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The Role of Gender and Culture Socialization on the Expectation of Organizational Commitment

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Abstract

Previous studies have shown that organizational commitment is related to culture, and may be related to gender. The present study examines these variables and compares the participants' expectation that someone would remain committed to an organization and committed to job performance. Commitment towards five different foci is gauged: Supervisor, workgroup, occupation, organizational goal, and money. Significant results indicate a positive correlation between Interdependence and expectation of commitment towards workgroup and occupation., as well as the expectation of commitment to job performance for the focus of organizational goal. Results of a one-way ANOVA indicate a significant relationship between gender and the expectation of commitment to effort, for the foci of money and supervisor, with male participants indicating a higher expectation for both. Possible explanations for findings that contradict or do not confirm hypothesis, limitations of the study, and implications for further research are discussed.

1. Introduction

The area of organizational commitment has, in the past few decades, been viewed as one of the most central variables in the study of management and organizational behaviour (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The concept has been studied and defined in numerous ways. Essentially, organizational commitment refers to the bond, identification and involvement of an employee with a particular organization or profession that makes the individual motivated to act on the organization's behalf. (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) Organizational commitment has been found to have an important effect on employee behaviour and on organizations as a whole (Chen & Franceso, 2000). Studies have shown that employees who are highly committed may perform better than those who are less committed (Aranya, Kushnir, & Valency, 1986), that commitment is an intervening variable in models of turnover intentions, and that it is positively related to desirable organizational outcomes (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). This research highlights the importance of the topic of commitment in today's workplaces and organizations.

One of the most widely used instruments of measuring organizational commitment, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Porter (Porter, Steers, Mowday, &

Boulton, 1974), has since been updated and extended in order to take into account different types of commitment (Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000). The model by Meyer and Allen (1991) outlines three types of organizational commitment: affective, continuance and normative.

Affective commitment is defined as the emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization; Continuance represents the perceived cost that is associated with discontinuing employment with the organization; Normative indicates an individual's belief that he or she is morally obliged to remain with the organization. All three of these types of commitment can operate simultaneously and to varying degrees. (Allen & Meyer, 1990)

Research has also been done to examine how these three bases of commitment affect certain groups differently such as men, women, as well as people from collectivist and individualist cultures.

Cultural Socialization

Cultures have often been dichotomized into categories, typically known as collectivist and individualist, or interdependent and independent (Triandis, et al., 1988; Singelis, 1994). The individualist, or independent self-construal, is most prevalent in Western cultures and represents a person who is more egocentric, perceives him or herself as being autonomous, and does not think of him or herself in terms of other people (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). An individual with an interdependent, or more collectivistic, self-construal tends to be found more in non-Western cultures. This sort of view means the person is more focused on the connectedness with other people, and sees him or herself as part of a social network, understanding that what one does and how one acts is influenced by those around him or her (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Cultural socialization refers to the ways in which an individual learns the behaviours relevant to the culture, implicitly or explicitly.

Research by Weiner (1982) has found that cultural socialization is the basic determinant of all values. Abegglen (1957), proposed that organizational and job commitment reflect deeply rooted shared cultural and social values and beliefs. It was also shown that generalized cultural expectations, which can be described as guidelines from a group regarding what constitutes responsible behaviour, are a 'side bet' of commitment. Side bets increase the cost of failing to persist in a course of action such as remaining with an organization (Becker, 1960). The importance of the role of socialization is also reflected in more recent work by Clugston, Howell, and Dorfman (2000), who postulate that cultural socialization is an antecedent to organizational commitment. More specifically, Meyer and Allen (1991) explain that each of their three bases of commitment (affective, normative and continuance) are affected by different antecedents of commitment. Affective is more influenced by work experiences and personal characteristics. Continuance is more affected by the employee perception of their job prospects and alternatives if they leave their current organization. Finally, some researchers say that normative is more affected by social and cultural orientations (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Wiener, 1982). This research is important in showing how cultural socialization and organizational commitment are related concepts.

Although these concepts have been proven to be related, the exact meaning and predictors of commitment vary by culture, as research conducted in separate national cultures has indicated (Bae & Chung, 1997) There are some key differences in how cultural socialization works to influence organizational commitment in different cultural settings. For example, in communal culture, the organization becomes like a family unit and social pressures are exerted to influence an individual's commitment behaviours. Therefore, affective commitment is important because

an employee has a desire to stay with an organization to maintain a feeling of identification with the group (Glazer, Daniel, & Short, 2004).

In contrast, continuance commitment is more important than affective in more individualist cultures (Glazer, Daniel, & Short, 2004). The focus in this case is placed on the self and one's own achievement and self-enhancement. Thus, an employee would rather stay with an organization when benefits such as the opportunity for growth and independence are higher, rather than focusing on one's attachments and relation to others (Glazer, et al., 2004). Another point that would explain the strength of continuance commitment in individualist cultures is that these cultures tend to accept higher power distances between people (Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000). Research by Bochner and Hesketh (1994) found that when there is a greater power distance, the employee is more likely to form a submissive attachment to a superior, as compared to employees with lower power distance between him or herself and a superior. This high power distance means that subordinates feel as though they lack other alternatives, and therefore have to stay with the organization because of their role in society. (Bochner & Hesketh, 1994).

Other research has shown that collectivism is related to having greater moral and social identification with one's workplace, thus encouraging greater commitment based on these factors (Bochner & Hesketh, 1994). Normative commitment is more important to individuals who are collectivistic (Triandis et al, 1988). A reason for this is that employees with an interdependent self-construal may view commitments as being based on moral duties if they have internalized normative pressures put on them by society regarding society's beliefs and values. Contrarily, people with an independent view of self are more likely to form commitments for calculative reasons (Weiner, 1982).

Organizational commitment is a multi-faceted concept and there may therefore be different levels of attachment operating at once within one individual. Research has shows that different levels of attachment or commitment are formed depending on the foci, such as organization, supervisor, and workgroup (Cohen, 1993). This is crucial when looking at cultural socialization because the socialization would not only affect the level of commitment, but also to which foci the commitment is directed (Bochner & Hesketh, 1994).

Gender Socialization

Gender socialization has also been an important topic in research on organizational commitment, but findings have not been as conclusive. One notable area in this research is that of attitudinal commitment to organizations, which has previously been explained by two models: the job model and the gender model. The job model is based on work and job experiences, whereas the gender model claims that the difference in levels of commitment between men and women is due to gender socialization. The gender model says that levels of commitment are not in the organizations control, but rather are the way they are because society socializes women into prioritizing family over organizational involvement (Aven, Parker, & McEvoy, 1993). Findings by Dodd-McCue and Wright (1996) indicated that women were less committed to their organizations than were men. However, women did not evidence stereotypical gender-based responses that you would expect with the socialization gender model. Therefore, this research endorses the job model rather than the gender model (Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996).

In much of the research done in this area, there is no support for the notion that there are consistent differences in value priorities between men and women (Prince-Gibson and Schwartz, 1998). While some researchers maintain that gender is related to organizational commitment, others assert that the results are not conclusive and have in fact found conflicting results (Aranya,

Kushnir, & Valency, 1986). In some studies, researchers found that women tend to be more committed to their organization than men (Anlge & Perry, 1981). In other studies, women were found to be less committed than men (Cohen, 1993). Still in other studies, no sex difference was found in the results (Bruning and Synder, 1983). Research by Aranya, Kushnir, and Valency (1986), found that women were less committed than men in a profession that was male-dominated, but also noted that this difference was not explained by sex but instead could be accounted for by other variables. Thus, research about gender socialization in organizational commitment is inconclusive.

Hypotheses

Research has pointed towards the fact that cultural and gender socialization are central variables in the study of organizational commitment. The particular foci of organizational commitment are especially important in understanding why individuals are actually committed or attached to an organization (Cohen, 1993). It is important to understand whether people, based on their gender or cultural socialization, have differing expectations about when and how someone should remain committed to an organization. The study is focused on the respondent's opinion about what another person would do in a situation when they can choose to remain committed to an organization or not, and how their decision might affect the effort they put into their job. This study will therefore look at the levels of expected commitment of other people to organizations based on varying foci of commitment.

H1a: High levels of interdependence are associated with high levels of expected commitment for the foci of supervisor, workgroup, and occupation.

H1b: High levels of independence are associated with high levels of expected commitment for the foci of money and organizational goal.

Studies involving gender socialization have overall been contradictory and inconclusive (Aranya, Kushnir, & Valency, 1986). The effect of gender socialization on levels of expected commitment for varying foci will therefore be examined in the present study.

H2a: Women are more likely to rate high on levels of expected commitment for the foci of supervisor, workgroup, and occupation.

H2b: Men are more likely to rate high on levels of expected commitment for the foci of money and organizational goal.

Bae and Chung (1997) claim that one of the first things to look at in order to measure organizational commitment is the willingness of an employee to expend effort on behalf of the company. Organizational commitment does not simply mean remaining in an organization, it means identifying with it, participating in it, and having a commitment to job performance. For this reason, questions regarding the expected amount of effort put into an organization that the individual remains committed to will be included in the study.

H3a: High levels of interdependence are associated with high levels of expected commitment to job performance for the foci of supervisor, workgroup, and occupation.

H3b: High levels of independence are associated with high levels of expected commitment to job performance for the foci of money and organizational goal.

H4a: Women are more likely to rate high on levels of expected commitment to job performance for the foci of supervisor, workgroup, and occupation.

H4b: Men are more likely to rate high on levels of expected commitment to job performance for the foci of money and organizational goal.

2. Method

Participants

Participants were registered on the online Psychology participant pool, open to undergraduate students registered in a Psychology course. Participants were able to sign up for the study at a time that was convenient for them. It was central to the research question of the study that there be a relatively even number of male and female participants. There were 90 male and 85 female participants who took part in the study, with a total of 175 participants. Participants had a mean age of 21.27 years ($SD = 3.73$) and ranged from 17 to 50. The majority of participants, 84.6 per cent, identified themselves as White, Caucasian or European. The second largest ethnic group identified was Asian, Asian Canadian, or Oriental, which accounted for 8.6 per cent of the sample. Participants were asked whether or not they currently had a job, but this question was not exclusionary, therefore everyone was included in the study. Most participants, 97.1 per cent were employed at the time of the survey, and 2.9 per cent were unemployed. Of those who were employed, 8.0 per cent had a full time job while 91.8 per cent had a part time job. Participants who identified their job as career-related accounted for 22.9 per cent, whereas those whose job was not career-related accounted for 73.7 per cent of participants.

Measures

The first questionnaire given to all participants was a brief questionnaire about the participant's general demographic information, including questions about their current schooling and employment. (See Appendix A.)

A questionnaire for the measurement of independent and interdependent self-construals (Singelis, 1994) was also administered to participants. (See Appendix B.) Missing data in the responses for this scale were first examined to determine whether or not the same items were left

unanswered a disproportionate number of times, possibly indicating a problem with the item.

Finding no such problem, missing data was replaced with the mean response for that item.

Reliability analyses indicate that both the independent and interdependent subscales are within the acceptable range of reliability, which is approximately $\alpha = .70$ or above (Kline, 1999, as cited in Field, 2005). The subscale means were similar to those found in another study using the same scale with a Canadian student sample (Yang, Noels, & Samure, 2006). The Independent mean for the present study ($M = 4.78$, $SD = .77$) are similar to the mean from the other study ($M = 4.89$, $SD = .62$); The Interdependent mean for the present study ($M = 4.93$, $SD = .61$) is still similar, though a bit higher than in the other study ($M = 4.63$, $SD = .64$). (Means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alpha can be found in Table 1.)

The final questionnaire in the participant's package was a series of five vignettes, each followed by 8 short questions; 4 questions with a Likert scale response and 4 questions requiring a qualitative response. (See Appendix C.) The two first questions asked whether, in the given situation, the participant would remain committed to their original job, or if they would expect another person to remain committed to their original job. The other questions asked if they would expect the amount of effort put into the job to be negatively affected if the individual stayed at the original job or if they began a new job. After each question was answered using the Likert scale provided, the participant was asked why they responded this way. The responses given to these questions account for the qualitative data that is examined in the present study. Each vignette corresponded to one of the five foci of commitment being examined: Supervisor, workgroup, occupation, money, and organizational goal.

Procedure

Initially, a pilot test was conducted for the study with a convenience sample of 15 participants. Once a few corrections were made to the wording of the materials in order to clarify meaning, the study was opened to other participants.

When the participants arrived to the room where the study took place, they were seated at a desk or a table with at least one seat between each person to ensure adequate privacy. Materials were then distributed to participants. Participants were asked to sign the consent form if they understood the terms of their agreement. This informed consent form stated that the study regards the role of socialization on expectations of commitment, that their information would be kept confidential and that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time. Once the consent form was signed, it was taken from them so that it could not be linked to the completed questionnaires, so as to ensure confidentiality. Following this, participants proceeded to complete the demographic information, the scale of independent and interdependent self-construals, and the questionnaire with the five vignettes. Participants were asked to read each vignette so that they understood it well, and were instructed to answer the questions as honestly as possible and at their own pace, working on one at a time until all five were complete.

Once the participants had completed all of the questionnaires in the package, they handed them back to the researcher. Each participant was then given a copy of the consent form as well as a feedback page. The feedback form explained the basic purpose of the study and included the faculty supervisors' web address, which could be visited later in the year to find the results of the study, should the participant be interested. Participants were then asked if they had any further questions that could be answered regarding the study. When participants had no further questions, they were told that the study was complete and that they could leave the room.

3. Results

A one-way ANOVA indicated that gender was associated with the question that asked: “If your acquaintance stays at the first job [which offers more money], it would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job” for the focus of money ($F = 8.73, p < .01$), with male participants indicating lower level of agreement than female participants. There was also a significant relationship between gender and the question that asked: “If your cousin stays at the first job [which has the supervisor he or she gets along with], it would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job” for the focus of supervisor ($F = 3.99, p < .05$), with male participants again indicating a lower level of agreement than female participants. There were no other significant effects between gender and the responses to the vignette questions. (ANOVA results can be found in Table 2).

There was a positive correlation between the Interdependent subscale score and the Likert scale responses to the question that asked: “I think that my neighbour should remain committed to his/her original job [with the workgroup he or she enjoyed]” when the focus was workgroup ($R = .21, p < .05$). There was also a significant negative correlation between the Independent subscale and the same question about workgroup ($R = -.17, p < .05$), which reinforces the first point. There also a positive correlation between scores on the Interdependent subscale and Likert scale responses to the question that asked: “I think that my friend should not switch to the new job [in an occupation he or she may not enjoy]” when the focus is occupation ($R = .17, p < .05$). Other significant correlations indicated a positive relationship between the Interdependent subscale and the question that asked: “If your relative remains committed to his/her original job [with an organizational goal he/she believes in], it would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job”, ($R = .16, p < .05$), and a negative correlation between the Independent subscale and the same question ($R = -.17, p < .05$). There were no other significant effects found

between the subscale scores and the vignette questions being examined in this study.

(Correlations, means and standard deviations can be found in Table 1.)

4. Discussion

The correlation between interdependent subscale scores and the question that asked: “I think that my neighbour should remain committed to his/her original job [with the workgroup he or she enjoyed]”, confirmed part of the first hypothesis (H1a). This finding is reinforced by the negative correlation between the independent subscale and the same question. This indicates that participants with a higher interdependent self-construal were more likely than those with an independent self-construal to expect another person to remain committed to an organization because of the workgroup. This concurs with previous research that has found that people with a more interdependent or collectivist worldview emphasize relationships with others more than people who have an independent self-construal (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Responses to the question about whether or not an individual should switch to a new job in an occupation they may not enjoy confirmed part of the hypothesis (H1a), which proposed that participants with an interdependent self-construal would be more likely to expect another to remain committed to a job because of the occupation. There were significant correlations between the two subscales and the question about whether expected commitment to job performance would decrease at an organization with an organizational goal that the other person believed in. This question was positively correlated with the interdependent subscale and negatively correlated with the independent subscale. These findings confirm part of the hypothesis (H3b) that stated that people with an independent self-construal would be more likely to expect someone to remain committed to job performance for the foci of organizational goal.

Responses to the question that asked: “If your acquaintance stays at the first job [which offers more money], it would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job”, confirmed the part of the hypothesis (H4b) that postulated that male participants would expect greater commitment to effort in a job that offers more money than would female participants. The female participants agreed more with the notion that if an individual stayed employed with an organization only because the monetary benefits, they would not be as committed to putting effort into that job.

Participants’ responses to the question that asked: “If your cousin stays at the first job [which has the supervisor he or she gets along with], it would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job”, does not agree with the hypothesis (H4a) that women would expect others to remain more committed to putting effort into a job in which they have a good supervisor. Contrarily, male participants overall responded with lower levels of agreement to this question. This mean that even if a person decided to stay committed to their first job (with a good supervisor) when another job with different benefits was available to them, the male participants did not expect that this would negatively affect the level of effort they put into the original job that they remain at.

There are some theories and research that may help to explain why the hypothesis regarding gender difference in commitment to effort towards the supervisor focus was rejected. One possibility is that women lead in a more democratic way, whereas men have a more autocratic style of leadership (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992). Therefore, it could be that women do not see individual leaders or supervisors as being as important, since they are more focused on the organization as a whole. Because of this, women may not expect an individual to be motivated remain committed to putting effort into their job simply because of a good supervisor.

Men, on the other hand, may think more highly of their boss in some ways, because they are more likely to appreciate an autocratic leadership style.

Women may also not expect an individual to be as committed to or form a strong attachment to a supervisor because they cannot as easily envision themselves in that role. The cultural context can affect how likely it is that a woman would picture herself in a leadership role (Killeen, Lopez-Zafra, & Eagly, 2006), and since most supervisors still are men (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992), a woman might not as easily see herself in that position when presented with the vignettes in the present study. If the female participant envisions a boss who is not a woman and whom she would not personally form a strong attachment to, then she may not expect another to remain committed to an organization simply because of that relationship. One potential reason that a women may not form as strong a bond with a supervisor is that, with the majority of supervisors being men, it may seem unprofessional to form a good relationship with a boss. A relationship between a male supervisor and a female employee could be more likely to be perceived in a negative way than that between two men in the workplace. Essentially, women may be less likely to expect someone to have a strong attachment and commitment to a supervisor because it is difficult for them to see themselves identifying with and having as close a relationship to a supervisor.

Many of the hypotheses regarding sex differences in expectation of work commitment were not confirmed. A possible explanation for this is that gender differences today, perhaps particularly in the sample obtained for this study, are lesser than in previous generations. It is interesting to note that a larger number of significant differences were found between the Interdependent and Independent subscales than were found between men and women. This may indicate that sex differences in organizational commitment are not consistent or strong, which is

also evidenced by the contradicting research on the topic. Research on this topic has been contradicting and ultimately inconclusive (Aranya, Kushnir, & Valency, 1986).

Although to a lesser extent than the hypotheses concerning gender, there was a lack of significant difference found for many of the hypotheses concerning self-construal and organizational commitment. This may be due to the fact that the effects of cultural socialization are not as pronounced in this generation of university students, due to their environment and experiences. The feeling of obligation to remain committed to an organization may be based on the norms and values of society, which are internalized by the individual (Wiener, 1982). Most of the respondents in the sample for this study have lived in Canadian society for most of all of their life. Therefore it is possible that participants, to some extent, have internalized some of the same ideas and societal norms.

Limitations

Anticipated results may not have been found due to specific qualities of the sample. The majority of participants were young adults, which could make a difference on how they answer this type of question regarding work and careers. Also, most participants were not in their actual careers, or even in a career-related job. This could affect their expectations of commitment. The participants experiences are based more on part-time, non-career related jobs, which they may expect people to be less committed to then employment related to ones career.

In addition to being composed of mostly young adults, the sample used in this study was made up of all University students. Also, the majority of participants were Caucasian, White, or European. The homogeneity of the sample is a limitation in terms of this study being applied to a greater social context.

Responses from participants in the study may not have provided adequate variability to obtain a realistic range of expectations of commitment. Analyses on the vignette questions indicated that there was only a small standard deviation and thus a lack of range in the responses. This lack of dispersion of responses suggests that the opinions of the group of participants were too similar on some items to be able to perceive a difference. The sample may have been too homogenous, thus restricting the range of responses and making it impossible to see a significant difference in how certain groups answered questions compared to others.

It is possible that the measure used to identify expected levels of commitment, the vignettes, did not actually tap into the ideas they were designed to test, even though theory suggests that they would.

Future Research Implications

This study examined *expectation* of commitment, so even though not all participants were in a career-related job or even currently were employed, they could still answer questions about what they thought another person would do in the situations presented. Since the questions presented were based on hypothetical situations, it was not necessary for the participants to have ever been in similar situations themselves.

This study acknowledged that there are various foci of commitment. It showed that in some situations, there are differences based on gender and cultural socialization as to when and why an individual would stay committed to an organization. The study also used an individualized measure of culture in order to better explain specific results and influences on employees' commitment.

It could be important to understand more about what people expect from others in terms of organizational commitment, especially compared to why people actually do decide to remain

committed. If employers' or organizations' expectations do not match the actual reasons why individuals remain committed, their benefits, incentives, or programs to try to encourage employee commitment may be misdirected.

Future research could look at similar variables and foci of commitment with a larger, more diverse sample of participants. It would also be interesting to analyze qualitative responses explaining why the respondent would or would not expect someone to remain committed to an organization. The question remains whether people from one of the groups examined in this study expect others to remain committed to an organization for the same reasons as another group. It might help to understand if people attribute expectations of what they would do to other people, or if they judge what they believe others would or would not do by a different standard.

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Table 1.

Scale of Self-Construals: Correlations with Vignette Items, Means, Standard Deviations, and Alphas

Variables	Self-Construal Subscale	
	Interdependent Subscale	Independent Subscale
1C: I think that my friend should not switch [from occupation he/she enjoys] to the new job.	.17*	.08
1E: If your friend stays at the first job [at the occupation he/she enjoys], it would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job.	.06	-.11
2C: I think that my neighbour should remain committed to his/her original job [with the workgroup he/she likes].	.21**	-.17*
2E: If your neighbour remains committed to his/her original job [with the workgroup he/she likes], it would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job.	.04	.01
3C: I think that my relative should remain committed to his/her original job [with an organizational goal he/she believes in].	.05	.07
3E: If your relative remains committed to his/her original job [with an organizational goal he/she believes in], it would	.16*	-.17*

negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job.		
4C: I think that my acquaintance should not switch to the new job [with lesser monetary benefits]	-.09	-.09
4E: If your acquaintance stays at the first job [with better monetary benefits], it would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job.	.01	-.05
5C: I think that my cousin should not switch to the new job [with a different supervisor].	.06	-.07
5E: If your cousin stays at the first job [with the supervisor he/she likes], it would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job.	-.03	-.09
Mean	4.93	4.78
Standard Deviation	.61	.77
Alpha	.69	.76

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 2.

One-way ANOVA Results for the Effect of Gender on Vignette Items

Vignette item	df	F	Gender group means (SD)	
			Female	Male
1C: I think that my friend should not switch [from occupation he/she enjoys] to the new job.	1	2.08	3.65(1.40)	3.96(1.42)
1E: If your friend stays at the first job [at the occupation he/she enjoys], it would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job.	1	.72	3.22(1.51)	3.42(1.58)
2C: I think that my neighbour should remain committed to his/her original job [with the workgroup he/she likes].	1	2.10	4.54(1.34)	4.23(1.46)
2E: If your neighbour remains committed to his/her original job [with the workgroup he/she likes], it	1	1.43	2.78(1.34)	3.03(1.49)

would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job.				
3C: I think that my relative should remain committed to his/her original job [with an organizational goal he/she believes in].	1	1.40	4.13(1.51)	4.41(1.63)
3E: If your relative remains committed to his/her original job [with an organizational goal he/she believes in], it would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job.	1	1.77	3.12(1.44)	2.83(1.38)
4C: I think that my acquaintance should not switch to the new job [with lesser monetary benefits]	1	2.71	2.81(1.55)	3.20(1.57)
4E: If your acquaintance stays at the first job [with better monetary benefits], it would negatively affect the level	1	8.73**	5.52(1.14)	4.88(1.66)

of effort that he/she puts into the job.				
5C: I think that my cousin should not switch to the new job [with a different supervisor].	1	.28	3.46(1.69)	3.33(1.47)
5E: If your cousin stays at the first job [with the supervisor he/she likes], it would negatively affect the level of effort that he/she puts into the job.	1	3.99*	3.26(1.56)	2.81(1.41)

Note. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

SD = Standard Deviation