Career Commitment as a Moderator of the Relationships among Procedural Justice, Perceived Organizational Support, Organizational Commitment, and Turnover Intentions

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Abstract
This study proposed theoretical model for examining the turnover intentions (TI) process using career commitment as a moderator. In the model, TI are directly influenced by organizational commitment (OC) and procedural justice (PJ), while both PJ and perceived organizational support (POS) also influence TI indirectly through the mediation of OC. These causal relationships are moderated by career commitment, since career commitment affects individual behavior. The moderating effects were simultaneously examined using the data of a random sample of 298 staff from six large hospitals in metropolitan Taipei, Taiwan. The statistical test results reveal that the influences of POS and PJ on OC, and of OC on TI, are similar for both the high and low career commitment groups, while the influence of PJ on TI is stronger for the high career commitment group than the low career commitment group. Finally, the implications of the above findings are discussed.

Keywords: Career commitment; Organizational commitment; Turnover intentions; Procedural justice; Perceived organizational support

1. Introduction
Despite increased attention to career development recently, career commitment has been comparatively neglected [12]. Career commitment describes individual attitudes toward their career, and has been recognized as a form of work commitment that individuals have on a career facet. Although career commitment is known to lag developmentally, it has become increasingly important, since a career provides significant occupational meaning and continuity when organizations are unable to provide employment security [3]. Career commitment is relevant to the practical concerns of individuals and organizations, and thus is critical to the ability development

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since career commitment helps an individual to persist in a given type of work for long enough to develop specialized skills [12]. Career commitment also provides individuals with the staying power to cultivate business and professional relationships. Such relationships are useful for trading favors and services [12], as sources of information, and for increasing individual exposure to organizational decision makers [12]. Individuals enter an organization with their own career plans and are attracted to an organization if its practices are consistent with their career needs. Furthermore, individuals perceive an organization as more attractive as their own career motivation increases. This phenomenon implies that individual career attitudes may influence individual views of their organizations.

Career commitment is characterized by the development of personal career goals, as well as by attachment to, identification with, and involvement in those goals. Individuals with strong career commitment may display higher levels of requirements and expectations from the organizations with which they establish relationships. This phenomenon also implies that individuals with high career commitment may be more motivated when their expectations are satisfied by the organization than are less committed individuals.

Career commitment has been widely investigated because it influences individual workplace attitudes and behaviors. Among specific career commitment related behaviors, the main focus is on the relationship between turnover intentions (TI) and organizational commitment (OC), and how this relationship is strongly moderated by career commitment [9]. Based on Chang’s [9] conceptual model, this study attempts to investigate the moderating influence of career commitment on the relationships among procedural justice (PJ), perceived organizational support (POS), OC, and TI. Although the moderating effects of career commitment have been tested using exploratory analysis in previous studies [9], the situation when the model is considered as a whole is quite different, and is based on confirmatory analysis using structural equation modeling (SEM). Since no previous studies have reported the moderating effects of career commitment on various relationships simultaneously using SEM, this study attempts to fill a gap in the literature by comparing high and low career commitment groups in terms of the moderating effects of career commitment on each relationship in the pair-wise models.

2. Research Framework and Hypothesis Development

Previous studies have examined the interrelationships among work ex-
periences, perceived organizational support (POS), affective commitment (AC), and employee turnover. These results suggested that favorable work conditions operated via POS to increase AC, which, in turn, decreased employee withdrawal behavior. Tansky and Cohen [36] also verified that organizational commitment (OC) and perceived organizational support (POS) were correlated with satisfaction, and with career development. Actually, commitment plays the mediator role in the relationships between perceived organizational support (POS) and the job performance and organization citizen behavior [5]. Although career development and organizational commitment were correlated, they appeared to be separate constructs [6,12]. Thus, it needs to further investigated. The moderating role of career commitment on the relationships between employees' perception of company practices and organizational commitment, and the relationships between organizational commitment and turnover intention are investigated by Chang [9]. His study has profound managerial contribution for the findings that (1) career commitment moderated the effect of employees' perception of supervisory support on affective commitment; and (2) career commitment also moderated the effect of affective commitment on turnover intention. 

The present model, displayed in Fig. 1 reports the causal results and moderating effects of the causal model for each individual relationship. Organizational Commitment (OC). OC is generally considered an attachment to or identification with an organization [24,30]. However, OC can also be considered an emotional response to a positive appraisal of the work environment [37]. Such an emotional response may be considered an attachment, particularly when the individual believes strongly in the organizational values and goals, or displays a strong desire to maintain their membership of the organization. Numerous empirical studies have confirmed the important role of OC in staff turnover, and generally find a negative relationship between individual TI and OC.

TI measured differently from turnover was recognized as the final cognitive variable with an immediate causal effect on turnover [4], and actual turnover increases with intentions. Previous studies confirm the importance of TI in examining employee turnover behavior. Employee TI can be described as a psychological response to specific organizational conditions along a continuum of organizational withdrawal behaviors, ranging from day-dreaming to actually leaving the organization [19]. Employees with high organizational commitment are less likely to leave than employees who are relatively uncommitted [20,26]. Therefore, the first hypothesis can be described as follows:
Figure 1 Theoretical Model

H1: Organizational commitment (OC) negatively influences turnover intentions (TI).
This study suggests that the relationship between OC and TI varies with employee career attitudes. Employees with low organizational commitment are more likely to try to leave the organization than individuals with high organizational commitment. If such individuals are committed to their current career, they seek other related opportunities that better satisfy their career needs. However, if such individuals fail to find a better opportunity, they will be less willing to leave owing to career concerns. Instead, if employees have low career commitment, their current career does not exercise any restraining influence on their making other career choices increasing the likelihood of them leaving their current organization [9]. In such case, OC will exert a greater influence on individual TI. Consequently, career commitment is hypothesized to be a moderator of the relationship between OC and TI, with the hypothesis being stated as follows:

\[ H_{1a} \]: The relationship between OC and TI is stronger for individuals with low career commitment than for those with high career commitment.

Career-related perceptions of organizational factors have also been recognized as significantly influencing OC and TI. The psychological attachment of individuals to an organization increases with the extent to which that organization implements career-oriented employment practices. The career-related perceptions in this study include both POS and PJ, which influence OC and TI simultaneously in actual organizational systems, since these career-related perceptions influences the psychological attachment of individuals to their current organization [15].

Procedural Justice (PJ). Generally, researchers have differentiated between procedural and distributive justice while examining organizational justice. However, the former has been found to be more predictive of certain work attitudes and behaviors [31]. A similar study on the antecedents of TI concluded that PJ was more important than distributive justice [18]. PJ is defined as the perceived fairness of the means or methods used to determine a given outcome, and is clearly linked to numerous organizational outcomes, including OC and TI [11, 27, 31]. Employees are more committed to an organization when they believe that it implements PJ. If individuals believe the organization implements PJ, they will feel less uncertainty regarding their future career in the organization, and thus will be more motivated to commit themselves, and thus will display lower TI. Therefore, the following two hypotheses are developed:
H2: Procedural justice (PJ) negatively influences turnover intentions (TI).

H3: Procedural justice (PJ) positively influences organizational commitment (OC).

Perceived Organizational Support (POS) Hutchison et al. [17] indicated that employee perceptions of organization support are related to their beliefs regarding the extent to which organizations value their contributions and care about their fringes, thus increasing affective employee attachment to the organization and the expectation that greater effort to meet organizational goals will be rewarded. Hutchison et al. [17] argued that employees become affectively committed to their organizations because of perceptions that their organizations are committed to them (POS), and several empirical studies have found a strong relationship between POS and OC [14,33,34]. Furthermore, organizational climate that supports individuals in their careers, the cause of POS, has been suggested to be an important factor in managing employees [10], since organizations with more supportive organizational climates enhance employee perceptions of organizational support and increase individual opportunities for career achievement compared to organizations without a supportive organizational climate. Thus, the hypothesis is described as follows:

H4: Perceived organizational support (POS) positively influences organizational commitment (OC).

The present study also hypothesizes that the relationships from H2 to H4 may change according to employee career commitment. Career development and organizational commitment were correlated; however, they appeared to be separate constructs [6,12]. Thus, it needs to further investigated. The development of high career commitment takes lots of efforts on the part of an individual since the construct embodies affective, cognitive, and intentional components [8]. It is those individuals who feel good enough about themselves to exert the energy to be effective in their organizational roles who are likely to be committed to their careers [8]. However, those low in career commitment are likely to withhold effort required for OC, and consequently to reflect high turnover intentions. For example, Individuals with high career commitment may enhance organizational levels of career expectations or desire [9]. When the organization fulfills the career expectations of such individuals in terms of organizational support and PJ, these individuals will be more motivated than individuals with low levels of career commitment [9]. Alternatively, individual commitment to an organization results not only
from individual identification with that organization, but also from individual identification with the specific careers that they are pursuing within the organization [4] via the predictors of OC and TI, namely POS and PJ. That is, the effect of PJ and POS on OC, and of PJ on TI, is greater for individuals with high career commitment, since such individuals are more concerned with career success than are individuals with a low level of career commitment. Therefore, it is hypothesized that,

\[ H_{2a}: \text{The relationship between PJ and TI is stronger for individuals with high career commitment than for those with low career commitment.} \]

\[ H_{3a}: \text{The relationship between PJ and OC is stronger for individuals with high career commitment than for those with low career commitment.} \]

\[ H_{4a}: \text{The relationship between POS and OC is stronger for individuals with high career commitment than for those with low career commitment.} \]

3. Methods

Subjects. OC and TI are interesting topics in health care because managed care has contributed to the erosion of professional autonomy, resulting in decreasing OC and increasing TI among health professionals. Moreover, empirical tests can be conducted to explain and avoid excessive TI in organizations. This study used staff randomly sampled in six large hospitals in metropolitan Taipei as a data source. The original sample was a total of 350 staff. Two hundred ninety eight staff members fully completed the questionnaires (representing a response rate of 85%), and then were divided into two groups, as listed in Table 1. Based on the mean of measurement of career commitment, questionnaire analysis of career commitment identified 110 respondents as the high career commitment group, while a further 188 were identified as the low career commitment group. Table 1 lists the characteristics of both groups.

Measures. The following scales with 5-point items are all Likert type scales. Employees responded on five-point scales with anchors of “strongly disagree” (1) and “strongly agree” (5).

Turnover Intentions. Employees responded to five items designed to assess their intentions to leave the organization. One of the items from Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire [25] was included: “I
Table 1 Characteristics of the Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>High career group (N = 110)</th>
<th>Low career group (N = 188)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>40 (36%)</td>
<td>73 (39%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>70 (64%)</td>
<td>115 (61%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>34 (31%)</td>
<td>56 (30%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse</td>
<td>53 (48%)</td>
<td>85 (45%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>23 (21%)</td>
<td>47 (25%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

often think about quitting my job at the hospital” (V1); Three items were used by Landau & Hammer [21]: “I am actively looking for a job outside the hospital” (V2); “As soon as I can find a better job, I’ll leave this hospital” (V3) and “I am seriously thinking about quitting my job” (V4).

Organizational Commitment (OC). A nine-item measure developed by Porter et al. [28] was adopted measuring affective OC. 6 items were actually used according to the factor loadings of test results of principal components analysis by Wayne et al. [39]. “I am willing to put in a general deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help my hospital be successful” (V5); “I really care about the fate of my hospital” (V6); “I am extremely glad that chose this hospital for which to work, over others I am considering at the time I joined” (V7); “I talk up this hospital to my friends as a great organization for which to work” (V8); “I am proud to tell others that I am part of this hospital” (V9); “I find that my values and the hospital’s values are very similar” (V10).

Procedural Justice (PJ). PJ was measured using four OJI items that addressed the perceived fairness of the formal decision-making procedures in employer organization of the respondent. These four items address, respectively, the voice, bias suppression, correctability, and accuracy criteria that have been established for PJ [29]. “My hospital has in place formal channels that allow employees to express their views and opinions before decisions are made” (V11); “Formal procedures exist in my hospital to ensure that officials do not allow personal biases to affect their decisions” (V12); “There are formal means by which employees in my hospital can challenge decisions that they feel are erroneous” (V13); “My hospital has formal procedures to ensure that officials have accurate information on which to base their decisions” (V14).
Perceived Organizational Support (POS). Employees completed a shortened version of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) [14, 17]. This study used the six items of the SPOS scale with the highest loading as determined by Wayne et al.’s [39] factor analysis. “My company management shows very little concern for me” (V15); “My company management cares about my general satisfaction at work” (V16); “My company management really cares about my well-being” (V17); “My company management strongly considers my goals and values” (V18); “My company management cares about my opinions” (V19); “Even if I did the best job possible, my company management would fail to notice” (V20).

Career Commitment. Individual career attitudes is termed career commitment. Career commitment has been demonstrated to be distinguishable from other commitment measures, such as job involvement and organizational commitment, with minimal redundancy [7]. This modified scale was based on a shortened version of the Career Commitment [1], which has been proved to have good reliability [12]. “I would accept employment in another career if such a move resulted in a slight increase in pay”; “I would accept employment in another career if such a move resulted in slightly more freedom to be creative”; “I would accept employment in another career if such a move resulted in slightly more status”; “I would accept employment in another career if such a move resulted in colleagues who were a little more friendly”.

4. Data Analysis

Following data collection, SEM is utilized to conduct data analysis. SEM is a multivariate statistical technique used to confirm the causal relations among latent variables. This investigation follows a two-step procedure [2]. The first step involves developing an effective measurement model with confirmatory factor analysis, while the second step analyzing the structural model [22, 23]. Both AMOS and SAS are applied as the software tools for analyzing the data for reconfirmation.

Testing of the Measurement Model

MI (modification index) is the index adopted to select indicator variables. Through repeated filtering, a total of 9 indicator variables were deleted, including V2, V8, V9, V10, V12, V16, V17, V18, V19. The indicators retained in both models of high career commitment and low career commitment groups are identical. Every construct in the final measurement models is measured using at least two indicator variables as Table 2. The overall
Table 2 Overall Reliabilities for the Constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Indicators retained in the measurement model</th>
<th>Overall reliabilities (Cronbach’s alpha)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turnover intentions (TI)</td>
<td>V1, V3, V4</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational commitment (OC)</td>
<td>V5, V6, V7</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural justice (PJ)</td>
<td>V11, V13, V14</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Organizational Support (POS)</td>
<td>V15, V20</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for the Measurement Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>χ²</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>NFI</th>
<th>NNFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>AGFI</th>
<th>RMR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HCC</td>
<td>53.09</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCC</td>
<td>52.16</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: HCC = High career commitment; LCC = Low career commitment.

goodness-of-fit indices shown in Table 3 (chi-square/d.f. smaller than 2.0, CFI, GFI, NFI, and NNFI all greater than 0.9) indicated that the fits of the models were both satisfactory.

Reliability. Reliability can reflect the internal consistency of the indicators measuring a given factor. As shown in Table 2, reliabilities for all constructs exceed 0.7 for either high career commitment group or low career commitment group, satisfying the general requirement of reliability for research instruments.

Convergent Validity. Convergent validity can be evaluated by examining the t tests for the factor loadings [16]. In SEM, convergent validity is achieved if different indicators used to measure the same construct obtain strongly correlated scores. Here, for both high career commitment group and low career commitment group, all factor loadings for indicators measuring the same construct are statistically significant, showing that all indicators effectively measure their corresponding construct [2] and supporting convergent validity.
Discriminant Validity. Discriminant validity is obtained if the correlations between different constructs, measured with their respective indicators, are relatively weak. Restated, discriminant validity is demonstrated when different instruments are used to measure different constructs. In other words, a test displays discriminant validity when it is demonstrated that the test does not measure a construct that it was designed to measure [16]. The chi-square difference test can be applied to evaluate the discriminant validity of two constructs by calculating the difference of the chi-square statistics for the constrained and unconstrained measurement models [16]. The constrained model is identical to the unconstrained model, in which all constructs are allowed to covary, except that the correlation between the two constructs of interest is fixed at 1. Discriminant validity is achieved if the chi-square difference (with 1 df) is significant, meaning that the model in which the two constructs were viewed as distinct (but correlated) factors is superior. Since we need to test the discriminant validity for every pair of four constructs, we should control the experimentwise error rate (the overall significance level). By using the Bonferroni method under the overall 0.05 and 0.01 levels, the critical values of the chi-square test are, respectively, \( \chi^2(1, 0.05/6) = 7.88 \) and \( \chi^2(1, 0.01/6) = 10.83 \). Since the chi-square difference statistics for every two constructs all exceed 10.83 for both high career commitment group and low career commitment group (see Table 4), discriminant validity is successfully achieved.

5. Results

This investigation applies the analytical strategy proposed by Singh [35] to assess the existence of moderating effect on the structural model. First, an “unconstrained” model is estimated, in which path coefficients are allowed to vary across the cross-group datasets. Next, a “fully constrained” model is estimated by requiring that each path coefficient is constrained equally for cross-group datasets. The “fully constrained” model is thus based on the notion of variance of model relationships in cross-group settings. Comparing the goodness-of-fit statistics for the “unconstrained” and “fully constrained” models – based on a \( \chi^2 \) difference test – yields evidence for examining our hypothesis. The \( \chi^2 \) statistics for unconstrained model and constrained model are, respectively, 180.92 (df = 78) and 191.57 (df = 82). Their difference is 10.65 with 4 degrees of freedom. The significant difference (at the 5% level) indicates that the moderating effects do exist. To test for the moderating effects for individual path as Fig. 1, the \( \chi^2 \) difference test is used again. However, the \( \chi^2 \) statistics for the unconstrained model and the “partially constrained” model (The target path coefficient is constrained equally for
Table 4 Chi-Square Difference Tests  
(for Examining Discriminant Validity)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct pair</th>
<th>HCC group (Unconstrained $\chi^2(38) = 53.09$)</th>
<th>LCC group (Unconstrained $\chi^2(38) = 52.16$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constrained $\chi^2 (39)$</td>
<td>$\chi^2$ difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F1, F2)</td>
<td>65.91</td>
<td>12.82*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F1, F3)</td>
<td>160.86</td>
<td>107.77*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F1, F4)</td>
<td>78.71</td>
<td>25.62*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F2, F3)</td>
<td>170.96</td>
<td>117.87*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F2, F4)</td>
<td>95.10</td>
<td>42.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F3, F4)</td>
<td>92.36</td>
<td>39.27*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* significant at the 0.01 overall significance level by using the Bonferroni method.

Note 1: F1 = Turnover intentions (TI); F2 = Organizational commitment (OC); F3 = Procedural justice (PJ); F4 = Perceived Organizational Support (POS).

Note 2: HCC = High career commitment; LCC = Low career commitment.

...cross-group datasets) are computed (see Fig. 2 and Table 5).

Based on good model fitness as described above, Fig. 2 illustrates the result of analysis for unstandardized coefficients. All paths except one ($H_4$ for the low career commitment group) are significant for both groups (specifically, $H_1$, $H_2$, $H_3$, are supported, and $H_4$ is partially supported). A potential explanation for the insignificant relationship between POS and OC in the low career commitment group is common-method variance, as common-method variance can inflate or deflate the relationship between two variables [13]. Consequently, the test results successfully achieve confirmatory model analysis.

Table 5 presents other test of the moderating effect for individual paths. From Table 5, the influence of OC on TI is similar for both groups ($H_{1a}$ is not supported). Besides, the influences of both POS and PJ on OC are similar in both groups ($H_{3a}$ and $H_{4a}$ are not supported), while the influence of PJ on TI is stronger for the high career commitment group than the low career commitment group ($H_{2a}$ is supported).
Figure 2 Results of Analysis for Structural Models
(Unstandardized Coefficients)

* p < .05;
Note: High = High career commitment; Low = Low career commitment.

The test results for moderating effects (H1a, H3a, H4a, are not supported, while H2a is supported) are interesting, and further investigation is needed to explore the reasons for unsupported H1a, H3a, and H4a. One possible explanation is that the relationships for H1, H3, and H4 are not career commitment specific, particularly in health care organizations.
Table 5 Hypothesis Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Unconstrained model</th>
<th>Constrained model a</th>
<th>$\chi^2$ difference</th>
<th>Test result</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$H_{1a}$</td>
<td>$\chi^2 = 180.92$ (d.f. = 78)</td>
<td>$\chi^2 = 181.41$ (d.f. = 79)</td>
<td>$0.49$ (d.f. = 1)</td>
<td>$</td>
<td>HCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{2a}$</td>
<td>$\chi^2 = 180.92$ (d.f. = 78)</td>
<td>$\chi^2 = 190.28$ (d.f. = 79)</td>
<td>$9.36^*$ (d.f. = 1)</td>
<td>$</td>
<td>HCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{3a}$</td>
<td>$\chi^2 = 180.92$ (d.f. = 78)</td>
<td>$\chi^2 = 180.95$ (d.f. = 79)</td>
<td>$0.03$ (d.f. = 1)</td>
<td>$HCC = LCC$</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_{4a}$</td>
<td>$\chi^2 = 180.92$ (d.f. = 78)</td>
<td>$\chi^2 = 181.64$ (d.f. = 79)</td>
<td>$0.72$ (d.f. = 1)</td>
<td>$HCC = LCC$</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .05$; a The subjective path coefficient is constrained equally for cross-group datasets.

Note: HCC = High career commitment; LCC = Low career commitment.

6. Conclusion and Discussion

The key objective of this study was to assess the applicability of career commitment as a moderator in predicting TI, as displayed in Fig. 1. Notably, the model relationships are mostly significant for both groups ($H_1, H_2, H_3$ are supported, while $H_4$ is partially supported), indicating that the theoretical model is confirmed in the present study (see Fig. 2 and Table 5). The support of the proposed model for causal relationships encourages health care managers to attempt to create stable and low turnover environments that benefit both employees and organizations. First, employees with higher POS displayed enhanced OC. Organization support activities include adequate training support, compensation support, career planning support, and so on. This phenomenon suggests that although managers may be constrained by features of the workplace environment, their ability to develop a dyadic high-quality working environment providing firm organizational support to employees can be the key to future organizational success. Second, creating enhanced work environments that boost PJ is essential for fostering OC and
thus reducing TI. Should management neglect their dissatisfaction regarding
PJ, employees may react by quitting owing to low OC and high TI. Consulting
with employees and listening to their constructive suggestions can help
in retaining good employees and reducing TI. Alternatively, management can
design formal mechanisms for dealing with conflicts involving PJ as they
occur. Such mechanisms could formalize a communication channel for em-
ployees, providing them the opportunity to resolve conflicts resulting from
organizational constraints that are inconsistent in the application of PJ. Of-
fering a formal communication channel would be particularly beneficial to
employee attitude formation, since employee OC and TI development is
influenced by rules and PJ. Alternatively, organizations should be more
transparent in the policy and procedural fairness, as the accurate communi-
cation of information on organizational policies and procedures offers clear
guidance for employees, and can also remove unnecessary doubts and dis-
satisfaction. Managers should reinforce employee OC through ad hoc
reminders of PJ policy whenever the topic is raised. This pattern is consistent
with the claim of Tyler [38] that people expect an organization to employ
neutral decision-making procedures enacted by trustworthy authorities, to
help all group members benefit from belonging to the group. In short, em-
ployees who perceive high PJ, POS, and OC tend to remain in their positions
longer than other employees.

Although this study provides a guide for creating effective work envi-
ronments, the approach used herein requires a new understanding of the
difference between high and low career commitment individuals. Traditionally,
managers have managed human resources by applying uniform policies
and methods to all employees, but the analytical results presented here sug-
gest that employees perceive the relationship between PJ and TI differently
according to their career commitment ($H_{2a}$). As argued in a previous study
[9], career commitment is a theoretically interesting variable whose moder-
ating effects on some important causal relationships have been neglected.
This confirmatory study includes career commitment as a moderator, repre-
senting a significant departure from the previous literature. The test results
presented in this study support the conjecture that career commitment is an
important moderator of the relationship between PJ and TI. Since the rela-
tionship between PJ and TI is stronger for high career commitment em-
ployees than low career commitment employees ($H_{2a}$), high career commit-
ment employees appear to be highly sensitive to PJ, significantly and
negatively influencing TI. This sensitivity then may influence motivation to
remain in the organization, especially for high career commitment employ-
ees. In other words, understanding a rationale for how career commitment moderates the relationship between PJ and TI can help managers to conduct HRM. All employees could be administered a standard battery of psychological tests, including the measures of perceived PJ and career commitment. More specifically, managers may forecast subsequent employee intentions and responses after examining all their perception regarding the job and organization and career commitment. More specifically, managers should prioritize employees with high career commitment, and should consult with such employees as soon as they learn of any who are dissatisfied with the PJ. Furthermore, managers prefer to hire employees with high career commitment, but they must understand that such employees may also have high turnover intentions when PJ is slightly dissatisfied. However, the above argument does not represent the dilemma between high career commitment and high TI, but rather suggests that managers are looking for a balance.

In conclusion, the statistical significant figure denoted in Figure 2 verified that the interrelationships between the constructs, which are rather logical from the academic point of view. The phenomenon in Figure 2 indicates that no matter high or low career commitment of the subjects, the interrelationships between these constructs are supported. But only the relationship between PJ and TI is different for those with high career commitment from those with low career commitment. It means that the influence of PJ on TI is stronger for the high career commitment group than the low career commitment group.

Last, this study has important implications for human resource management. The key implication is that no single management practice is superior to another in managing turnover. Managers thus should employ new management practices rather than seeking a single management strategy applicable to all employees [32]. To assist managers in tailoring their management practices to different individuals, new recruits and employees could be administered a standard battery of tests, which should include the measurements of TI and PJ. Furthermore, organizations must also be aware of their own PJ practiced when deciding the recruiting policy, thus helping them to achieve satisfactory TI.

7. Limitation and Future Research

Despite its contributions, this study has some noteworthy limitations. First, although this study found that career commitment is an important moderator for the proposed model when applied to hospital employees, results could differ in other areas. Further research thus needs to be carried out
to test the validity of the moderator across different occupational fields. Second, this study only included two major variables (POS and PJ) as predictors of OC, something that could be modified. That is, it might be better to apply other antecedents of the OC models, such as perceived job stress, leader-member exchange, job satisfaction, and so on.

While the findings of this study confirm that three paths are not moderated by career commitment (with only the path between PJ and TI being confirmed to be significantly moderated by career commitment), longitudinal research designs that measure the focal variables at multiple time points are essential for complementary study. Some of the arguments and hypotheses that were rejected in this study may provide a good starting point for future related research.

References


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