยได้อะไรมากนักจากการทำงานอยู่กับองค์การนี้

12. Often, I feel comfortable to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.

ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกสบายใจกับนโยบายขององค์การในเรื่องที่เกี่ยวข้องกับพนักงาน

13. I really care about the fate of this organization.

ข้าพเจ้าใส่ใจกับอนาคตขององค์การนี้อย่างจริงจัง

14. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

องค์การนี้เป็นองค์การที่ดีที่สุดสาหรับข้าพเจ้าที่จะทำงานด้วย

15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. (Reverse)

การตัดสินใจทำงานกับองค์การนี้เป็นความผิดพลาดของข้าพเจ้า

Source: Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979.

Table 3.3 Organizational Strategic Satisfaction Questionnaire Items

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<div align="center">

Questionnaire items: Organizational Strategic Satisfaction

10 points-scale: Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree

</div>

Narrow target vs. Broad target

1. We focus on our core activities.

ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ธุรกิจหลักขององค์การ

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Questionnaire items: Organizational Strategic Satisfaction
10 points-scale: Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree

2. We often change our focus to new areas of service provision.

ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความหลากหลายในการทาธุรกิจขององค์การ

3. Focus on advertising.

ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่การโฆษณา

Slow response vs. Fast response

4. Being first to the market.

ความต้องการเป็นเจ้าแรกที่ออกสู่ตลาด

5. We seek to be first to identify new modes of delivery.

ความต้องการที่จะเป็นเจ้าแรกที่ค้นพบวิธีส่งมอบสินค้าและบริการแบบใหม่

6. Searching for new opportunities is a major part of our overall strategy.

การเสาะแสวงหาโอกาสใหม่ๆ ทางธุรกิจ

Tight control vs. Loose control

7. Building and maintaining brand equity.

ความพยายามสร้างและรักษาคุณค่าของตราสินค้า

8. Have strict product quality control procedures.

ความพยายามควบคุมคุณภาพสินค้า

9. The service emphasizes efficiency of provision.

ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ประสิทธิภาพในการผลิตสินค้า

Cost focus vs. Differentiation

10. Serving special market segments.

การตอบสนองความต้องการของกลุ่มเป้าหมายเฉพาะ

11. Pricing below competitors.

ความพยายามที่จะแข่งขันกับคู่แข่งในด้านราคา

12. Focus on Manufacturing process improvements and innovation.

การมุ่งเน้นด้านการพัฒนากระบวนการผลิตและนวัตกรรม

Table 3.3 (Continued)

<div align="center">

Questionnaire items: Organizational Strategic Satisfaction

10 points-scale: Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree

</div>

Dynamic vs. Stable

13. We seek to maintain stable service priorities.

การรักษาไว้ซึ่งความมีเสถียรภาพในการให้บริการ

14. We continually redefine our service priorities.

ความยืดหยุ่นในการเปลี่ยนธุรกิจหลักขององค์การ

Table 3.4 Organizational Cultural Satisfaction Questionnaire Items

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<div align="center">

Questionnaire items: Organizational Cultural Satisfaction

10 points-scale: Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree

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Process-Oriented vs. Results-Oriented

1. Employees are told when good job is done.

การยกย่องชมเชยเมื่อพนักงานทำงานได้ดี

2. Typical members are fast.

ความรวดเร็วในการปฏิบัติงานของพนักงาน

3. Employees are comfortable in unfamiliar situations.

การรับมือกับสถานการณ์ที่ไม่คุ้นเคยของพนักงาน

Employee-Oriented vs. Job-Oriented

4. Important decisions are made by individuals.

การมีอำนาจในการตัดสินใจของพนักงาน

5. Decisions are centralized at top level.

การตัดสินใจแบบรวมศูนย์จากผู้บริหาร

6. People's private life is their own business.

ความสนใจที่องค์การมีต่อปัญหาส่วนตัวของพนักงาน

Table 3.4 (Continued)

Questionnaire items: Organizational Cultural Satisfaction
10 points-scale: Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree

Parochial vs. Professional

7. Job competence is only criterion in hiring people.

ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความสามารถของพนักงานในการทำงาน

8. Organization thinks three years ahead or more.

การวางแผนในระยะยาวขององค์การ

Open System vs. Closed System

9. Only very special people are fit in organization.

ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความสามารถพิเศษเฉพาะบุคคล

10. Management is stingy with small things.

ความตระหนี่ในเรื่องเล็กน้อยของฝ่ายบริหาร

Loose Control vs. Tight Control

11. Everybody is cost-conscious.

ความใส่ใจของพนักงานต่อการช่วยลดค่าใช้จ่ายขององค์การ

12. Meeting time are kept punctually.

ความตรงต่อเวลาของพนักงาน

13. Typical members are well groomed.

การฝึกอบรมพนักงาน

Normative vs. Pragmatic

14. Organization is pragmatic, not dogmatic in matters of ethics.

การยึดหลักปฏิบัติจริงในเรื่องของจริยธรรมองค์การ

15. Organization contributes little to society.

ความมุ่งเน้นในด้านการช่วยเหลือสังคม

16. Major emphasis is on meeting customers' needs.

ความมุ่งเน้นในการตอบสนองความต้องการลูกค้า

Source: Hofstede et al., 1990.

Table 3.5 Perceived Organizational Support Questionnaire Items

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Questionnaire items: Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

10 points-scale: Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree

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1. Management shows very little concern for me. (Reverse)

ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การไม่แสดงออกว่ามีความใส่ใจในตัวข้าพเจ้า

2. Management cares about my general satisfaction at work.

ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การให้ความใส่ใจในความรู้สึกของข้าพเจ้าที่มีต่อการทำงาน

3. Management really cares about my well-being.

ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การใส่ใจความเป็นอยู่ของข้าพเจ้า

4. Management strongly considers my goals and values.

ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การให้ความสำคัญต่อเป้าหมายและค่านิยมของข้าพเจ้า

5. Management cares about my opinions.

ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การสนใจความคิดเห็นของข้าพเจ้า

6. Even if I did the best job possible, management would fail to notice (Reverse)

แม้ว่าข้าพเจ้าจะทำงานได้ดีแค่ไหน ฝ่ายบริหารก็มักจะมองข้าม

Source: Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997.

Table 3.6 Distributive and Procedural Questionnaire Items

Questionnaire items: Distributive and Procedural Justice

10 points-scale: Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree

The following items refer to the procedures used to arrive at your outcome.

To what extent:

1. Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?

ข้าพเจ้าสามารถแสดงความคิดเห็นและความรู้สึกต่อกระบวนการประเมินผลขององค์การ

2. Have you had influence over the outcome arrived by those procedures?

ข้าพเจ้ามีอิทธิพลต่อผลลัพธ์ที่เกิดจากกระบวนการประเมินผล

Table 3.6 (Continued)

Questionnaire items: Distributive and Procedural Justice
10 points-scale: Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree

3. Have those procedures been applied consistently?

กระบวนการในการประเมินผลถูกนำมาใช้อย่างสม่ำเสมอ

4. Have those procedures been free of bias?

กระบวนการในการประเมินผลปราศจากอคติ

5. Have those procedures been based on accurate information?

กระบวนการในการประเมินผลตั้งอยู่บนหลักของข้อมูลที่แม่นยำ

6. Have you been able to appeal the outcome arrived by those procedures?

ข้าพเจ้าสามารถอุทธรณ์ต่อผลลัพธ์ที่เกิดจากกระบวนการประเมินผล

7. Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?

กระบวนการในการประเมินผลได้มาตรฐานทางจริยธรรมและศีลธรรม

The following items refer to your outcome. To what extent:

1. Does your outcome reflect the effort you have put into your work?

ผลตอบแทนสะท้อนถึงความพยายามที่ข้าพเจ้ามีให้กับการทำงาน

2. Is your outcome appropriate for the work you have completed?

ผลตอบแทนมีความเหมาะสมกับสิ่งที่ข้าพเจ้าได้ทำ

3. Is your outcome justified, given your performance?

ผลตอบแทนมีความยุติธรรมเมื่อเทียบกับผลงานของข้าพเจ้า

Source: Thibaut, &Walker, 1975; Leventhal, 1976, 1980.

3.1.3 Procedures

3.1.3.1 Data Collection

The main method of data collection was a questionnaire. The paper-based questionnaires were sent to 400 employees in selected 12 companies by convenient sampling method at sites.

3.1.3.2 Statistical analysis

Firstly, the reliability and validity of the research instrument (questionnaire) were tested to prove that it was a good measurement (Booth, 1995).

In the next step, the information from all of the five sections of the questionnaire was analyzed using descriptive statistics, which included the mean and the standard deviation (Creswell, 1994).

3.1.4 Validity Test

Validity is the extent to which the tool accurately measures what is really happening in a situation that is being researched, and therefore the instrument is valid if it measures what the researcher claims it does (Collis, & Hussey, 2003).

There are several kinds of validity, such as face validity and construct validity. (Collis, & Hussey, 2003). The face validity refers to the subjective agreement that the instrument logically appears to reflect accurately what it purports to measure (Zikmund, 2003). Construct validity confirms how well the results obtained from the use of the measuring instrument fit the theory around which the test is designed (Sekaran, 1992).

A way of assessing the validity of an instrument can be through the use of factor analysis. Factor analysis has the objective of reducing variables that belong together and have overlapping measurement characteristics to a manageable number (Cooper, Schindler, & Sun, 2006).

3.1.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Factor analysis refers to a variety of statistical techniques whose common objective is to gain a small set of hypothetical variables.

In general, the first step of the Exploratory Factor Analysis involves an examination of the interrelationships among the variables. A factor analytic approach may then be used to address whether the observed correlations could be explained by the existence of a small number of hypothetical variables.

At one extreme, the researcher may not have any idea as to how many underlying dimensions there are for the given data. Therefore, factor analysis may be used as an expedient way of ascertaining the minimum number of hypothetical factors that can account for the observed covariation, and as a means of exploring the data for possible data reduction. This form of use is exploratory, with probably the majority of the applications in the social sciences belonging to this category.

In summary, factor analysis is a method for explaining the structure of data by explaining the correlations between variables. Factor analysis summarizes the data into a few dimensions by condensing a large number of variables into a smaller set of latent variables or factors (Tucker, & MacCallum, 1997).

3.1.6 Reliability Test

Zikmund (2003) defines reliability as the degree to which an instrument's measures are free from error, hence yielding consistent results. There are basically three methods for testing the reliability of responses: test-retest, split-halves method and internal consistency method (Collis, & Hussey, 2003).

The reliability of the questionnaire used in this research was assessed through the use of Cronbach's Alpha, which measures the internal consistency of the instrument (Cooper, Schindler, & Sun, 2006). Bryman and Bell (2007) state that Cronbach's Alpha is a commonly used test of internal reliability, which calculates the average of all possible split-half reliability coefficients. The Cronbach's Alpha will produce a value that varies between 1 (perfect internal reliability) and 0 (no internal consistency). The value higher than 0.70 denotes a good level of internal reliability.

3.1.7 Multiple Regression Analysis

A statistical tool, which was mainly used throughout this research study, is multiple regression analysis, a form of general linear modeling. It is a multivariate statistical technique which helps analyze the relationship between a single dependent variable and several independent variables. The flexibility and adaptability of multiple regression allow for its use with almost any dependent relationship.

The objective of this tool is to predict a single dependent variable from the knowledge of independent variables. The process starts with specifying the objectives of the regression analysis, including the selection of the dependent and independent variables. Next, the regression analysis is designed considering factors such as sample size and the need for variable transformation. After the regression model is formulated, the assumptions of regression analysis are tested for individual variables ranging from normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and independence of error terms. When all the assumptions are met, the model is estimated. The interpretation of the

regression varies. The influence of each independent variable on the prediction of dependent variable is examined. Finally, the results are validated to ensure generalizability to the population (Hair, 2009).

3.1.7.1 Test and Control Variables

In this research, eight independent variables were put into multiple regression model according to the earlier mentioned framework. These variables were separated into two groups: test and control variables. Test variables were key factors aimed mainly at answering on the key research questions. They reflected the substance of the whole research. The test variables were the ones in this study which had not been widely explored in other earlier research. These test variables included strategic satisfaction, cultural satisfaction, procedural justice, distributive justice and the product term of procedural justice and distributive justice.

On the other hand, control variables are factors which help fill the missing content and complete the whole picture. They include other straightforward factors or demographic ones, which were widely studied in the past. Adding in these control variables should help increase the R square, which means the whole framework can better predict our dependent variable at a larger extent. Control variables in this research included age, position and perceived organizational support.

3.1.8 Assumption of Regression Analysis

3.1.8.1 Normal Distribution

Regression assumes that variables have normal distributions. Non-normally distributed variables (highly skewed or kurtotic variables, or variables with substantial outliers) can distort relationships and significance tests. There are several pieces of information that are useful for the researcher in testing this assumption: visual inspection of data plots, skew, kurtosis, and P-P plots give researchers information about normality, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests provide inferential statistics on normality. Outliers can be identified either through visual inspection of histograms or frequency distributions, or by converting data to z-scores.

3.1.8.2 Linearity

Standard multiple regression can accurately estimate the relationship between dependent and independent variables only if the relationships are linear in

nature. As there are many instances in social sciences where non-linear relationships occur, it is essential to examine analyses for non-linearity. If the relationship between independent variables (IV) and the dependent variable (DV) is not linear, the results of the regression analysis will under-estimate the true relationship. This under-estimation carries two risks: increased chance of a Type II error for that IV, and in the case of multiple regression, an increased risk of Type I errors (over-estimation) for other IVs that share variance with that IV.

3.1.8.3 Reliability

In simple correlation and regression, unreliable measurement causes relationships to be under-estimated, increasing the risk of Type II errors. In the case of multiple regression or partial correlation, effect sizes of other variables can be over-estimated if the covariate is not reliably measured, as the full effect of the covariate(s) is not removed. This is a significant concern if the goal of research is to accurately model the "real" relationships evident in the population. Although most authors assume that reliability estimates (Cronbach alphas) of 0.7-0.8 are acceptable, measurement of this quality still contains enough measurement error to make correction worthwhile.

3.1.8.4 Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity means that the variance of errors is the same across all levels of the IV. When the variance of errors differs at different values of the IV, heteroscedasticity is indicated. Slight heteroscedasticity has little effect on significance tests; however, when heteroscedasticity is marked, it can lead to serious distortion of findings and seriously weaken the analysis, thus increasing the possibility of a Type I error. This assumption can be checked by visual examination of a plot of the standardized residuals (the errors) by the regression standardized predicted value (Osborne, & Waters, 2002).

Standard multiple regression is the same idea as simple linear regression, except for the fact that several independent variables are used to predict the dependent variable. A significance level of .05 is often considered the standard for what is acceptable. If the significance level is between .05 and .10, then the model is considered marginal.

In addition, standard multiple regression tells how well each independent variable predicts the dependent variable, controlling for each of the other independent variables. There are two kinds of regression coefficients: b (unstandardized) and beta (standardized). The b weight associated with each variable is given to the units of this variable. The beta uses a standard unit that is the same for all variables in the equation. Beta is useful for comparing two variables that are measured in different units.

3.1.9 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is a state of very high intercorrelations or inter-associations among the independent variables. It is therefore a type of disturbance in the data, and if present in the data, the statistical inferences made about the data may not be reliable.

Certain reasons why multicollinearity occurs are an inaccurate use of dummy variables or the inclusion of a variable, which is computed from other variables in the data set. It can also result from the repetition of the same kind of variable and generally occurs when the variables are highly correlated to each other.

Multicollinearity can cause several problems. For example, regression coefficient may not be estimated precisely. The standard errors are likely to be high. It can also result in a change in the signs, thus makes it tedious to assess the relative importance of the independent variables in explaining the variation caused by the dependent variable.

Multicollinearity can also be detected with the help of tolerance and its reciprocal, called variance inflation factor (VIF). If the value of tolerance is less than 0.2 or 0.1 and, simultaneously, the value of VIF 10 and above, then the multicollinearity is problematic.

3.1.10 Interaction Effect

Baron and Kenny (1986) define moderators as variables, which affect the direction and strength of the relationship between an independent variable (predictor) and dependent variable (criterion).

A moderator effect within a correlational framework occurs where the direction of the correlation changes. A moderator-interaction effect also occurs when a relationship is substantially reduced instead of being reversed.

A common framework for capturing both the correlational and the experimental views of a moderator variable is possible by using a path diagram as both descriptive and analytic procedures.
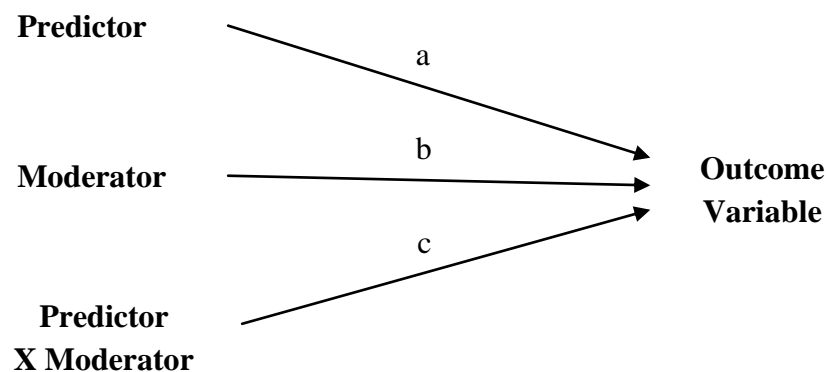
Figure 3.1 Moderator Model

Source: Baron, & Kenny, 1986.

The model in Figure 3.2 has three causal paths that feed into the outcome variable. The moderator hypothesis is supported if the interaction (Path c) is significant. There may also be significant main effects for the predictor and the moderator (Path a and b), but these are not directly relevant to the testing of the moderator hypothesis.

In addition to these basic considerations, it is desirable that the moderator variable be uncorrelated with both the predictor and the criterion (the dependent variable) to provide a clearly interpretable interaction term. Another property of the moderator variable is that, unlike the mediator-predictor relation (where the predictor is causally antecedent to the mediator), moderators and predictors are at the same level with regard to their role as causal variables antecedent or exogenous to certain criterion effects.

Within this framework, moderation implies that the causal relation between two variables changes as a function of the moderator variable. The statistical analysis must measure and test the differential effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable as a function of the moderator. The way to measure and test the differential effects depends in part on the level of measurement of the independent variable and the moderator variable.

3.1.11 Measuring the Organizational Strategic and Cultural Satisfaction

This research aimed to test the impact of two important variables, which were organizational strategic satisfaction and organizational cultural satisfaction. The term "satisfaction" was defined by using the concept of "gap". This meant the higher the magnitude of perceived minus expectation level, the higher satisfaction the dimensions deliver.

Satisfaction was measured by the scales for each dimension of strategy and culture for both perceived and expected ones. For example, the scale of perceived strategy minus the scale of expected strategy would result in a gap in each questionnaire item.

As the survey scales ranged from 1 to 10 for both perceived and expected levels, the gap range was from -9 to 9. However, to decrease confusion over the meaning of plus and minus signs; the representative numbers for each gap value was simply assigned as shown in Table 3.7 below.

Table 3.7 Measuring the Gap by Assigned Numbers

Actual gap	Assigned with
-9	1
-8	2
-7	3
-6	4
-5	5
-4	6

Table 3.7 (Continued)

Actual gap	Assigned with
-3	7
-2	8
-1	9
0	10
1	11
2	12
3	13
4	14
5	15
6	16
7	17
8	18
9	19

In this way, a larger gap meant that the respondents' perceived/current level of strategy or culture was higher than they expected, and this should result in a higher commitment level to their organization.

3.2 Qualitative Research Method

3.2.1 Participants

3.2.1.1 Criteria for Interviewee Selection

In this part of research, two key informants, one from the managerial level and the other from the staff level, were selected from each of the five different industries: banking industry, retail industry, food and beverages industry, energy and chemicals industry and service industry. In summary, a total of ten respondents were interviewed to get a complete insight of the study.

Table 3.8 List of Interviewees

No.	Name	Sex	Industry	Age	Tenure	Position
1.	Sarah	F	Banking	30	3	Manager
2.	Petra	F		32	10	Staff
3.	Rita	F	Retail	31	7	Manager
4.	Cathy	F		32	3	Staff
5.	Kevin	M	Food&	35	3	Manager
6.	Molly	F	Beverage	37	2	Staff
7.	Willy	M	Energy&	33	5	Manager
8.	Guy	M	chemicals	29	7	Staff
9.	Odette	F	Service	35	8	Manager
10.	Karen	F		40	15	Staff

3.2.2 Instruments

3.2.2.1 Measures

A set of questions was used to gain additional information to supplement the information from the quantitative study. The set of questions was validated by Professor Kasemsarn Chotechakornpan, the advisor of this research.

Table 3.9 Interview Questions

Interview questions on Organizational Commitment

1 ความผูกพันต่อองค์การในความหมายของคุณคืออะไร

2 คุณคิดว่าคุณมีความผูกพันต่อองค์การที่คุณทำอยู่ในปัจจุบันมากน้อยเพียงใด ทำไมถึง
 คิดเช่นนั้น

Interview questions on organizational strategic satisfaction

3 กลยุทธ์ในการบริหารที่องค์การของคุณเลือกใช้ในปัจจุบันมีลักษณะอย่างไรบ้าง และคุณ
 รู้สึกอย่างไรต่อ กลยุทธ์เหล่านั้น

4 กลยุทธ์ในการบริหารที่คุณคาดหวังให้องค์การของคุณนำมาใช้มีลักษณะอย่างไรบ้าง

Table 3.9 (Continued)

Interview questions on organizational strategic satisfaction

5 คุณคิดว่ากลยุทธ์ในการบริหารที่องค์การของคุณเลือกใช้ในปัจจุบันมีความใกล้เคียงกับสิ่ง
ที่คุณคาดหวัง หรือไม่ อย่างไร

6 การที่กลยุทธ์เหล่านั้นมีความใกล้เคียงกับสิ่งที่คุณคาดหวังในระดับสูง หรือต่ำ คุณคิดว่า
มีผลต่อความผูกพันต่อองค์การของคุณ หรือไม่ อย่างไร ทำไมถึงคิดเช่นนั้น

Interview questions on organizational cultural satisfaction

7 ค่านิยมขององค์การท่านมีลักษณะอย่างไร และท่านมีความเห็นต่อค่านิยมนี้อย่างไร

8 ค่านิยมขององค์การที่คุณคาดหวังให้เกิดขึ้นในองค์การ ควรมีลักษณะอย่างไร

9 คุณคิดว่าค่านิยมขององค์การในปัจจุบันมีความใกล้เคียงกับสิ่งที่คุณคาดหวังหรือไม่
อย่างไร

10 การที่ค่านิยมขององค์การเหล่านั้นมีความใกล้เคียงกับสิ่งที่คุณคาดหวังในระดับสูง หรือ
ต่ำ คุณคิดว่ามีผลต่อความผูกพันต่อองค์การของคุณ หรือไม่ อย่างไร ทำไมถึงคิดเช่นนั้น

Interview questions on distributive and procedural justice and their moderation
effect

11 คุณคิดว่าองค์การที่คุณอยู่ในปัจจุบันมีความยุติธรรมในเรื่องผลตอบแทนต่อพนักงาน
หรือไม่ ในระดับใด ทำไมถึงคิดเช่นนั้น

12 คุณคิดว่าองค์การที่คุณอยู่ในปัจจุบันมีความยุติธรรมในกระบวนการประเมินผลงาน
หรือไม่ ในระดับใด ทำไมถึงคิดเช่นนั้น

13 หากคุณได้รับผลตอบแทนต่ำ ความยุติธรรมในกระบวนการประเมินผลงาน ยังจะส่งผล
ต่อความผูกพันต่อองค์การของคุณหรือไม่ อย่างไร

14 หากคุณได้รับผลตอบแทนสูง ความยุติธรรมในกระบวนการประเมินผลงาน ยังจะส่งผล
ต่อความผูกพันต่อองค์การของคุณหรือไม่ อย่างไร

Interview questions on other control variables: age, job position and organizational
support

15 คุณคิดว่าอายุตัวของคุณ ส่งผลต่อความผูกพันองค์การของคุณหรือไม่ อย่างไร

16 คุณคิดว่าตำแหน่งหน้าที่ของคุณ ส่งผลต่อความผูกพันองค์การของคุณหรือไม่ อย่างไร

17 คุณคิดว่าการสนับสนุนจากองค์การ ส่งผลต่อความผูกพันองค์การของคุณหรือไม่ อย่างไร

3.2.3 Procedures

3.2.3.1 Data Collection

The results from quantitative research indicated the factors significantly contributing to a different level of organizational commitment. However, it was fruitful to find the reasons why some variables were related to commitment level and some were not. In this part, in-depth interviews were conducted by private phone calls on the date and time of pre-appointment. The total 10 interviewees were from the same group of companies in the quantitative research.

3.2.3.2 Content Analysis

The qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 1983) consists of techniques for systematic text analysis. The main purposes of the analytical procedure are to preserve the advantages of quantitative content analysis as developed within Communication Science and to transfer and further develop qualitative-interpretative steps of analysis.

The objects of qualitative content analysis can be all sorts of recorded communication (transcripts of interviews, discourses, protocols of observations, video tapes, documents, etc.). Becker and Lissmann (1973) mentioned two levels of contents: themes and main ideas of the text as primary content; context information as latent content.

Krippendorff (1969) defined content analysis as "the use of a replicable and valid method for making specific inferences from text to other states or properties of its source".

Procedures of qualitative content analysis consist of two approaches: inductive category development and deductive category application.

3.2.3.3 Inductive Category Development

The main purpose of the inductive procedure is to formulate a criterion of definition based on theoretical background and research questions, which determine the aspects of the textual material taken into account. Following this criterion the material is worked through and categories are tentative and step-by-step deduced. Within a feedback loop, these categories are revised, eventually reduced to main categories and checked in respect to their reliability.

3.2.3.4 Deductive Category Application

Deductive category application works well with prior formulated, theoretical derived aspects of analysis, bringing them in connection with the text. The qualitative step of analysis consists of a methodologically controlled assignment of the category to a passage of text.

In the qualitative content analysis, the procedures of systematic text analysis are described and the strengths of content analysis in Communication Science (theory reference, step models, model of communication, category leaded, criteria of validity and reliability) to develop qualitative procedures (inductive category development, summarizing, context analysis, deductive category application) are methodologically controlled.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presented the results of quantitative and qualitative analyses. In the quantitative research, findings of the reliability test and the validity test of the questionnaire were given first. Then, the results of multiple regression, the multicollinearity problem and the moderation effect were reported. At this stage, the importance of each independent variable and how they affected the dependent variable would be revealed. In the qualitative research part, in-depth interviews to were shown.

4.1 Quantitative Research

Key variables that will be tested in this study are listed in below table with definition of each term.

Table 4.1 List of Variables

Abbreviation	Meaning
Commitment	Summation of perceived organizational commitment level
Perceived strategy	Summation of perceived strategic level
Expected strategy	Summation of expected strategic level
Strategic satisfaction	Summation of strategic gap calculated as Σ|perceived-expected|
Perceived culture	Summation of perceived cultural level
Expected culture	Summation of expected cultural level
Cultural satisfaction	Summation of cultural gap calculated as Σ|perceived-expected|

Table 4.1 (Continued)

Abbreviation	Meaning
Procedural justice	Summation of perceived procedural justice level
Distributive justice	Summation of perceived distributive justice level
Procedural justice x Distributive justice	Product term of distributive and procedural justice
Org. support	Summation of perceived organizational support level (POS)
Age	Age of respondents in actual numbers
Job position	Used as dummy variable in relation to job position e.g. Staff coded as 1, Manager coded as 0

4.1.1 Validity Test

In this study, face validity, which referred to the subjective agreement that the instrument logically appears to reflect accurately what it purports to measure, was checked by two persons specialized in the area of human resources and organizational management.

The first person was Mr.Kanok Thongpurk, an Executive Vice President of Human resources and Compliance of Thai airways, one of the companies in the sample.

The second person was Assistant Professor Chandranuch Mahakanjana, an experienced lecturer in organizational management at National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA).

In the next stage, the number of items in each variable was reduced and only significant items that represented each variable by means of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) were maintained. Question items which showed a value of factor loading of <0.4 were left out from further regression analysis.

Table 4.2 Factor Loading

Variables	No. of items	Factor loading
Commitment	11	.61-.90
Perceived strategy	9	.65-.86
Expected strategy	9	.52-.87
Perceived culture	13	.60-.81
Expected culture	13	.61-.82
Procedural justice	7	.75-.89
Distributive justice	3	.94-.98
Organizational support	4	.87-.92

4.1.2 Reliability Test

In order to test on the reliability of the questionnaire, the sets of questions or items (i.e. commitment level, perceived strategic level, expected strategic level, perceived cultural level, expected cultural level, perceived organizational support and perceived level of procedural justice and distributive justice) were tested separately.

Table 4.3 Reliability Test

Variables	No. of items	Cronbach's alpha
Commitment	11	.95
Perceived strategy	9	.95
Expected strategy	9	.92
Perceived culture	13	.94
Expected culture	13	.94
Procedural justice	7	.91
Distributive justice	3	.96
Organizational support	4	.93

In the third stage, the reliability of the items was tested. As a result, every set of items for each variable showed Cronbach's Alpha value beyond 0.7, which signified that the every set of items had reliability and could represent each variable.

4.1.3 Normality Test

In order to use of multiple regression, basic assumptions of regression analysis needed to be tested beforehand. Starting with normality test. The distribution pattern of each variable was revealed by the value of skewness and kurtosis. The optimum value for both skewness and kurtosis for normal distribution should lie in the range of -1 and +1 (Morgan, & Greigo, 1998).

Table 4.4 Normality Test

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
Commitment level	-.25	-.00
Age	.40	-.91
Strategic satisfaction	-.89	.56
Cultural satisfaction	-.95	.65
Procedural justice	-.16	.30
Distributive justice	-.43	.10
Org. support	-.53	.27

All variables were test and it was found that the values for both skewness and kurtosis stayed in the range between -1 and +1, indicating that both the dependent and the independent variables had a normal distribution and regression analysis could be proceeded.

4.1.4 Linearity and Homoscedasticity Test

The next step in testing regression assumption was linearity and homoscedasticity test, to see the pattern of relationship between the dependent variable and each independent variable.

Dependent Variable: Commitment Level
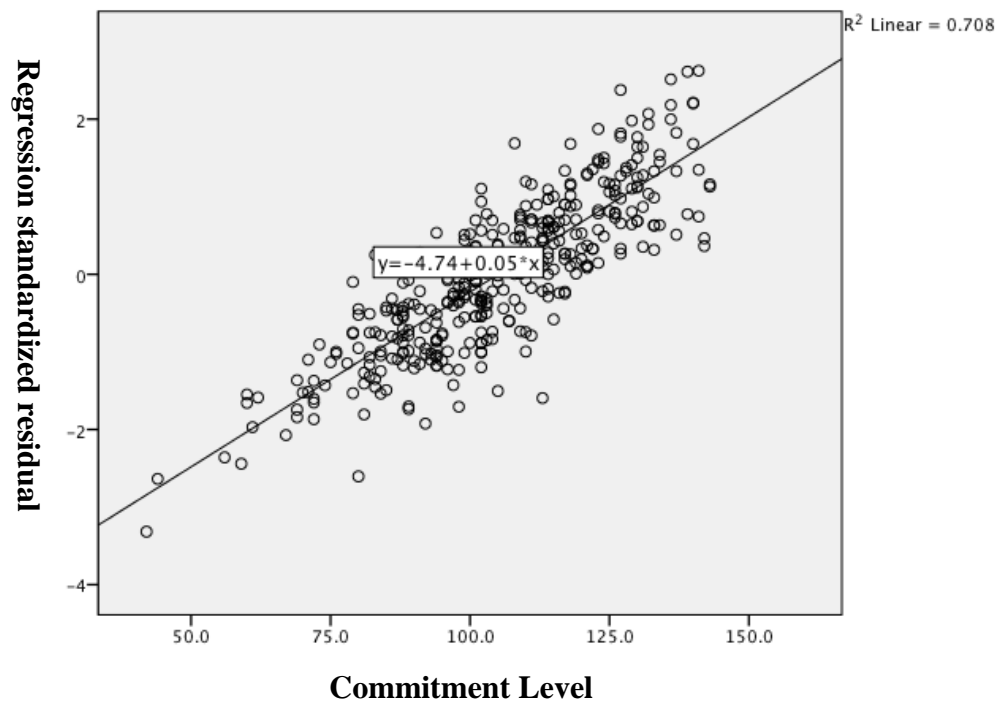
Figure 4.1 Scatterplot

The scatter plot in Figure 4.1 showed that the pattern of the relationship between commitment level and regression standardized residual remained in linear form and the distance of each data plot from the linear line remained about the same distance. Homoscedasticity meant that the variance of errors was the same across all levels of the independent variables. This indicated that the data pattern met the two assumptions of regression analysis.

4.1.5 Multicollinearity Test

In order to test multicollinearity, the values of tolerance and VIF must be calculated. The higher the VIF, the greater the multicollinearity problem. The rule of thumb is that, $VIF > 10$ implies definite existence of multicollinearity. The smaller the value of tolerance, the greater the possibility of the existence of multicollinearity.

Table 4.5 Multicollinearity Test

Variables	Collinearity statistics	
	Tolerance	**VIF**
Age	.78	1.28
Job position	.85	1.18
Strategic satisfaction	.55	1.84
Cultural satisfaction	.55	1.82
Procedural justice	.13	7.78
Distributive justice	.11	9.16
Org. support	.62	1.62

Most of the variables in the study did not yield any value of VIF over 10. It could be concluded that there was no significant multicollinearity problem in the multiple regression test.

4.1.6 Descriptive Statistics

4.1.6.1 Demographic Variables

Of all 400 respondents, 39% of them are male and 61% are female. As the target respondents were those working in headquarter offices, it was not surprising that female respondents outnumbered male ones. However, previous research found that gender did not serve as a significant factor in determining the level of commitment. Therefore, the difference in gender variation was considered valid.

The majority of respondents (66%) were in staff positions, while the rest were managers. The interesting factor was that even most of the respondents are at the staff level, but they had a monthly income of more than 50,000 THB. This might signify that the samples from high profit companies or high profit industries were selected. This finding held true as when we first selected the sample companies, we selected big companies, which had a significant impact on the industry they belonged. In fact, most of them belonged in SETTRADE.

The tenure records varied. About 40% of them were employees who stayed in the current organizations over 10 years and 34% were new employees who

served their companies for 0-3 years. So, this variation indicated the least biased data concerning the level of employees' loyalty. That is, if most of the respondents worked for over 10 years, very high commitment and satisfaction levels would be found.

Lastly, the mean of respondents' age was 37 years old with the minimum age of 19 and the maximum age of 60. At the age of 37, an employee had been in the job market for about 15 years. A person by this age was believed to have a full understanding of circumstances that normally occur in organizations. Therefore, they should be able to effectively assess their commitment level, satisfaction with organizational strategy and with culture along with other factors such as organizational support and justice, thus enhancing the accuracy of the data.

Table 4.6 Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables

	n	%
Gender		
Male	156	39%
Female	244	61%
Total	400	100%
Position		
Staff	262	66%
Manager	136	34%
Total	398	100%
Monthly income		
< 15,000 THB	14	4%
15,001-20,000 THB	32	9%
20,0001-25,000 THB	35	9%
25,001-30,000 THB	23	6%
30,001-35,000 THB	34	9%
35,001-40,000 THB	39	10%
40,001-45,000 THB	32	9%
45,001-50,000 THB	39	10%

Table 4.6 (Continued)

	n	%
> 50,000 THB	128	34%
Total	376	100%
Tenure		
0-3 years	135	34%
4-6 years	60	15%
7-10 years	42	11%
> 10 years	157	40%
Total	394	100%
Education		
Below a bachelor's degree	22	6%
Bachelor's degree	213	54%
Master's degree	158	40%
Higher than a master's degree	5	1%
Total	398	100%

	Mean	S.D.	Min	Max
Age	36.85	10.09	19	60

4.1.6.2 Test and Control Variables

The commitment level had a range of 15 to 150, the highest commitment level possible. The mean of 104.86 meant that the commitment level was considerably high.

Organizational strategic satisfaction had a range of 14 to 266, the highest strategic satisfaction possible. The mean of 119.95 meant that 48% had satisfaction with organizational strategy. This was considered to be relatively low. Organizational cultural satisfaction had a range of 16 to 304. The mean of 116.82 meant that 41% had satisfaction with organizational culture. This was even lower than the strategic satisfaction. In short, the low rate of satisfaction in both organizational strategy and culture was found in spite of a relatively high level of commitment. From

here, it could be assumed that these two factors might not yield a high b value towards commitment.

Procedural justice had a range of 7 to 70. The mean of 119.95 meant that 64% perceived the procedural justice. Distributive justice had a range of 3 to 30. The mean of 18.61 meant that 69% perceived the distributive justice. Noticeably that both values were similar, it implied that in the sample companies, both kinds of justice moved together in the same direction.

Organizational support had a range of 6 to 60. The mean of 34.47, meant that 64% perceived the general perceived organizational support accounts. The perception was considerably high.

Table 4.7 Descriptive Statistics for Test and Control Variables

	Mean	**S.D.**
Commitment level	104.86	18.50
Strategic satisfaction	119.95	25.36
Cultural satisfaction	116.82	31.95
Procedural justice	40.56	10.98
Distributive justice	18.61	5.72
Perceived org. support	34.47	9.40

4.1.7 Multiple Regression Analysis

Regression analysis by means of stepwise was made. The final regression model showed R Square of 0.36 with adjusted R Square of 0.35. This signified that independent in the framework could explain 35 percent of the dependent variable.

Table 4.8 Regression Analysis According to Framework

	Variables	b	Beta	t	Sig.
Control	Age	.55	.34	7.38	.00***
	Job position	1.86	.05	1.17	.24
	Perceived org. upport	1.01	.45	10.31	.00***
R^2				.29	
Test	Org. strategic satisfaction	.07	.12	2.01	.04**
	Org. cultural satisfaction	.08	.14	2.18	.03**
	Procedural justice	.24	.16	2.55	.01**
	Distributive justice	.28	.10	1.62	.11
ΔR^2				.04	
R^2				.33	
Product term	Procedural justice x Distributive justice	.03	.81	4.16	.00***
ΔR^2				.03	
R^2				.36	

Note: * p <0.1

** p <0.05

*** p <0.01

In the first stage, the control variables were tested. Age, job position and perceived organizational support were taken into account to see the main effect on organizational commitment. The R square was .29, which means that the effects of age, job position and perceived organizational support could explain 29 percent of the commitment level.

In the second stage, test variables were put into the regression model. Organizational strategic satisfaction, organizational cultural satisfaction, procedural justice and distributive justice were taken into account to see the main effect on organizational commitment. The R square was increased by .04, which meant that these four test variables could further explain 4 percent of the commitment level.

According to the three-component model of organizational commitment (Meyer, & Allen, 1991). Age fell under the category of personal characteristics, which directly affected the affective commitment. Perceived organization support could be interpreted in two aspects. Firstly, it can be viewed as comfort and fell under category of work experience, which directly affected affective commitment. Secondly, it could be viewed as organizational investments and directly affected normative commitment. These are the reasons why these two control variables could explain on organizational commitment at a greater extent.

When looking at satisfaction in strategy and culture, as well as justice, they were not addressed directly in the three-component model. However, satisfaction could be viewed as a part of comfort in work experience and justice could be interpreted as a part of formalization of policy and procedures, which fell under structural characteristics (O'Driscoll, 1987). Both of work experience and structural characteristics contributed to affective commitment. As mentioned, the lack of direct explorations in those two terms might be the reasons why satisfaction and justice could explain commitment level in lesser extent than age and perceived organizational support.

In the final stage, the product term of procedural justice and distributive justice was added to the regression model and this contributed to the increase in R square by three percent. By adding all the test variables into the model, additional seven percent was gained, which could better explain the commitment level further than control variables.

With regard to the effects of individual factors, the results of the regression analysis showed that organizational strategic satisfaction positively affected commitment level ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was accepted. The concept of satisfaction indicated that the greater the magnitude of perceived level minus expectation level would result in the higher level of commitment which resulted in a positive value of beta (.12) and b (.07). This meant that an increase in one unit of satisfaction with strategy would result in seven percent increase of commitment level.

Information from interviewees suggested that their satisfaction with the selection of organizational strategies by the management team highly affected their commitment level especially, their desire to stay longer in the organization. The

interviews showed that of all the employees who were satisfied with their organizational strategies were somewhat proud and confident of their organizations' position and direction. They were able to point out some specific strategies that they were fond of and how they were personally related to such strategies. Most of the respondents also stated that they could do their jobs well only if they believed in what they did, or in other words, when they were satisfied with the strategies involved in their works. Being forced to do the tasks that they were against in principles resulted in low commitment level to the company.

In addition, organizational cultural satisfaction also positively affected commitment level ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was accepted. Positive beta of .14 is indicated that cultural satisfaction affected the commitment level or had a higher impact than organizational strategic satisfaction. The value of b is .08, which meant an increase in one unit of cultural satisfaction would result in an increase of eight percent of the commitment level.

Information from the interviews also showed that any organizational culture that was an obstacle to employees' work achievement would lead to in dissatisfaction with such a culture and eventually would result in a low commitment level to the organization. Besides, the interview showed that there was a stronger connection between organizational culture and commitment rather than between organizational strategies and commitment. This might be because organizational culture was more rooting to the organization and could not be changed easily. In order to have satisfaction with culture, it might take a long time for the organization to adjust the staff's attitude. Therefore, motivation to leave the company was stronger when employees were dissatisfied with the organizational culture.

Procedural justice was another contributing factor, which positively affected commitment level ($p < 0.05$) with the beta of .16. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was accepted. The value of b is .24, which meant an increase of one unit in procedural justice would result in an increase of 24 percent in the commitment level. As for the fairness in procedures, the first thing that came to the mind of interviewees was the fairness in setting of the key performance index (KPI). The information from the in-depth interview showed that the employees tended to compare themselves with other employees. In a situation when everyone got what he or she deserved, the commitment level would rise.

The regression result showed that distributive justice was found to insignificantly affect the commitment level; thus, Hypothesis 4 was rejected. Although it might be a predictor that cause a huge swing in the satisfaction level of the employees, it did not explain the long-term construct like the commitment level. When the rewards were satisfying, the employees would give credits to the fairness of procedural justice in order to justify that they deserved such rewards. On the other hand, when the rewards were not satisfying, they put the blame on procedural justice and did not admit that they might have performed poorly.

It was possible that the interaction between distributive and procedural justice might have an effect on the commitment. The levels of procedural justice were the divided into three levels: low, medium and high levels.
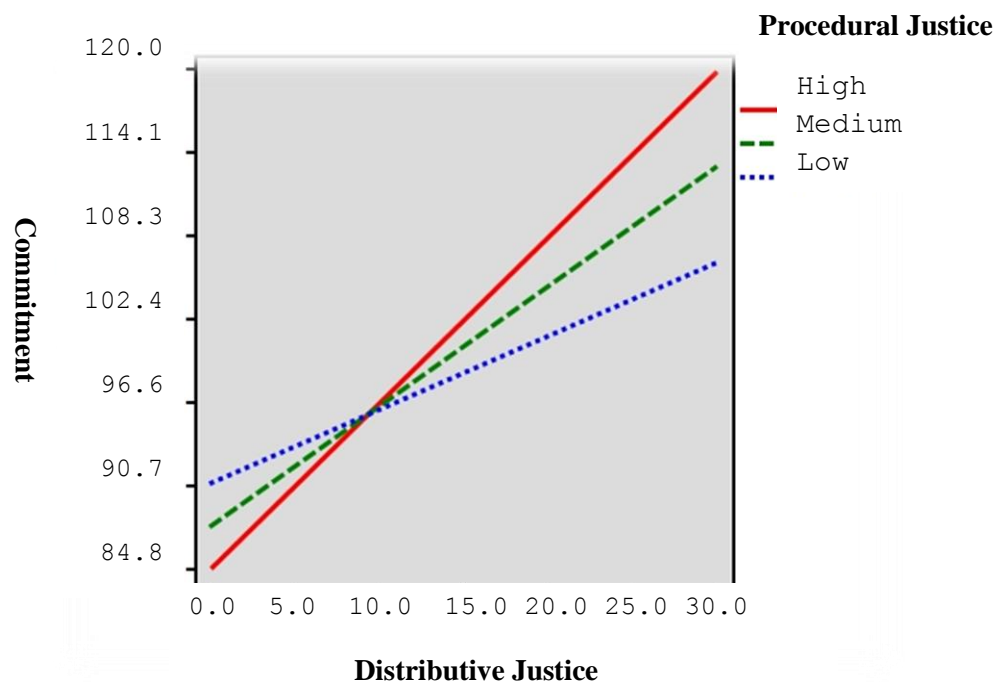
Figure 4.2 Interaction Effect between Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice on the Commitment

The interaction effect between distributive justice and procedural justice had a great effect on the commitment level ($p < 0.01$) with the beta of .81. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was accepted. The value of b for this product term is .03, which meant

an increase of one unit in product term of distributive and procedural justice would result in an increase of three percent in commitment level. That is, when distributive justice was low, the commitment level was consequently low and the gap varied very little regardless of procedural justice levels. However, when the distributive justice level was high, the high level of procedural justice resulted in even a higher commitment level. In short, procedural justice acted as a moderator of distributive justice to the commitment as shown in Figure 4.2.

In order to explain this situation more clearly, imagine an employee "A" who received a below-average bonus. This person personally perceived that the company was not fair to him/her. The situation led to the decrease in his organizational commitment regardless of how fair he thought the evaluation process was. Employee "A" might consider leaving an organization sooner than he expected.

On the other hand, an employee "B" who received below-average bonus as well but he/she perceived that the reward distribution was fair enough for him/her. He or she would portray a high level of organizational commitment. Moreover, when employee "B" perceived that the evaluation process was also fair, he/she would portray even a higher level of commitment to his organization.

This finding was confirmed by the qualitative research in which the interviewees perceived that rewards and remuneration reflected their values to the organization. Therefore, when the fairness of distributing rewards was low (distributive justice), the commitment level was consequently low. On the contrary, when the fairness of distributing rewards was high, the commitment level was consequently high. However, the fairness of the evaluation process (procedural justice) could even increase the already-high commitment level. Moreover, many employees view the fairness of rewards by comparing themselves to others around them. That is, they compared the ratio of output/input and evaluated if the organization was fair to them. In case that their personal evaluation of organizational justice was satisfying, the commitment level rose.

Perceived organization support (POS) positively affected the commitment level ($p < 0.01$) with the beta of .45. Thus, Hypothesis 6 was accepted. The value of b is 1.01, which meant an increase of one unit in perceived organization support would result in an increase of 101 percent in the commitment level. In the eyes of

interviewees, organizational support reflected how much the organization valued its employees. This support could be perceived in both business and personal angles: caring for their personal trouble or health problems or being supportive for the work environment, for example.

Position insignificantly affected commitment level. Thus, Hypothesis 7 was rejected. This finding was confirmed by the qualitative finding that in the present time, managers did not stick to their status quo in the organization and linger to stay. From the widen access of opportunities such as headhunters or social media recruitment, it turned out that managers got a better chance or opportunities than was before. The commitment level in this sense revolved around the satisfaction of employees regardless of their statuses or positions in the company unless they were in the top management level or the board of directors, but this research did not include them in the list of participants.

Age was another factor which positively affected the commitment level ($p < 0.01$) with the beta of .34. Thus, Hypothesis 8 was accepted. The value of b is .55, which meant an increase in one unit of age would result in an increase of 55 percent in the commitment level. Age was related to the high level of toleration to dissatisfying factors. This led to more willingness to stay at the current organization. Another reason was that motivation to seek for something better faded away when employees were getting older. The more mature the employees were, the more they wanted their lives to be at slow-paced and be settled.

The following was an equation formulated from the regression results.

Commitment level = 54.34+ .07(Strategic satisfaction)+ .08(Cultural satisfaction)+ .24(Procedural justice)+ .03(Procedural justice x distributive justice)+ .55(Age)+ 1.01(POS)+ e_i

4.2 Qualitative Research

4.2.1 Content Analysis

The results of the interview were presented by order of interview questions so as to get some themes of the answers from all the ten interviewees.

4.2.1.1 Definition of Organizational Commitment

To begin with, the interview started with seeking for the definition of organizational commitment in the respondents' perception. Common elements in the definition that they shared were willingness to stay in the company, a long-term determination to fulfill organizational goals by making contributions on their parts, and the emotional attachment to the organization.

When they were committed to the organization, their commitment expanded to the commitment in their work and fulfilled organizational goals. The result was a high contribution they made for to the organization as well. Organizational commitment was highly related to the intention to leave. Employees with high commitment stated that their commitment prevented them from seeking for other opportunities and lessened the motivation to start a process of recruitment elsewhere. This derived from the feelings that they currently resided in where they belonged. The organization could turn into a family in the eyes of highly committed employees.

Below is an example of interview record that best described the common elements of the organizational commitment definition.

Personally, I think organizational commitment appears when an employee wholeheartedly commits to work in an organization for a certain period of time and does not wish to leave the organization soon by seeking an opportunity for another job offered elsewhere. He or she will focus on doing their jobs and feel that they belong here-Petra, Banking industry

4.2.1.2 Level of Commitment in Current Organizations and Reasons Behind It

The level of commitment of each respondent varied, depending on their individual experience in current organizations. Ms. Molly from Food& Beverage industry, Mr. Guy and Mr. Willy from the energy industry stated that they had a high level of organizational commitment. The reasons for such a high commitment level was that they were satisfied with the organizational culture, which reflected their relationship with their supervisors and colleagues, rather than the work itself. Supportive culture and cooperative teamwork played a significant role in increasing the commitment level. Some of the respondents honestly opened their mind that they did not compete with other colleagues, as they were well supported by supervisors and teammates; this, in turn, resulted in high commitment to the organization.

> The work itself does not seem to be challenging. However, I find that this organization truly has the culture of teamwork. My colleagues are very supportive and the management team is very open-minded. So, I feel happy coming to work every day because of the warm atmosphere. - Willy, Energy & chemicals industry

Two of the interviewees responded that they had a high level of commitment due to the great visions of the CEO and the management team. This signified that satisfaction with the adopted organizational strategies played an important role in increasing the commitment level. It could be inferred from the respondents' statements that they were proud of and confident in their organizations. Satisfaction with strategy made them feel that this was the "right" place to stay and they decided correctly to join their current organizations.

> I like how my CEO thinks. He is full of great visions and I feel that he can lead the company to success. Most of his strategies are very effective which could turnaround the bad performance of the company. - Sarah, Banking industry

On the other hand, some of the interviewees admitted that they had a low level of commitment. The reasons varied from disappointment from not getting promoted for a long time, boredom, redundant work and conflicts with supervisors. It could be concluded that the main reason why employees had a low level of commitment usually was dissatisfaction with particular dimensions of the work environment. The researcher observed that these dimensions were often found in other studied variables e.g. perceived organizational support and organizational justice.

4.2.1.3 Strategies Currently Used in the Organizations and Feelings Towards Them

Organizational strategy as defined by the interviewees was often referred to as direction and vision of management team. This was in line with the definition of organizational strategy given by Chandler (1990), which referred to long term goals, and objectives of the enterprise.

Interviewees who expressed like towards their organizations' strategies were often able to point out which were their favorite specific strategies, along with the detailed content of those strategies, and how those strategies affected the organization and themselves. On the other hand, interviewees who expressed disapproval of their organizations' strategies often blamed the work of the management team as a whole. They were not able to point out which was the most despised strategy. This implied that the poor management of the management team often led to poor strategies across the board.

Employees who portrayed satisfaction with the organizational strategies often praised the management team for their right decisions and solutions. From the statements of the interviewees the researcher perceived, the highly committed employees felt that they owed the management team for their satisfaction with organizational strategies. As a result, they felt confident and secure to stay in the company as their safe sanctuary. Highly committed employees felt that they were strongly linked to their organization, similar to the fans of football clubs; when their organization won, they won.

Rita from the retail industry stated the rationale behind her high level of commitment and best described the mutual theme of this finding:

Strategies of going international were very successful. Thanks to the management team who came up with the great solutions, which greatly responded to rapid change in market. I feel very confident with the directions that my company pursues. I feel safe and secure staying in this company. - Rita, Retail industry

On the other hand, employees who showed a low level of commitment blamed it on the performance of the management team. What was obvious was that most of these employees were not satisfied with the overall performance of the company and perceived that this company was on a losing track. It might be the reason why they wanted to exclude themselves from the status of losing, so they tried to distance themselves from being part of the company. When there is more distance between the employees and the organization, the attachment or commitment level declined as a result.

Odette from the service industry was one of the employees who said that she had a low level of commitment and now she stated that poor management skills of the management team was the rooting cause of her low commitment.

The organization I work for is quite inertia. It cannot cope with the competitive environment in international markets. Moreover, corruption inside the company is the worst. The management team focuses on reaping the most benefits out of the company despite the fact that we are facing a huge loss of profit. - Odette, service industry

4.2.1.4 Strategies Expected to be Used in the Organization

Answers to this question varied. Most of the respondents expected their organizations to be dynamic, competitive and innovative. Some even pointed out that they wanted their organizations to be the first in market and be the top of mind brand in the eyes of consumers. All the positive features that the respondents pointed out to be their expected strategies were covered in each dimension of organizational strategic satisfaction in the questionnaire items.

As for the reasons why these strategies were so important to employees, it was found that employees often wanted their organizations to adopt strategies which helped them win in the market. Each strategy proposed was usually one which filled the gap of weaknesses of their companies. An underlying reason behind these expected strategies was that the employees wanted to be in winning organizations. This would make them feel like champions themselves. Given they were proud of where they belong, their attachment to the company rose alongside with the commitment level.

The expected strategies can be further calculated for the organizational strategic satisfaction in order to determine the gap between the expected strategies and the currently perceived strategies in each of the dimensions. Petra from the banking industry gave a valuable perspective of her preferred strategies below:

Being in the banking industry, we must be super creative. There are lots of commercial banks out there with many innovative products. Often we find that the first person who launched the product turned out to be the most successful one. I expect that my organization should keep its eye open and be fast. Moreover, we have to know how to communicate well and position our brand to be superior to others. - Petra, Banking industry

4.2.1.5 Organizational Strategic Satisfaction and Impact on Organizational Commitment

The researcher asked how much the interviewees satisfied with the organizational strategies their organizations adopted in order to determine the gap between their currently perceived organizational strategies and their expected ones, and how the level of satisfaction contributed to their organizational commitment level. Most of the respondents confirmed that organizational strategic satisfaction highly impacted their level of organizational commitment.

The common reason behind this idea was that organizational strategies were like the skeleton of the organization. When employees decided to join the company, they aligned themselves with the missions, visions and direction of the company as well. Most of the respondents reflected their feelings that they would be

satisfied with their job only when they believed in what they did. This extended to the shared value in the principle of the jobs or tasks they were given. Satisfaction with organizational strategy, therefore, led to a high level of willingness to pursue the task. Moreover, when tasks were given in series of endless assignments, satisfaction or dissatisfaction with related strategies accumulated and eventually resulted in the employees' level of commitment to the organization as a long-term impact.

Guy from the energy and chemicals industry outlined his own experience in accumulating satisfaction with organizational strategies over time and how it helped him to be committed to the company.

When we join a company, we must commit to the organization's strategies as well, basically because we are the ones who have to carry on such strategies. If the strategies turn out to be ones that we are against in principle or do not see the benefits of using them, then it must be hard to use them wholeheartedly. The level of commitment surely sinks as a consequence. - Guy, Energy & chemicals industry.

4.2.1.6 Culture Currently Adopted in the Organizations and Feelings Towards It

Organizational culture as defined by the interviewees mostly reflected in how people in the organization behaved towards others and how they valued things in common. Most of the interviewees felt more committed to the organization when its values matched their values in terms of working and social environment.

Interviewees expressed various views on their organizational culture. Feelings varied from intent to displease. It was found that in Thai companies, the most common adopted culture was bureaucratic and hierarchical. Such a culture was often embedded with a long documentation process and was slow to respond to competition or the changing environment. The culture itself often gave use to poor performance or an ineffective approach to doing tasks, thus causing frustration to the employees who had to endure the consequences of sub-par performance. Not only were they not satisfied while performing the task, but also they often felt displeased with the result of the task they completed. For example, they had the feelings that they could have

done better or could have yielded the same result in a shorter time if a different culture was adopted differently. Let alone the factor of political issues, which directly depleted the commitment level. Kevin from the food and beverage industry gave an example of how dissatisfying culture affected him:

> I can confidently say that my company having a bureaucratic culture despite the fact that we are operating as a fast-moving consumer goods company (FMCG) which is supposed to be very lean and very dynamic. I feel that this culture is truly an obstacle to the company's high performance. The documentation process is so slow that we cannot cope up with competing and rapidly changing market. Some people are willing to lick someone's boots just to keep them thriving in the company because it did not give 100% reward to the talents. - Kevin, Food & Beverages industry

On the other hand, the employees from multinational companies often shared a similar culture: task-oriented, and autonomous. This kind of culture often shaped employees' behavior to be confident and straightforward. This specific type of culture did not directly related to a high commitment level. However, when the employees were confident and straightforward, they would communicate their feelings with their supervisors in order to correct and solve the controversial issues. In this sense, there was more chance to get rid of dissatisfying factors in this kind of culture, and the employees were more willing to stay in the company.

4.2.1.7 Culture Expected to be Adopted in the Organization

The desirable culture was expected to include employees' autonomy, cooperative and teamwork values. Eight out of ten respondents had this opinion.

Employees mostly prefer culture that helped them to work better and more efficiently. To begin with, autonomy helped increase the employees' power in making decisions and judgments and shorten the process of unnecessary approval in small details of work. Cooperative and teamwork values allowed the employees to ask for help unhesitantly with the help from others, the task performance was more easily improved in terms of both quality and timeliness.

One cannot deny that a specific type of culture actually plays an important role in enhancing an individual's performance. Just when the performance level is lifted, the job satisfaction increases and consequently, the commitment level surges. However, organizational culture, which portray politics in workplace often results in immediate decrease in the commitment, level. It is often found to be one of the very first factors that motivate employees to leave.

Molly from the food and beverages industry stated that cooperative culture was a significant factor in helping her do her tasks. Her motivation to stay in the current organization was strong, as she was not sure whether she could find such a supportive organizational culture elsewhere. An example of her statements was given below:

I want to be able to ask for help. Such a cooperative culture is what I expect to see in my organization. In hard times, it is always such a relief if you know someone is backing you, not letting you fight alone. - Molly, Food & beverages industry

4.2.1.8 Organizational Cultural Satisfaction and Impact on Organizational Commitment

The researcher asked how much the interviewees were satisfied with organizational culture based on the comparison between the currently perceived organizational culture and the expected one, and how such satisfaction contributed to their organizational commitment. All the ten respondents agreed that organizational cultural satisfaction highly impacted their level of organizational commitment.

As mentioned earlier that a specific type of culture did increase the level of the employees' commitment. It was found that satisfaction with organizational culture was even a stronger predictor for commitment level.

Expectation from culture has often arisen since the first day when an employee joined the company. The process of evaluating his/her organizational cultural satisfaction occurred right after a series of events that the employee encountered after working in an organization. The employee often learned the organizational culture from the reactions or behaviors of those surrounding him/her,

or saw the values and norms that the organization praised and encouraged him/her to follow. Satisfaction occurred when the current organizational culture reflected or supported the culture expected in the employee's mind.

Organizational culture is often referred as the brand of the company. A metaphor made out of this is: when consumers purchase a product, they expect the product to consist of the qualities they need. If the product offers the expected qualities, then the consumers will continue to buy the brand. Likewise, if an organization's characteristics represents what the employees has imagined, they will continue to stay in the organization.

Guy from the energy and chemicals industry who considered himself as a highly committed employee gave an insightful note on his satisfaction with organizational culture:

> This organization values me as a talented individual, and I am proud to work for an organization with no politics involved. We are praised for our performance, not by how we blend in with the system. The culture here is somewhat close to what I have expected to encounter. This is the most important reason why I commit to this organization this much. - Guy, Energy & Chemicals industry

4.2.1.9 Perceived Level of Distributive Justice

When asked about the perceived level of distributive justice in their organizations, the respondents' answers varied depending on their own experiences.

In their own definitions, the respondents mostly linked distributive justice with the fairness in getting their rewards. The employees would assess themselves apart from the criteria used in the company's assessment process. They would figure out if their effort contributed to the organization was more or less than others, and calculated if their rewards should be more or less than others. If the rewards were distributed in the right proportion as they had calculated in mind, they would perceive the distributive justice in their organizations as fair.

The important point to mention was that an employee who was satisfied with the distribution of their rewards gave credits to the fairness in KPI setting. Those

who were not satisfied with the outcome often cited the problems in measurement or evaluation.

Odette from the service industry gave an opinion on distributive justice in her organization and referred to ambiguity in measurement, as her performance and subjectivity of evaluation.

Being in the service industry, sometimes I feel that my performance evaluation is very subjective because it cannot be measured easily. The supervisor sometimes recognizes one mistake but overlooks ten good tasks. Because of that, I think the level of distributive justice here is quite low - Odette, service industry

4.2.1.10 Perceived Level of Procedural Justice

Most of the respondents did not acknowledge the full content of the evaluation process in their organization. However, in their definitions, procedural justice referred to the fairness in creation of performance assessment. For example, employees in the same position/ level across different teams should be assigned tasks with similar difficulties. If not, one with more difficult assignments given should get a low point in their performance assessment.

Molly from the food and beverages industry shared some useful opinion on procedural justice as she worked as a human resource staff member. She believed it was the main role of human resource function to provide this fairness. The proposed solution was for managers from different functions to send their KPI set for their subordinates to HR to adjust and to give feedback. The feedback should also be given to the subordinates themselves as well to find out whether their KPIs are too easy or out of reach.

As a member of the HR staff, the evaluation process here is not that good but we are trying to fix it.   The manager of each team sets KPIs. It depends solely on the manager how to evaluate their team members. Some managers are too kind and they set easy targets for their subordinates, while some managers are perfectionists. This might cause injustice among different teams. - Molly, Food& Beverages industry.

In a situation when you get below or above average remuneration& rewarding, does procedural justice affect your level of commitment?

Most of the interviewees answered in the same direction that high remuneration reflected their value to the company, thus increasing or reducing the level of their commitment instantly. However, low remuneration needed further justification in the evaluation process if the same level of commitment would be maintained. As mentioned earlier, the employees would calculate in their own mind comparing with others whether their distribution of rewards suited their effort. In case that the perceived distributive justice did not meet the expected outcome, then they would look for another dimension of justice to meet their expectation.

If I get an above-average reward, I think I will be more committed to the company. The outstanding performance that the company has assessed me reflects how much they value me. If I get a below-average reward, then I have to consider if the evaluation has been fair or not? If it is fair, then I think it will not alter my level of commitment. - Cathy, Retail industry.

However, another angle of organizational justice could not be neglected. The qualitative research revealed that organizational justice was viewed in a comparative term. Therefore, even an individual's perceived organizational justice matched with the expected justice of that person; it could not be concluded that the commitment level would increase. In case a person happened to learn that his colleagues received something better than him in spite of pulling less effort, the organization would be blamed immediately for politics, injustice and bias. These factors were among number one factors that significantly reduced the employees' commitment level.

Willy from the energy and chemicals industry gave his opinion on how he compared himself with other colleagues and how the comparisons affected his commitment level.

It does not matter if I get a below-average or above-average reward. But if I happen to see that other employees who seemed to performed more poorly than I did got something better, my commitment level will surely sink to the floor. My perspective of justice is comparative to others that surround me. - Willy, Energy & chemicals industry

4.2.1.11 Impact of Age on Commitment

Eight out of the ten interviewees stated that their age highly affected their organizational commitment level. The most common reason was that when employees aged, they would feel more mature and need to settle down somewhere. When the motivation to move was lessened, the commitment level rose as a consequence.

Another interesting reason was that when people were matured, they tended to be more emotionally steady and calm; thus, they would tolerate more to dissatisfying factors in their work environment, may it be dissatisfaction in strategy, culture, organizational justice or support. The increase in ability to tolerate resulted in less intention to leave and increase in the commitment level.

However, a hidden reason that the researcher observed is that older employees were seeking for a stable life. Often, they would use the word "work-life balance" in most of their answers. This might come from their less energy in work compared to when they were young, or the priorities in their lives had shifted from career advancement to their family and children. It was interesting that priorities of the employees shifted, their motivation related to work declined. This also included the motivation to put efforts in finding new jobs. Petra from the banking industry explained how age altered her commitment level over time.

As I grow older, I feel the need to settle down. There is no motivation to hop from place to place anymore. So, I think I'm getting more committed to my current company as years go by. - Petra, Banking industry

4.2.1.12 Impact of Position on Commitment

Seven out of the ten interviewees viewed that job position was irrelevant to their commitment level. The common reason behind such a statement was that in the present time employees had wider choices and access to greater job opportunities. In the modern world, they were familiar with calls from headhunters, the use of social media for recruitment purpose, e.g. Facebook or Linked in and also the power of connections in other organizations.

As a result, these employees did not feel the need to keep their status quo. At first, the researcher thought that managers would stick more to the company as they were better off than staff-level employees in the same company in terms of remuneration and other benefits, and thus they have more to lose. However, things turned out to be that in these days managers who possessed higher skill levels and more experiences gained a better chance to get new jobs than people in the staff-level. Eventually, it was the satisfaction with the organization's environment that was a factor pushing the employees to seek for new opportunities. However, this research did not include participants in the top-level management, e.g. the board of directors or managing directors. So, it could not tell if such high-ranked employees would be more committed to the organization due to their higher responsibility for the performance of the company.

Rita from the retail industry best described the situation

It does not matter if I'm a manager or a staff member. If the company is good, I will stay. If not, I'll go somewhere else. Except that you are in the top management team, the sense of responsibility might keep you committed to the company longer than others. - Rita, Retail industry

4.2.1.13 Impact of Perceived Organizational Support on Commitment

All the ten interviewees agreed that they would feel appreciated if the organization supported them and that directly led to their commitment level to the organization. Supportive environment was highly valued in the eyes of both less committed and highly committed employees. Not only would the organizational support encourage them to work more efficiently and increase their job satisfaction,

but it also directly resulted in their high commitment level. The support itself reflected how the organization valued employees, which directly affected the level of commitment.

Organizational support included not only work-related support but also personal support: any action that showed concern for an individual's personal matters, e.g. their health issues, financial problems, or welfare of his/her family members. The support could extend to an act of generosity, which was not related to individual's performance, such as support given to their personal life (for example, vacation leave, scholarship or free lunch).

Karen from the service industry talked about how her organization impressed her in specific events and how its treatment resulted in her high commitment level.

> I think anyone will feel committed to his/her company if he or she knows that it support him or her. I used to undergo an operation. I stayed for a week in a hospital. Not only did the company support me financially in conformity with the HR policy, but the HR manager himself also visited me with a bunch of flowers. Sometimes just by showing how you care, it means a lot to the employees and they are very likely to stay with the company longer. - Karen, Service industry

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research gave an insight into the effects of satisfaction with organizational strategy, satisfaction with organizational culture, procedural justice, distributive justice and perceived organizational support on the employees' commitment level. The main method in determining these effects were the quantitative multiple regression analysis and the qualitative content analysis. The interesting part of this research was that the concept of satisfaction was taken into account and calculation was made step by step determining the gap that caused satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

In this chapter, the results from the quantitative and qualitative research presented in Chapter 4 were summarized, followed by discussion, implications and recommendations to organizations in order to increase their employees' commitment level. Lastly, future research was recommended.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

In this section, the results from both quantitative and qualitative was briefly stated in order of the set objectives in Chapter 1.

Firstly, the impacts of various organizational factors were summed up ranging from perceived organizational support (POS), distributive and procedural justice, age, and job positions on employees' organizational commitment level.

To complete the findings, the quantitative study gave information about the significant impact of perceived organizational support (POS), procedural justice and age on employees' organizational commitment level. All these three independent variables positively affected the level of the employees' organizational commitment while distributive justice and job position presumably did not have any significant impact on their commitment level.

The quantitative results were well supported with the content analysis of the qualitative research. Perceived organization support (POS) was confirmed to play an important role in increasing the level of commitment and the intention to stay in the organization. In the eyes of interviewees, organizational support reflected how much an organization values its employees. This support could be perceived in both business and personal angles: caring for their troubling personal or health issues or being supportive for the work environment, for example.

Procedural justice was another factor contributing to a high commitment level. When talking about the fairness in procedures, first thing that came to the mind of the interviewees was the fairness in setting the key performance index (KPI). The in-depth interview, showed that employees tended to compare themselves with other employees. In a situation in which everyone got what he or she deserved, the commitment level would rise.

Age, was another factor found to be directly related to the commitment level. As employees became older, they would develop a high level of toleration to dissatisfying factors, leading to more willingness to stay at the current organization. Another reason was that motivation to seek for something better faded away when employees were getting older. The more mature the employees were, the more they wanted their lives to be slow-paced and be settled.

As for distributive justice and job position, the qualitative research also confirmed the irrelevance of these factors as the predictors of the respondents' commitment level. Distributive justice was a tricky predictor of the commitment level. It might be a predictor that caused a huge swing in satisfaction level of the employees but did not contribute to the construct like the commitment level. When the rewards were satisfying, employees gave credits to the fairness of procedural justice in order to justify that they deserved such rewards. On the other hand, when the rewards were not satisfying, they blamed the bias of procedural justice and did not admit they might have performed poorly.

Position was another factor irrelevant to the commitment level. The finding was confirmed by the qualitative finding that in the present time, managers did not stick to their status quo in the organization like they did in the past. Because of easy access to opportunities, such as headhunters or social media recruitment, managers

got a better chance to find a job elsewhere than before. The commitment level in this sense revolved around the satisfaction of employees regardless of their statuses or positions in the company unless they were at the top management level or in the board of directors, whom this research did not include in the list of participants.

Secondly, the impacts of organizational strategic satisfaction and organizational cultural satisfaction on the employees' organizational commitment level were determined. It was found that the organizational strategic and cultural satisfaction positively affected the level of organizational commitment at the significant level of 95%. The concept of satisfaction indicated that the greater the magnitude of the perceived level minus the expectation level resulted in a higher level of commitment.

The interviewees stated that their satisfaction with the selection of organizational strategies by the management team highly affected their commitment level, making them want to stay in or leave the organization. The employees who were satisfied with their organizational strategies were somewhat proud of and confident in their organization's position and direction. They were able to point out specific strategies that they were fond of and how they were personally related to those strategies. Most of the respondents also stated that they could do their jobs well only if they believed in what they did, or in other words, when they were satisfied with the strategies involved with their work. Being forced to do the tasks that they were against in principle resulted in a low commitment level to the company.

As for organizational cultural satisfaction, any organizational culture that was an obstacle to employees' completing their work effectively would result in dissatisfaction with such a culture and eventually resulted in a low commitment level to the organization. From the interview, it was found that there was stronger connection between organizational culture and commitment, rather than between organizational strategies and commitment. This might be because organizational culture was more rooting to the organization and could not be changed easily. In order to find satisfaction with culture, it might take too long for the organization to adjust its culture. Therefore, motivation to leave the company was stronger when employees were dissatisfied with the organizational culture.

Lastly, there was an interaction effect between distributive and procedural justice, on organizational commitment. The quantitative results showed that there is an interaction effect of procedural justice and distributive justice, which were positively related to the employees' commitment level. In this research, procedural justice was a moderator of distributive justice to commitment. The result could be interpreted that when distributive justice was low, commitment level was consequently low and the gap varied very little regardless of the procedural justice level. However, when distributive justice level was high, a higher level of procedural justice resulted in even a higher commitment level.

This finding was confirmed by the qualitative research in which the interviewees perceived that rewards and remuneration reflected their values to the organization. When the fairness of distributing rewards was low (distributive justice), the commitment level was consequently low. On the contrary, when the fairness of distributing rewards was high, the commitment level was consequently high. However, the fairness of evaluation process (procedural justice) could increase the already-high commitment level. Moreover, the respondents agreed that many employees viewed the fairness of rewards by comparing themselves to others around them. They compared the ratio of output/input and evaluated if the organization was fair to them. In case that their personal evaluation of organizational justice was positive, the commitment level rose.

5.2 Discussion and Implications

The research revealed that the independent variables that positively affected the employees' organizational commitment level were organizational strategic satisfaction, organizational cultural satisfaction, procedural justice, and the product term of distributive justice and procedural justice. As for control variables, it was found that perceived organizational support and age positively impacted the commitment level. In this section, the findings were discussed whether they were aligned with previous research and their implications for organizations to increase their employees' commitment level.

5.2.1 Organizational Commitment

In order to make theoretical contributions to the area of the study, the findings of this research were compared with those of other previous research on organizational commitment conducted in Thailand setting. The similarity and the difference in terms of determinants and components of organizational commitment were also determined. Colignon et al. (2007) examined the extent and determinants of organizational commitment among 959 Thai employees in 10 Japanese and American transplant corporations in Bangkok through a questionnaire survey. Interviews with Thai, American and Japanese managers were used to complement and elaborate the findings.

It was assumed that the closeness to a fit between the job and the personnel filling the job affected organizational commitment. That is, the better an employee fits the job, the higher his/her commitment. The literature revealed that major influence on the formation of organizational commitment could be more specifically broken down into job characteristics, structural characteristics, work experience, and personal characteristics (Steers, 1976; Hackman, & Oldham 1980; Lincoln, & Kalleberg, 1996).

Colignon found higher average levels of both identification and behavioral commitment of Thai employees in US firms despite extensive cultural contrasts between Thais and Americans. Cultural contrasts and similarities among Thais, Americans, and Japanese were clearly complex. Factors that distinguished the employees of U.S. and Japanese firms involved differences in social and cultural features of employee relationships, which included managerial aloofness and confiding with supervisors.

In Colignon's research, the concept of fitness in job characteristics, structural characteristics, work experience, personal characteristics and the importance of organizational cultures to employees' commitment in Thailand settings were explored and discussed. This research also included the concept of satisfaction with areas closely related to factors mentioned earlier, together with the exploration of satisfaction with organizational strategy and the perception in organizational justice.

As witnessed in Colignon's research, the implication of commitment therefore was suggested that in order to apply any solution or improvement, organizational culture in a particular company should be taken into account because what worked for

one company might not work for another. Thus, the assessment of satisfaction before applying any implications should reward companies in terms of yielding expected results.

5.2.2 Organizational Strategic Satisfaction

In the literature review, many approaches were used to discuss organizational strategic satisfaction, may it be person-organization fit (Cable, & Judge, 1996), goal congruence (Vancouver, & Schmitt, 1991) and the concept of disconfirmation (Oliver, 1980). It had been proven that these concepts could all be used to measure their effect on commitment level. However, the concept of measurement created by Parasuraman et al. (1988) was the most effective one. That is, when perceived strategy was far better than expected strategy, greater satisfaction would result.

Both the quantitative and qualitative results confirmed that the largest positive gap between perceived and expected strategies led to a high commitment level to the company. Organizations which portrayed the largest negative gap would be considered as irrational-behaved organizations in the eyes of employees, which caused insecurity and led them to seek for a new job opportunity. This finding was also in line with the findings of Silva et al. (2010) and Wheeler et al. (2007).

When the setting of this research was compared to that of Silva et al.'s, some similarities were found. Silva et al. focused on currently employed participants from various industries and positions. However, the respondents in their study aged 20-29 years and worked for their respective organizations for an average of only 2.66 years. Silva et al. found that the relationship between the employees' perception of organizational strategy fit and their organizational commitment was moderated by their perception of other job alternatives. Specifically, employees who perceived many alternative job options and who had a misfit between the strategy that their organization adopted and their ideal strategy were less committed to the organization than their counterparts. However, when there were few job alternatives, there was no relationship between strategy fit and organizational commitment.

This result might have occurred as a consequence when young participants with few years' tenure were selected. By that, their choices in careers seemed to be widely open in comparison to the older participants. In contrast, this research consists

of participants of various ages and tenures. The average age of the participants was 37; that is why the job alternative was not included as a significant factor in the framework in the first place.

As for the implication, this seems to be an uncontrollable factor for an organization to align its strategies and direction to match the expectation of its employees. However, communication is the key to help cope with this problem. One often sees visions or missions stated in the hall of fame or published in annual reports or business magazines. This is a step to help communicate an organization's strategy to those who want to join the company so that they will have an opportunity to know the standpoint of the company beforehand to prevent the strategic gap and disappointment for newcomers.

Another question was, what to do with the already-joined employees who did not satisfy with the given or changed strategies along the way. This question should again be answered by communication. This time the communication had to be carried out two-way by having a session of the management team meeting with staff from all levels or distributing job satisfaction questionnaires to seek opinions on how to improve the way of working together.

5.2.3 Organizational Cultural Satisfaction

According to the literature review, O'Reilly et al. (1991) stated that an individual was attracted to organizations with similar values to their own and would retain a higher commitment level. However, similarity could be explained by evaluating the concept of satisfaction with culture by using the measure developed by Parasuraman et al. (1988), which was believed to best describe the objective construct.

However, in order to measure satisfaction, the concept of gap by Rowe and Dickel (1994) and Bourantas and Papalexandris (1992) was found to be useful because the largest positive gap between perceived and expected cultures led to a high commitment level to the company.

When comparing the findings of this research with O'Reilly's et al. (1991) work, it was found that he developed a similar instrument called the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) which contained a set of value statements that could be used to assess both the extent to which certain values characterized a target organization and

an individual's preference for that particular configuration of values. However, his respondents consisted of MBA students, accountants, and government agencies, so his sample was not the same as the sample of this research. Still, the results were the same; that is, value congruence yielded a positive effect on normative commitment level and a negative effect on intention to leave.

An implication to shape the commonly desired organizational culture was that it needed to be consistently built. Culture is something adaptive through time. Some organizations have chosen a quick way to instantly shape its new culture by hiring new employees in abundance from well-known international organizations to keep the company modern, dynamic and to get rid of the old blood and bureaucracy. While other companies might choose a softer way, such as gradually communicate the desired values in the company or set behavioral KPIs to match the preferred culture.

5.2.4 Procedural Justice and Distributive Justice

With respect to organizational justice, the respondents were found to be more concerned with fairness in an evaluation process than the amount of rewards itself. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 4, distributive justice insignificantly affected the commitment level. This was in line with the literature review by McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) and Cropanzano and Folger (1991) that procedural justice was related more with organizational commitment than distributive justice, whereas distributive justice was related more with individuals' personal goals. This showed us that the employees tend to see things by comparing themselves with other employees. A key point was that in a situation in which everyone got what he or she deserved, the commitment level would rise.

Comparing the results of this research with those of McFarlin and Sweeney's (1992) work, it was found that the research settings differed in terms of respondents. They focused on 1,000 bankers in the USA while this research focused on employees from various industries in Thailand. However, the means of age, tenure and gender variation were quite similar. As a result, their finding reflected the same picture as that in this research. That is, distributive justice was correlated with personal outcomes while procedural justice was correlated with organizational outcomes such as the commitment level.

From the HR point of view, an important thing that a company can do at least is to set the fair KPIs among the same job functions because mostly employees often compare themselves with others in the same job functions. For example, a salesperson in modern trade channel should bear approximately the same weighted KPIs of sales and profit as a salesperson in traditional trade. Furthermore, any significant promotion should be placed upon a committee that consists of managers from various teams to help justify if a person from team A, for example, deserves to be promoted rather than another person from team B, in order to get rid of one's bias. Such as example of procedural justice should be able to lift up the employees' level of commitment to some extent.

5.2.5 Distributive Justice x Procedural Justice

From the test of multiple regression, it was found that distributive justice alone did not significantly affect the organizational commitment level. However, the moderation effect of procedural justice on distributive justice was found to significantly affect the organizational commitment level. In short, procedural justice acted as a moderator of distributive justice to commitment, thus confirming the statement of Greenberg (1987) and McFarlin and Sweeney (1992). Further interviews revealed that, justice or fairness in the evaluation process could help increase the level of commitment when the distributive justice was high.

This finding was quite in contrast with earlier research by McFarlin and Sweeney. In their research, fair procedures yielded a high level of commitment regardless of the distributive justice level. In this research, distributive justice was correlated with the commitment level and procedural justice acted as an enhancer of a higher commitment level.

5.2.6 Perceived Organizational Support

Another control factor, which positively affected commitment level was perceived organizational support (POS). This research confirmed the findings in Wayne et al.'s research (1997), who developed the integrated model of social exchange, the impact of perceived organizational support on the commitment did exist even without leader-member exchange in the framework. Moreover, this research

supported the findings of Eisenberger et al. (1990), which stated that perceived organizational support affected only affective commitment. This research's questionnaire items of commitment included all three types of commitment altogether as explained by Meyer and Allen (1997).

Wayne et al.'s (1997) work included 570 participants who were salaried employees in the USA with at least 5 years' tenure. The more complicated step was to include those 570 employees' supervisors in the study with separate questionnaires. The results confirmed that perceived organizational support was positively correlated with fulfilling obligations to the organization, which included affective commitment, intention to stay, and citizenship behavior.

An implication for an organization to increase organizational support was that the management team should put efforts on listening more to individuals. In a job-oriented workplace, personal issues or small benefits to help employees work better might be overlooked. The concept of organizational support has been widely used through large labor unions or smaller welfare committees. An example of organizational support included small gifts when employees were admitted in hospital, financial support on families' funerals, and discounted company's goods for employees or free supplies of stationery.

5.2.7 Age

In this research, the respondents stated that age was directly related to their toleration to dissatisfying factors. This led to more willingness to stay at the current organization. In short, the older the employee was, the more commitment level they showed which confirmed the statement made by Super (1957) and Wang et al. (2012).

Many previous research studies supported this finding. The analyses found a significant correlation, though weak, among age, tenure, and commitment. Meyer et al. (2002) found a correlation of 0.15 between age and affective commitment from a meta-analysis of 39 studies with 15,567 cases. Researchers using career-stage models to examine the age/tenure-commitment relationship had primarily relied on the developmental model of Super (1957), which argued that younger and less experienced workers would be less committed to their employers than would older, more tenured workers. According to Super's theory, people passed through four

stages: trial, establishment, maintenance, and decline. In the trial stage, workers were the least committed and the least involved with their jobs. In the establishment stage, worker commitment and involvement increased and remained at high level throughout the maintenance stage. In the final stage, decline, people were beginning to or preparing to withdraw from their jobs and might experience a decline in commitment and involvement.

The implication of age did not necessarily mean that organizations should keep only aged employees to maintain a high level of commitment. However, this factor was given by default. An organization might benefit from this factor by appointing senior staff to be coaches to help new generation of employees to get through frustration in the early period of joining the company.

5.2.8 Job Position

As discussed earlier in Chapter 4, position of an employee insignificantly affected his/her commitment level in this research. This was in contrast with the finding of Olukayode (2003). He selected the respondents from two multinational manufacturing companies in the same trade group (Chemical, Footwear, Rubber Leather and Non-Metallic Product) in Lagos, Nigeria, with a sample size of 600 respondents. His empirical evidence revealed that there was a significant association between job status and employee commitment to work. This in effect meant that the classification of employees according to grade and distinction was important in determining their commitment to work in the organizational environment.

The difference in findings was based on the difference in sample selection. While this research focus on office workers in headquarters, Olukayode selected his respondents from two manufacturing- based companies with the proportion of 64% male respondents and 77% of them had low education. From the profile of respondents, it could be assumed that job status might be considered as an important factor in employees' career, thus reflecting a high correlation to their commitment level.

5.2.9 Contribution to Organizational Theory

Morgan, Gregory and Roach (1997) describes the main ideas underlying contingency theory that organizations are open systems that need careful management

to satisfy and balance internal needs and to adapt to environmental circumstances. There is no one best way of organizing. The appropriate form depends on the kind of task or environment one is dealing with. Therefore, management must be concerned with achieving alignments and good fits. In summary, different types or species of organizations are needed in different types of environments.

This research compliments the basis of contingency theory in the way that organizations must align their internal contexts with their environments in order to keep the organizations going. The concept of fit between these two elements is being emphasized again according to this theory. In this sense, the internal contexts can be referred to as organizational strategy, culture and justice, while the environments of the organizations are reflected in perception and expectation of employees.

Another organizational theory worth addressing is agency theory. Agency Theory explains how to best organize relationships in which one party determines the work while another party does the work. In this relationship, the principal hires an agent to do the work, or to perform a task the principal is unable or unwilling to do. For example, in corporations, the principals are the shareholders of a company, delegating to the agent i.e. the management of the company, to perform tasks on their behalf. Agency theory assumes both the principal and the agent are motivated by self-interest. This assumption of self-interest dooms agency theory to inevitable inherent conflicts. Thus, if both parties are motivated by self-interest, agents are likely to pursue self-interested objectives that deviate and even conflict with the goals of the principal. Yet, agents are supposed to act in the sole interest of their principals (Bruce, Buck, & Main, 2005).

This research helps explain the context of this theory in the most effective way. When agents' expectations exceed current status of important aspects of the organization, satisfaction of employees would increase. Satisfaction eventually turns into high commitment level which lead to even better aligned objectives between organizations and employees.

5.3 Opportunities for Future Research

This research provided a better understanding of key important factors contributing to a high level of commitment. Given that a high commitment level is a

positive factor desired by most companies, many implications could be made to stimulate the employees' intention to stay through the use of these causal factors. However, there were some limitations in this research.

Firstly, there was a limitation in the scope of content. Previous research has found many contributing factors to the commitment level apart from what was found in this research: for example, pay satisfaction, relationships with supervisors or colleagues and career advancement. This researcher intentionally selected some predictors, which few previous research touched and left out many popular predictors from the framework. The smaller scope resulted in a relatively low value of R-square, which meant that all the related predictors in this research could not fully explain the causes of commitment level. This left room for future research to gather all related predictors in one large-scale single research.

Secondly, there was a limitation in geography scope. As this research selected private organizations located in Thailand as the sample and focused mainly on respondents in the Bangkok headquarters, future research could expand the scope by conducting a comparative research between public and private organizations, or could expand the framework to cover other regions, or even cross-border comparative research.

Lastly, the limitation was in the measurement concept. This research largely used the concept of satisfaction which was derived from the gap between the perceived level and expected level of strategy and culture. However, many different measurement concepts could be explored, for example; the concept of fit in which the less magnitude of a gap between the perceived level and expected level of strategy and culture resulted in a high commitment level. Moreover, one can explore the direct measurement of satisfaction by using the Likert scale in the questionnaire item. The score could range from 0 (very dissatisfied) to (7) very satisfied in each dimension of tested variables.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

ส่วนที่ 1 ข้อมูลส่วนตัวของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

1. **เพศ**   ☐ ชาย   ☐ หญิง

2. **อายุ**   _____ ปี

3. **ตำแหน่งงาน**   ☐ ระดับพนักงาน   ☐ ระดับผู้จัดการ

4. **ระดับรายได้ต่อเดือน**

☐ น้อยกว่า 15,000 บาท   ☐ 15,001- 20,000 บาท   ☐ 20,001- 25,000 บาท

☐ 25,001- 30,000 บาท   ☐ 30,001- 35,000 บาท   ☐ 35,001- 40,000 บาท

☐ 40,001- 45,000 บาท   ☐ 45,001- 50,000 บาท   ☐ มากกว่า 50,000 บาท

5. **อายุการทำงานในองค์การปัจจุบัน**

☐ 0-3 ปี   ☐ 4-6 ปี   ☐ 7-10 ปี   ☐ 10 ปีขึ้นไป

6. **ระดับการศึกษา**

☐ ต่ำกว่าปริญญาตรี   ☐ ปริญญาตรี   ☐ ปริญญาโท   ☐ สูงกว่าปริญญาโท

ส่วนที่ 2 คำถามเกี่ยวกับความผูกพันองค์การ

จากคำถามดังต่อไปนี้ กรุณาวงคะแนนจาก 1-10 ตามความรู้สึกของท่านที่มีต่อองค์การ
โดย 1= ไม่เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด และ 10= เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด

ข้อ	คำถาม	ไม่เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด-----------------------เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด									
1.	ข้าพเจ้าพร้อมที่จะทุ่มเทกับงานเกินกว่าที่หน่วยงานคาดหวังเพื่อให้องค์การนี้ประสบความสำเร็จ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.	ข้าพเจ้ามักจะบอกกล่าวกับเพื่อนเสมอว่าองค์การนี้เป็นองค์การที่ยอดเยี่ยมในการทำงานด้วย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3.	ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกว่าข้าพเจ้ามีความภักดีต่อองค์การนี้มาก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4.	ข้าพเจ้าพร้อมทำทุกเรื่องที่ได้รับมอบหมาย ขอเพียงแค่ได้ทำงานในองค์การนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5.	ค่านิยมของตัวข้าพเจ้าและขององค์การนี้มีความคล้ายคลึงกัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6.	ข้าพเจ้ามีความภาคภูมิใจที่จะบอกผู้อื่นว่าข้าพเจ้าเป็นส่วนหนึ่งขององค์การนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7.	จะทำงานที่ไหน องค์การใดไม่สำคัญ ตราบใดที่ลักษณะงานของข้าพเจ้ายังเป็นเหมือนเดิม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8.	องค์การนี้ให้แรงบันดาลใจแก่ข้าพเจ้าในการที่จะทำงานต่อไป	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.	ถ้าสถานการณ์ในการทำงานแตกต่างออกไปจากปัจจุบันแม้เพียงเล็กน้อย ข้าพเจ้าก็พร้อมที่จะออกจากองค์การทันที	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10.	ข้าพเจ้าคิดว่าข้าพเจ้าได้ตัดสินใจอย่างถูกต้องแล้วในการเลือกที่จะทำงานให้กับองค์การนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

ข้อ	คำถาม	ไม่เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด----------------------เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด									
11.	ข้าพเจ้าไม่ค่อยได้อะไรมากนักจากการทำงานอยู่กับองค์การนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
12.	ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกสบายใจกับนโยบายขององค์การในเรื่องที่เกี่ยวข้องกับพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13.	ข้าพเจ้าใส่ใจกับอนาคตขององค์การนี้อย่างจริงจัง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
14.	องค์การนี้เป็นองค์การที่ดีที่สุดสำหรับข้าพเจ้าที่จะทำงานด้วย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
15.	การตัดสินใจทำงานกับองค์การนี้เป็นความผิดพลาดของข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

ส่วนที่ 3 คำถามเกี่ยวกับความคิดเห็นของพนักงานต่อความสอดคล้องทางกลยุทธ์ของ องค์การ

คำถาม: องค์การที่ท่านทำงานอยู่มีสภาพที่เป็นจริง/ปรากฏในประเด็นดังต่อไปนี้อย่างไร

และตัวท่านมีความคาดหวัง/ความต้องการต่อองค์การในแต่ละประเด็นดังกล่าวอย่างไร

(กรุณาวงคะแนนจาก 1-10 โดย 1=น้อยที่สุด และ 10= มากที่สุด)

ข้อ	คำถาม	สภาพที่เป็นจริง/ปรากฏในองค์การ									
		น้อยที่สุด---------------------------มากที่สุด									
1.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ธุรกิจหลักขององค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความหลากหลายในการทำธุรกิจขององค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่การโฆษณา	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4.	ความต้องการเป็นเจ้าแรกที่ออกสู่ตลาด	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5.	ความต้องการที่จะเป็นเจ้าแรกที่ค้นพบวิธีส่งมอบสินค้าและบริการแบบใหม่	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6.	การเสาะแสวงหาโอกาสใหม่ๆ ทางธุรกิจ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

ข้อ	คำถาม	สภาพที่เป็นจริง/ปรากฏในองค์การ									
		น้อยที่สุด--------------------------มากที่สุด									
7.	ความพยายามสร้างและรักษาคุณค่าของตราสินค้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8.	ความพยายามควบคุมคุณภาพสินค้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ประสิทธิภาพในการผลิตสินค้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10.	การตอบสนองความต้องการของกลุ่มเป้าหมายเฉพาะ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11.	ความพยายามที่จะแข่งขันกับคู่แข่งในด้านราคา	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
12.	การมุ่งเน้นด้านการพัฒนากระบวนการผลิตและนวัตกรรม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13.	การรักษาไว้ซึ่งความมีเสถียรภาพในการให้บริการ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
14.	ความยืดหยุ่นในการเปลี่ยนธุรกิจหลักขององค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

ข้อ	คำถาม	ความคาดหวัง/ความต้องการของท่านต่อองค์การ									
		น้อยที่สุด----------------------------------มากที่สุด									
1.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ธุรกิจหลักขององค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความหลากหลายในการทำธุรกิจขององค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่การโฆษณา	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4.	ความต้องการเป็นเจ้าแรกที่ออกสู่ตลาด	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5.	ความต้องการที่จะเป็นเจ้าแรกที่ค้นพบวิธีส่งมอบสินค้าและบริการแบบใหม่	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6.	การเสาะแสวงหาโอกาสใหม่ๆ ทางธุรกิจ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

ข้อ	คำถาม	ความคาดหวัง/ความต้องการของท่านต่อองค์การ									
		น้อยที่สุด--------------------------------มากที่สุด									
7.	ความพยายามสร้างและรักษาคุณค่าของตราสินค้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8.	ความพยายามควบคุมคุณภาพสินค้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ประสิทธิภาพในการผลิตสินค้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10.	การตอบสนองความต้องการของกลุ่มเป้าหมายเฉพาะ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11.	ความพยายามที่จะแข่งขันกับคู่แข่งในด้านราคา	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
12.	การมุ่งเน้นด้านการพัฒนากระบวนการผลิตและนวัตกรรม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13.	การรักษาไว้ซึ่งความมีเสถียรภาพในการให้บริการ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
14.	ความยืดหยุ่นในการเปลี่ยนธุรกิจหลักขององค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

ส่วนที่ 4 คำถามเกี่ยวกับความคิดเห็นของพนักงานต่อความสอดคล้องทางวัฒนธรรม
 ขององค์การ

คำถาม: องค์การที่ท่านทำงานอยู่มีสภาพที่เป็นจริง/ปรากฏในประเด็นดังต่อไปนี้อย่างไร และตัว
      ท่านมีความคาดหวัง/ความต้องการต่อองค์การในแต่ละประเด็นดังกล่าวอย่างไร

(กรุณาวงคะแนนจาก 1-10 โดย 1= น้อยที่สุด และ 10 = มากที่สุด)

ข้อ	คำถาม	สภาพที่เป็นจริง/ปรากฏในองค์การ									
		น้อยที่สุด--------------------------มากที่สุด									
1.	การยกย่องชมเชยเมื่อพนักงานทำงานได้ดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.	ความรวดเร็วในการปฏิบัติงานของพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3.	การรับมือกับสถานการณ์ที่ไม่คุ้นเคยของพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

ข้อ	คำถาม	สภาพที่เป็นจริง/ปรากฏในองค์การ									
		น้อยที่สุด--------------------------มากที่สุด									
4.	การมีอำนาจในการตัดสินใจของพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5.	การตัดสินใจแบบรวมศูนย์จากผู้บริหาร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6.	ความสนใจที่องค์การมีต่อปัญหาส่วนตัวของพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความสามารถของพนักงานในการทำงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8.	การวางแผนในระยะยาวขององค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความสามารถพิเศษเฉพาะบุคคล	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10.	ความตระหนี่ในเรื่องเล็กน้อยของฝ่ายบริหาร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11.	ความใส่ใจของพนักงานต่อการช่วยลดค่าใช้จ่ายขององค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
12.	ความตรงต่อเวลาของพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13.	การฝึกอบรมพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
14.	การยึดหลักปฏิบัติจริงในเรื่องของจริยธรรมองค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
15.	ความมุ่งเน้นในด้านการช่วยเหลือสังคม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
16.	ความมุ่งเน้นในการตอบสนองความต้องการลูกค้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

ข้อ	คำถาม	ความคาดหวัง/ความต้องการของท่านต่อองค์การ									
		น้อยที่สุด----------------------------------มากที่สุด									
1.	การยกย่องชมเชยเมื่อพนักงานทำงานได้ดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.	ความรวดเร็วในการปฏิบัติงานของพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

ข้อ	คำถาม	ความคาดหวัง/ความต้องการของท่านต่อองค์การ									
		น้อยที่สุด---------------------------------มากที่สุด									
3.	การรับมือกับสถานการณ์ที่ไม่คุ้นเคยของพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4.	การมีอำนาจในการตัดสินใจของพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5.	การตัดสินใจแบบรวมศูนย์จากผู้บริหาร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6.	ความสนใจที่องค์การมีต่อปัญหาส่วนตัวของพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความสามารถของพนักงานในการทำงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8.	การวางแผนในระยะยาวขององค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความสามารถพิเศษเฉพาะบุคคล	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10.	ความตระหนี่ในเรื่องเล็กน้อยของฝ่ายบริหาร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11.	ความใส่ใจของพนักงานต่อการช่วยลดค่าใช้จ่ายขององค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
12.	ความตรงต่อเวลาของพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13.	การฝึกอบรมพนักงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
14.	การยึดหลักปฏิบัติจริงในเรื่องของจริยธรรมองค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
15.	ความมุ่งเน้นในด้านการช่วยเหลือสังคม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
16.	ความมุ่งเน้นในการตอบสนองความต้องการลูกค้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

ส่วนที่ 5 คำถามเกี่ยวกับตัวแปรด้านอื่น ๆที่มีผลต่อความผูกพันองค์การ

กรุณาวงคะแนนจาก 1-10 ตามความรู้สึกของท่านที่มีต่อองค์การ โดย 1= ไม่เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
และ 10= เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด

5.1 การสนับสนุนขององค์การในสายตาพนักงาน

ข้อ	คำถาม	ไม่เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด --------------------เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด									
1.	ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การไม่แสดงออกว่ามีความใส่ใจในตัวข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.	ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การให้ความใส่ใจในความรู้สึกของข้าพเจ้าที่มีต่อการทำงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3.	ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การใส่ใจความเป็นอยู่ของข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4.	ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การให้ความสำคัญต่อเป้าหมายและค่านิยมของข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5.	ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การสนใจความคิดเห็นของข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6.	แม้ว่าข้าพเจ้าจะทำงานได้ดีแค่ไหน ฝ่ายบริหารก็มักจะมองข้าม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

5.2 ความเป็นธรรมขององค์การ

ข้อ	คำถาม	ไม่เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด ----------------------เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด									
1.	ข้าพเจ้าสามารถแสดงความคิดเห็นและความรู้สึกต่อกระบวนการประเมินผลขององค์การ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.	ข้าพเจ้ามีอิทธิพลต่อผลลัพธ์ที่เกิดจากกระบวนการประเมินผล	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3.	กระบวนการในการประเมินผลถูกนำมาใช้อย่างสม่ำเสมอ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4.	กระบวนการในการประเมินผลปราศจากอคติ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

ข้อ	คำถาม	ไม่เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด ----------------------เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด									
5.	กระบวนการในการประเมินผลตั้งอยู่บนหลักของข้อมูลที่แม่นยำ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6.	ข้าพเจ้าสามารถอุทธรณ์ต่อผลลัพธ์ที่เกิดจากกระบวนการประเมินผล	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7.	กระบวนการในการประเมินผลได้มาตรฐานทางจริยธรรมและศีลธรรม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8.	ผลตอบแทนสะท้อนถึงความพยายามที่ข้าพเจ้ามีให้กับการทำงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.	ผลตอบแทนมีความเหมาะสมกับสิ่งที่ข้าพเจ้าได้ทำ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10.	ผลตอบแทนมีความยุติธรรมเมื่อเทียบกับผลงานของข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

APPENDIX B

FREQUENCIES OF SCORES, MEAN AND
STANDARD DEVIATION BY ITEMS

Commitment Level		Frequency of Scores										x̄	S.D.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1.	ข้าพเจ้าพร้อมที่จะทุ่มเท กับงานเกินกว่าที่ หน่วยงานคาดหวังเพื่อให้ องค์การนี้ประสบ ความสำเร็จ	1	1	2	7	45	36	81	104	80	43	7.57	1.63
		0%	0%	1%	2%	11%	9%	20%	26%	20%	11%		
2.	ข้าพเจ้ามักจะบอกกล่าว กับเพื่อนเสมอว่าองค์การนี้ เป็นองค์การที่ยอดเยี่ยม ในการทำงานด้วย	1	6	6	11	43	51	98	100	59	25	7.16	1.7
		0%	2%	2%	3%	11%	13%	25%	25%	15%	6%		
3.	ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกว่าข้าพเจ้ามี ความภักดีต่อองค์การนี้ มาก	3	3	8	9	40	43	79	94	72	49	7.43	1.84
		1%	1%	2%	2%	10%	11%	20%	24%	18%	12%		
4.	ข้าพเจ้าพร้อมทำทุกเรื่องที่ ได้รับมอบหมาย ขอเพียง แค่ได้ทำงานในองค์การนี้	9	3	15	20	52	72	67	68	53	41	6.83	2.09
		2%	1%	4%	5%	13%	18%	17%	17%	13%	10%		
5.	ค่านิยมของตัวข้าพเจ้า และขององค์การนี้มีความ คล้ายคลึงกัน	7	3	10	24	65	61	82	83	50	15	6.67	1.87
		2%	1%	3%	6%	16%	15%	21%	21%	13%	4%		
6.	ข้าพเจ้ามีความภาคภูมิใจ ที่จะบอกผู้อื่นว่าข้าพเจ้า เป็นส่วนหนึ่งขององค์การ นี้	1	2	7	8	22	49	65	102	83	60	7.72	1.72
		0%	1%	2%	2%	6%	12%	16%	26%	21%	15%		
7.	จะทำงานที่ไหน องค์การ ใดไม่สำคัญ ตราบใดที่ ลักษณะงานของข้าพเจ้า ยังเป็นเหมือนเดิม	27	14	36	34	65	64	64	50	23	23	5.73	2.37
		7%	4%	9%	9%	16%	16%	16%	13%	6%	6%		
8.	องค์การนี้ให้แรงบันดาลใจ แก่ข้าพเจ้าในการที่จะ ทำงานต่อไป	2	3	11	21	47	60	92	85	51	28	6.96	1.81
		1%	1%	3%	5%	12%	15%	23%	21%	13%	7%		
9.	ถ้าสถานการณ์ในการ ทำงานแตกต่างออกไป จากปัจจุบันแม้เพียง เล็กน้อย ข้าพเจ้าก็พร้อมที่ จะออกจากองค์การทันที	63	38	51	58	62	40	42	26	16	4	4.4	2.38
		16%	10%	13%	15%	16%	10%	11%	7%	4%	1%		

Commitment Level		**Frequency of Scores**										$\bar{x}$	**S.D.**
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
10.	ข้าพเจ้าคิดว่าข้าพเจ้าได้ตัดสินใจอย่างถูกต้องแล้วในการเลือกที่จะทำงานให้กับองค์การนี้	2	0	5	15	42	48	84	85	61	58	7.43	1.79
		1%	0%	1%	4%	11%	12%	21%	21%	15%	15%		
11.	ข้าพเจ้าไม่ค่อยได้อะไรมากนักจากการทำงานอยู่กับองค์การนี้	65	54	53	58	58	42	30	22	14	4	4.15	2.34
		16%	14%	13%	15%	15%	11%	8%	6%	4%	1%		
12.	ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกสบายใจกับนโยบายขององค์การในเรื่องที่เกี่ยวข้องกับพนักงาน	11	9	18	23	64	56	80	72	44	23	6.48	2.11
		3%	2%	5%	6%	16%	14%	20%	18%	11%	6%		
13.	ข้าพเจ้าใส่ใจกับอนาคตขององค์การนี้อย่างจริงจัง	3	8	5	9	56	51	81	87	55	45	7.16	1.9
		1%	2%	1%	2%	14%	13%	20%	22%	14%	11%		
14.	องค์การนี้เป็นองค์การที่ดีที่สุดสำหรับข้าพเจ้าที่จะทำงานด้วย	8	9	10	15	48	61	86	53	59	48	6.95	2.12
		2%	2%	3%	4%	12%	15%	22%	13%	15%	12%		
15.	การตัดสินใจทำงานกับองค์การนี้เป็นความผิดพลาดของข้าพเจ้า	149	63	45	24	50	26	16	14	11	2	3.14	2.35
		37%	16%	11%	6%	13%	7%	4%	4%	3%	1%		

Perceived level of Organizational Strategy		**Frequency of Scores**										$\bar{x}$	**S.D.**
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ธุรกิจหลักขององค์การ	2	5	8	31	48	48	89	88	44	36	6.95	1.9
		1%	1%	2%	8%	12%	12%	22%	22%	11%	9%		
2.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความหลากหลายในการทาธุรกิจขององค์การ	2	8	10	37	67	42	77	86	37	33	6.7	1.99
		1%	2%	3%	9%	17%	11%	19%	22%	9%	8%		
3.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่การโฆษณา	6	7	27	32	73	63	72	58	40	21	6.29	2.05
		2%	2%	7%	8%	18%	16%	18%	15%	10%	5%		
4.	ความต้องการเป็นเจ้าแรกที่ออกสู่ตลาด	7	9	36	29	59	63	69	54	43	31	6.34	2.21
		2%	2%	9%	7%	15%	16%	17%	14%	11%	8%		
5.	ความต้องการที่จะเป็นเจ้าแรกที่ค้นพบวิธีส่งมอบสินค้าและบริการแบบใหม่	7	4	52	32	55	57	81	47	40	24	6.16	2.18
		2%	1%	13%	8%	14%	14%	20%	12%	10%	6%		
6.	การเสาะแสวงหาโอกาสใหม่ๆ ทางธุรกิจ	2	7	19	25	51	63	70	75	54	34	6.81	2.02
		1%	2%	5%	6%	13%	16%	18%	19%	14%	9%		
7.	ความพยายามสร้างและรักษาคุณค่าของตราสินค้า	5	7	18	25	38	50	61	82	56	57	7.07	2.18
		1%	2%	5%	6%	10%	13%	15%	21%	14%	14%		

Perceived level of Organizational Strategy		Frequency of Scores										x̄	S.D.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
8.	ความพยายามควบคุมคุณภาพสินค้า	6	7	10	33	46	54	68	70	52	53	6.94	2.15
		2%	2%	3%	8%	12%	14%	17%	18%	13%	13%		
9.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ประสิทธิภาพในการผลิตสินค้า	2	9	14	34	40	61	75	69	56	40	6.86	2.06
		1%	2%	4%	9%	10%	15%	19%	17%	14%	10%		
10.	การตอบสนองความต้องการของกลุ่มเป้าหมายเฉพาะ	4	2	10	36	66	56	89	70	39	28	6.66	1.89
		1%	1%	3%	9%	17%	14%	22%	18%	10%	7%		
11.	ความพยายามที่จะแข่งขันกับคู่แข่งในด้านราคา	10	12	26	29	60	54	71	63	36	39	6.42	2.27
		3%	3%	7%	7%	15%	14%	18%	16%	9%	10%		
12.	การมุ่งเน้นด้านการพัฒนากระบวนการผลิตและนวัตกรรม	2	6	18	38	53	57	85	77	33	29	6.6	1.96
		1%	2%	5%	10%	13%	14%	21%	19%	8%	7%		
13.	การรักษาไว้ซึ่งความมีเสถียรภาพในการให้บริการ	8	6	7	33	53	59	73	80	39	42	6.79	2.97
		2%	2%	2%	8%	13%	15%	18%	20%	10%	11%		
14.	ความยืดหยุ่นในการเปลี่ยนธุรกิจหลักขององค์การ	7	14	23	47	83	52	69	61	26	17	6	2.06
		2%	4%	6%	12%	21%	13%	17%	15%	7%	4%		

Expected Level of Organizational Strategy		Frequency of Scores										x̄	S.D.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ธุรกิจหลักขององค์การ	0	0	1	2	12	31	69	117	102	66	8.14	1.34
		0%	0%	0%	1%	3%	8%	17%	29%	26%	17%		
2.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความหลากหลายในการทำธุรกิจขององค์การ	3	3	4	5	33	35	61	107	90	57	7.74	1.76
		1%	1%	1%	1%	8%	9%	15%	27%	23%	14%		
3.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่การโฆษณา	3	1	4	7	29	51	75	93	81	56	7.64	1.72
		1%	0%	1%	2%	7%	13%	19%	23%	20%	14%		
4.	ความต้องการเป็นเจ้าแรกที่ออกสู่ตลาด	3	2	2	5	31	40	59	104	89	65	7.81	1.72
		1%	1%	1%	1%	8%	10%	15%	26%	22%	16%		
5.	ความต้องการที่จะเป็นเจ้าแรกที่ค้นพบวิธีส่งมอบสินค้าและบริการแบบใหม่	3	2	6	12	26	40	67	90	90	63	7.7	1.83
		1%	1%	2%	3%	7%	10%	17%	23%	23%	16%		
6.	การเสาะแสวงหาโอกาสใหม่ๆ ทางธุรกิจ	0	2	0	5	15	22	63	104	97	92	8.24	1.48
		0%	1%	0%	1%	4%	6%	16%	26%	24%	23%		
7.	ความพยายามสร้างและรักษาคุณค่าของตราสินค้า	0	2	0	3	15	22	40	96	96	126	8.49	1.49
		0%	1%	0%	1%	4%	6%	10%	24%	24%	32%		

Expected Level of Organizational Strategy		Frequency of Scores										x̄	S.D.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
8.	ความพยายามควบคุม คุณภาพสินค้า	0	1	0	3	13	28	33	100	100	121	8.49	1.45
		0%	0%	0%	1%	3%	7%	8%	25%	25%	30%		
9.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ ประสิทธิภาพในการผลิต สินค้า	0	5	1	5	14	26	46	96	99	108	8.3	1.63
		0%	1%	0%	1%	4%	7%	12%	24%	25%	27%		
10.	การตอบสนองความ ต้องการของ กลุ่มเป้าหมายเฉพาะ	0	0	4	2	15	26	59	111	105	76	8.18	1.44
		0%	0%	1%	1%	4%	7%	15%	28%	26%	19%		
11.	ความพยายามที่จะแข่งขัน กับคู่แข่งในด้านราคา	6	3	9	9	29	32	58	95	84	74	7.7	1.98
		2%	1%	2%	2%	7%	8%	15%	24%	21%	19%		
12.	การมุ่งเน้นด้านการพัฒนา กระบวนการผลิตและ นวัตกรรม	0	3	0	3	9	31	63	107	106	77	8.2	1.44
		0%	1%	0%	1%	2%	8%	16%	27%	27%	19%		
13.	การรักษาไว้ซึ่งความมี เสถียรภาพในการ ให้บริการ	1	1	0	2	8	28	39	117	105	99	8.41	1.39
		0%	0%	0%	1%	2%	7%	10%	29%	26%	25%		
14.	ความยืดหยุ่นในการ เปลี่ยนธุรกิจหลักของ องค์การ	4	2	7	7	35	34	67	105	85	54	7.63	1.82
		1%	1%	2%	2%	9%	9%	17%	26%	21%	14%		

Perceived Level of Organizational Culture		Frequency of Scores										x̄	S.D.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1.	การยกย่องชมเชยเมื่อ พนักงานทำงานได้ดี	5	5	23	32	55	78	92	69	29	12	6.33	1.85
		1%	1%	6%	8%	14%	20%	23%	17%	7%	3%		
2.	ความรวดเร็วในการ ปฏิบัติงานของพนักงาน	4	3	18	37	78	72	95	59	21	13	6.23	1.77
		1%	1%	5%	9%	20%	18%	24%	15%	5%	3%		
3.	การรับมือกับสถานการณ์ที่ ไม่คุ้นเคยของพนักงาน	4	7	33	43	79	72	95	41	18	7	5.87	1.8
		1%	2%	8%	11%	20%	18%	24%	10%	5%	2%		
4.	การมีอำนาจในการ ตัดสินใจของพนักงาน	6	9	33	54	84	78	81	37	10	8	5.65	1.8
		2%	2%	8%	14%	21%	20%	20%	9%	3%	2%		
5.	การตัดสินใจแบบรวมศูนย์ จากผู้บริหาร	2	5	20	25	54	60	73	67	57	36	6.82	2.02
		1%	1%	5%	6%	14%	15%	18%	17%	14%	9%		
6.	ความสนใจที่องค์การมีต่อ ปัญหาส่วนตัวของ พนักงาน	14	15	34	36	88	77	74	36	17	7	5.58	1.97
		4%	4%	9%	9%	22%	19%	19%	9%	4%	2%		
7.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ ความสามารถของ พนักงานในการทำงาน	2	6	29	34	66	68	76	77	25	17	6.3	1.91
		1%	2%	7%	9%	17%	17%	19%	19%	6%	4%		

Perceived Level of Organizational Culture		**Frequency of Scores**										**x̄**	**S.D.**
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
8.	การวางแผนในระยะยาวขององค์การ	7	4	26	34	58	58	66	70	49	28	6.53	2.12
		2%	1%	7%	9%	15%	15%	17%	18%	12%	7%		
9.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความสามารถพิเศษเฉพาะบุคคล	6	6	29	39	86	78	70	59	21	5	5.92	1.82
		2%	2%	7%	10%	22%	20%	18%	15%	5%	1%		
10.	ความตระหนี่ในเรื่องเล็กน้อยของฝ่ายบริหาร	7	5	24	25	74	69	54	70	43	29	6.47	2.09
		2%	1%	6%	6%	19%	17%	14%	18%	11%	7%		
11.	ความใส่ใจของพนักงานต่อการช่วยลดค่าใช้จ่ายขององค์การ	6	12	33	46	85	57	68	52	21	18	5.88	2.04
		2%	3%	8%	12%	21%	14%	17%	13%	5%	5%		
12.	ความตรงต่อเวลาของพนักงาน	11	7	38	54	65	58	70	59	22	15	5.86	2.09
		3%	2%	10%	14%	16%	15%	18%	15%	6%	4%		
13.	การฝึกอบรมพนักงาน	0	2	30	35	66	56	77	73	41	20	6.48	1.92
		0%	1%	8%	9%	17%	14%	19%	18%	10%	5%		
14.	การยึดหลักปฏิบัติจริงในเรื่องของจริยธรรมองค์การ	3	6	18	31	74	68	72	73	35	18	6.42	1.9
		1%	2%	5%	8%	19%	17%	18%	18%	9%	5%		
15.	ความมุ่งเน้นในด้านการช่วยเหลือสังคม	5	7	19	31	58	61	83	66	43	27	6.56	2.02
		1%	2%	5%	8%	15%	15%	21%	17%	11%	7%		
16.	ความมุ่งเน้นในการตอบสนองความต้องการลูกค้า	6	4	11	28	63	55	79	71	57	26	6.75	1.98
		2%	1%	3%	7%	16%	14%	20%	18%	14%	7%		

Expected Level of Organizational Culture		**Frequency of Scores**										**x̄**	**S.D.**
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1.	การยกย่องชมเชยเมื่อพนักงานทำงานได้ดี	3	2	1	10	18	14	62	109	90	91	8.13	1.68
		1%	1%	0%	3%	5%	4%	16%	27%	23%	23%		
2.	ความรวดเร็วในการปฏิบัติงานของพนักงาน	0	0	1	7	11	19	59	108	104	90	8.3	1.42
		0%	0%	0%	2%	3%	5%	15%	27%	26%	23%		
3.	การรับมือกับสถานการณ์ที่ไม่คุ้นเคยของพนักงาน	0	0	3	6	25	32	57	126	88	63	7.95	1.52
		0%	0%	1%	2%	6%	8%	14%	32%	22%	16%		
4.	การมีอำนาจในการตัดสินใจของพนักงาน	1	0	5	6	22	33	79	115	78	61	7.83	1.58
		0%	0%	1%	2%	6%	8%	20%	29%	20%	15%		
5.	การตัดสินใจแบบรวมศูนย์จากผู้บริหาร	3	5	4	10	45	47	70	102	71	42	7.36	1.83
		1%	1%	1%	3%	11%	12%	18%	26%	18%	11%		
6.	ความสนใจที่องค์การมีต่อปัญหาส่วนตัวของพนักงาน	6	3	2	9	35	47	87	95	69	45	7.42	1.81
		2%	1%	1%	2%	9%	12%	22%	24%	17%	11%		

Expected Level of Organizational Culture		Frequency of Scores										x̄	S.D.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
7.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความสามารถของพนักงานในการทำงาน	0	1	2	5	7	25	49	119	101	91	8.32	1.42
		0%	0%	1%	1%	2%	6%	12%	30%	25%	23%		
8.	การวางแผนในระยะยาวขององค์การ	0	0	0	5	14	22	57	99	110	92	8.33	1.41
		0%	0%	0%	1%	4%	6%	14%	25%	28%	23%		
9.	ความมุ่งเน้นไปที่ความสามารถพิเศษเฉพาะบุคคล	1	1	5	3	15	37	73	104	90	70	7.97	1.57
		0%	0%	1%	1%	4%	9%	18%	26%	23%	18%		
10.	ความตระหนี่ในเรื่องเล็กน้อยของฝ่ายบริหาร	23	14	28	25	55	53	67	68	39	28	6.18	2.42
		6%	4%	7%	6%	14%	13%	17%	17%	10%	7%		
11.	ความใส่ใจของพนักงานต่อการช่วยลดค่าใช้จ่ายขององค์การ	2	2	0	5	30	37	73	118	67	66	7.79	1.63
		1%	1%	0%	1%	8%	9%	18%	30%	17%	17%		
12.	ความตรงต่อเวลาของพนักงาน	0	1	1	6	16	30	62	111	94	79	8.12	1.49
		0%	0%	0%	2%	4%	8%	16%	28%	24%	20%		
13.	การฝึกอบรมพนักงาน	0	0	1	4	12	27	70	121	94	71	8.14	1.37
		0%	0%	0%	1%	3%	7%	18%	30%	24%	18%		
14.	การยึดหลักปฏิบัติจริงในเรื่องของจริยธรรมองค์การ	0	0	0	2	17	26	69	122	86	77	8.15	1.37
		0%	0%	0%	1%	4%	7%	17%	31%	22%	19%		
15.	ความมุ่งเน้นในด้านการช่วยเหลือสังคม	1	0	0	2	27	26	63	131	82	68	8.02	1.46
		0%	0%	0%	1%	7%	7%	16%	33%	21%	17%		
16.	ความมุ่งเน้นในการตอบสนองความต้องการลูกค้า	0	0	0	2	10	27	47	110	98	106	8.43	1.35
		0%	0%	0%	1%	3%	7%	12%	28%	25%	27%		

Perceived Level of Organizational Support		Frequency of Scores										x̄	S.D.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1.	ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การไม่แสดงออกว่ามีความใส่ใจในตัวข้าพเจ้า	15	21	32	40	79	59	59	51	31	10	5.7	2.19
		4%	5%	8%	10%	20%	15%	15%	13%	8%	3%		
2.	ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การให้ความใส่ใจในความรู้สึกของข้าพเจ้าที่มีต่อการทำงาน	15	10	19	24	78	71	82	55	35	8	6.08	2.02
		4%	3%	5%	6%	20%	18%	21%	14%	9%	2%		
3.	ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การใส่ใจความเป็นอยู่ของข้าพเจ้า	19	9	27	26	75	72	91	42	30	6	5.87	2.05
		5%	2%	7%	7%	19%	18%	23%	11%	8%	2%		
4.	ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การให้ความสำคัญต่อเป้าหมายและค่านิยมของข้าพเจ้า	12	15	33	20	87	78	89	35	22	5	5.75	1.94
		3%	4%	8%	5%	22%	20%	22%	9%	6%	1%		

Perceived Level of Organizational Support		Frequency of Scores										x̄	S.D.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
5.	ฝ่ายบริหารขององค์การสนใจความคิดเห็นของข้าพเจ้า	13	12	27	19	70	78	91	51	29	7	6.02	1.99
		3%	3%	7%	5%	18%	20%	23%	13%	7%	2%		
6.	แม้ว่าข้าพเจ้าจะทำงานได้ดีแค่ไหน ฝ่ายบริหารก็มักจะมองข้าม	23	22	55	35	80	65	54	26	26	11	5.27	2.25
		6%	6%	14%	9%	20%	16%	14%	7%	7%	3%		

Perceived Level of Organizational Justice		Frequency of Scores										x̄	S.D.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1.	ข้าพเจ้าสามารถแสดงความคิดเห็นและความรู้สึกต่อกระบวนการประเมินผลขององค์การ	9	8	16	35	63	75	95	64	26	6	6.17	1.86
		2%	2%	4%	9%	16%	19%	24%	16%	7%	2%		
2.	ข้าพเจ้ามีอิทธิพลต่อผลลัพธ์ที่เกิดจากกระบวนการประเมินผล	22	13	33	37	89	80	57	47	15	4	5.47	2.02
		6%	3%	8%	9%	22%	20%	14%	12%	4%	1%		
3.	กระบวนการในการประเมินผลถูกนำมาใช้อย่างสม่ำเสมอ	6	8	19	32	91	80	84	45	20	12	6.02	1.81
		2%	2%	5%	8%	23%	20%	21%	11%	5%	3%		
4.	กระบวนการในการประเมินผลปราศจากอคติ	12	9	22	42	103	68	63	46	21	11	5.78	1.95
		3%	2%	6%	11%	26%	17%	16%	12%	5%	3%		
5.	กระบวนการในการประเมินผลตั้งอยู่บนหลักของข้อมูลที่แม่นยำ	7	15	26	38	88	81	59	56	16	10	5.8	1.92
		2%	4%	7%	10%	22%	20%	15%	14%	4%	3%		
6.	ข้าพเจ้าสามารถอุทธรณ์ต่อผลลัพธ์ที่เกิดจากกระบวนการประเมินผล	31	15	31	46	73	75	69	38	11	8	5.34	2.15
		8%	4%	8%	12%	18%	19%	17%	10%	3%	2%		
7.	กระบวนการในการประเมินผลได้มาตรฐานทางจริยธรรมและศีลธรรม	6	8	17	29	92	89	67	60	20	7	6.03	1.77
		2%	2%	4%	7%	23%	23%	17%	15%	5%	2%		
8.	ผลตอบแทนสะท้อนถึงความพยายามที่ข้าพเจ้ามีให้กับการทำงาน	9	12	14	39	69	74	73	64	32	11	6.15	1.98
		2%	3%	4%	10%	17%	19%	18%	16%	8%	3%		
9.	ผลตอบแทนมีความเหมาะสมกับสิ่งที่ข้าพเจ้าได้ทำ	9	10	17	30	74	73	67	72	32	13	6.22	1.99
		2%	3%	4%	8%	19%	18%	17%	18%	8%	3%		
10.	ผลตอบแทนมีความยุติธรรมเมื่อเทียบกับผลงานของข้าพเจ้า	12	5	20	28	70	73	73	72	32	12	6.24	1.99
		3%	1%	5%	7%	18%	18%	18%	18%	8%	3%		

BIOGRAPHY

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ACADEMIC BACKGROUND	Masters of Management, Imperial College London, United Kingdom (2009)
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ACADEMIC PAPERS	An Analysis of Human Resources Management in a Thailand Multinational Company: Match of Culture and Structure
	Pension Scheme for Informal Labour Sector in Thailand's Aging Society