

**HIGH INVOLVEMENT WORK PROCESSES:  
IMPLICATION FOR EMPLOYEE WITHDRAWAL  
BEHAVIORS IN INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY SECTOR**

*Thesis Submitted to*

*Cochin University of Science and Technology*

*for the award of the degree of*

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*Under the*

*Faculty of Social Sciences*

*By*

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*Under the Guidance of*

**Prof. Dr. James Manalel**



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Withdrawal Behaviors in Information Technology Sector**

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## **Certificate**

This is to certify that the thesis entitled “**High Involvement Work Processes: Implication for Employee Withdrawal Behaviors in Information Technology Sector**” is a record of bonafide research work done by Mr. Manu Melwin Joy, part time research scholar, under my supervision and guidance.

The thesis is the outcome of his original work and has not formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or any other similar title and is worth submitting for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy under the Faculty of Social Sciences of Cochin University of Science and Technology.

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## *Declaration*

I hereby declare that this thesis entitled “**High Involvement Work Processes : Implication for Employee Withdrawal Behaviors in Information Technology Sector**” is a record of the bona-fide research work done by me and that it has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or any other title of recognition.

Kochi  
/07/2016

**Manu Melwin Joy**



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## INTRODUCTION

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### 1.1 Indian IT industry

The Indian economy has been witnessing an exponential growth in the contributions of service sector to the GDP. The contributions from the service sector account for more than fifty percent of the GDP of the country. The IT industry has emerged as one of the fastest growing industries in the service sector in India. In the global markets, the Indian IT industry has built up a valuable brand equity for itself. Considered as a pioneer in software development, India is now the favorite destination for IT enabled services. The pivotal role played by the IT industry in giving India an image makeover from a slow paced bureaucratic economy to a global player in providing state of the art technology solutions and business services is phenomenal.

For the past few decades, IT industry has been one of the most important growth contributors for the Indian Economy. The contribution of IT Sector to India's GDP has gone up from 1.2 % in 1998 to 7.5 % in 2012 showing a substantial rise. With an export revenue of US\$99 billion and a domestic revenue of US\$48 billion, the IT sector has amassed revenues of US\$147 billion in the financial year 2015. By providing direct employment to 2.9 million and indirectly giving jobs to 8.8 million people, the sector is one of the largest job creators in the country and a mainstay of the Indian economy (NASSCOM Annual report, 2015).

## **1.2 Importance of Human Resource in IT Industry**

By its very nature, human resources play a crucial role in the survival of the service sector. This is of great importance, especially in Information Technology (IT) companies where people costs are relatively very high and capital costs is comparatively low. Different metrics and management practices are a necessity in people intensive business like Information Technology. Marginal changes in employee productivity in IT companies have a major impact on shareholder returns. Therefore, as the industry is concerned, human resource management is not a support function but a core process for line managers.

The past few years have been really tough for organizations that use, manage or deal with information technology. The demand, supply, selection, recruitment and retention of IT professionals have been the greatest challenge for HR managers worldwide. In the past few years, IT professional compensation has been on the rise, turnover has increased considerably, job – hopping has become common and only few IT positions

get occupied with qualified candidates. These unprecedented trends have kept IT executives and HR managers under great pressure and resulted in higher risks for IT department and business as a whole.

### **1.3 Relevance of Employee Retention Strategies in IT Industry**

Retention is generally defined as a voluntary move by an organization to build an environment resulting in a long term engagement of the employee. A revised definition of retention is to avoid the loss of proficient employees from leaving efficiency and profitability (Chiboiwa, Samuel & Chipunza, 2010). Retention of talented employees is an advantage to be financially competitive, the knowledge and skills of employees are inevitable (Kyndt, Dochy, Michielsen & Moeyaert, 2009). Organizations now emphasize more on employee retention strategies and their link to organizational productivity and profit because of the advent of knowledge-based economy. Experts acknowledge the fact that organization's human resources are critical corporate assets that can be tied directly to organizational financial outcomes. In the coming years, employee retention strategies will be tightly linked to organizational survival. Employee retention is the major concern and main objective for most organizations (Deckop, Konrad, Perlmutter & Freely, 2006).

From the organizational perspective, two factors have accelerated the need for the development of comprehensive retention strategies (Harris, 1999). First, the dawn of the 21<sup>st</sup> century has occurred during a period of intense shortage of skilled labor which is predicted to continue throughout the next century (Judy, 2000). Apart from the severe quantitative shortage of employees, organizations are facing shortage of employees with the right

kind of knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary to survive in a technologically driven marketplace (Judy, 2000). Because of the rapid advancements happening in the technological arena, educational sector is struggling to keep up leading to a shortage of skilled labor in IT industry. This is made worse by employees working in IT companies jumping off for a better offer (Joinson, 1999) and taking their valuable knowledge with them. It is now imperative for IT organizations to continuously adapt their retention strategies due to the spiralling organizational competition for scarce human resources and the constant risk of employee poaching. Extensive retention strategies are therefore a prerequisite for all organizations who want to remain effective competitors in the area of employee loyalty (Half, 1993).

The second organizational factor that necessitates organizations to adopt comprehensive retention tactics is the exorbitant cost of high turnover rates. When an organization loses a skilled professional through voluntary turnover, the replacement costs can be extraordinarily high. Estimates by human resource executives state that the replacement cost of a skilled employee can be as much as 150 % of the employee's salary, which includes the head hunter's compensation, new employee's depressed productivity and time coworkers spend guiding him (Branch, 1998). In addition, when an organization's voluntary turnover rate is steadily increasing, low employee morale can lead the organization to turnover crisis. It is reported that employees left behind in the organization experience a sense of personal loss when a colleague leaves. Lower morale, reduced job satisfaction, and elevated turnover rates are the after effects of dissatisfaction caused by a colleague's departure combined with the assumption that the colleague has departed for a better alternative (Sheehan,

1991). Therefore, from the perspective of the organization, the socioeconomic factors that have resulted in the emergent focus on employee retention tactics are the shortage of skilled labor and high cost of employee turnover.

In addition to the organizational perspective, an understanding from the perspective of the employee can facilitate in getting a clear picture of the emerging importance of employee retention strategies. With respect to the individual perspective, two factors have led to the escalated need for the development of an inclusive retention strategy. Globalization of the present economy, which allowed individuals with the capacity of transcending borders to take benefit of career opportunities in other areas, is the first factor that led to individual expectations of comprehensive retention strategies in organizations (Hui, 1988). This phenomenon has resulted in a surge in the job opportunities available for skilled professionals. IT firms are concerned about the growing turnover rates and shrinking length of employment in the industry with the annual turnover rates hitting alarming numbers. It was found that annual turnover rates of 30-40% are not uncommon in the IT sector (Kinsey-Goman, 2000). For organizations to retain individuals, they should succeed in making their employees feel that their present work situation is better than any other alternatives elsewhere.

A budding interest in work-life balance is the second individual aspect to be noted with regard to organizational retention strategies. The previous two decades were characterized by the pursuit of the individual to strike a balance between work objectives and personal objectives, which is expected to continue in future (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Individuals are more attached to organizations that protect the aspiration of employees to

maximize work, family, and community objectives. Organizations should be prudent enough to respond to the changing trend towards work-life balance to avoid significant staff losses (Lust & Ulrich, 1998). Therefore, from an individual perspective, the major trends that resulted in the current focus on employee retention tactics are tough competition between organizations for scarce skilled human capital and the emergent social trend of work life balance.

Importantly, there are three environmental factors influencing the need for comprehensive retention strategies in IT organizations. Vulnerability of organizations to shifting demographics is the first factor which makes retention strategies crucial for technology organizations. Since the IT industry is characterized by generation X individuals, organizations aiming to remain competitive must reassess the effectiveness of their present retention strategies to see if they are still appealing to younger employees. Many retention strategies carried out today are developed to cater to the needs of 'Baby Boomers' in the technology economy and organizations have not invested adequate time in reevaluating those strategies for the transformation to the new knowledge economy (Davenport, 1999). A thorough evaluation of the existing retention strategies is therefore necessary to determine their effectiveness and they have to be updated so that IT firms will gain a competitive edge in the arena of human capital today.

Advent of knowledge economy is the second environmental factor affecting the relevance of retention strategies to IT organizations. Social capital and human capital are the two important elements that have to be

developed by organizations to thrive in the new competitive arena (Ford, 1999). As per definition, social capital is a resource reflecting the character of social relations existing within an organization. To survive in the knowledge economy, organizations have to cultivate and perfect social capital, which exists as networks of working relationships. The members of these networks have the freedom to connect, collaborate, and learn from one another and react to a changing market. To endure the present competitive environment, organizations must have a holistic approach to optimizing human capital and reducing turnover (Greenspan, 2000). Therefore, to build human capital, organizations must also create retention strategies focused on decreasing turnover.

Apart from the tangible monetary organizational costs, turnover also has invisible costs. These intangible costs are the third environmental factor stressing the importance of retention strategies in the IT industry. High turnover rates result in lower employee morale, which may, in turn, lead to a phenomenon known as work force haemorrhage (Kinsey-Goman, 2000). Workforce haemorrhage happens when remaining employees opt to leave the organization rather than continue working under unsatisfactory conditions. IT industry is more prone to workforce haemorrhage because of the unusually high turnover rates and a wealth of available job opportunities for IT professionals.

In general, retention issues are crucial to the field of human resource management. Therefore IT organizations seeking to evade the disastrous effect of invisible turnover costs must continuously develop their retention strategies. IT firms suffer from increased organizational competition for

human resources and this have resulted in increased incentive plans as a result of higher than average turnover rates, as well as a shortage of skilled labor (Lee, Ashfold, Walsh & Mowday, 1992). In a nutshell, factors such as soaring turnover rates and their visible and invisible costs, a change in workforce demographics and an environment of high organizational competition for sparse and critical human assets, force IT organizations to take notice of employee retention issues.

#### **1.4 Employee Retention and Employee Withdrawal Behavior**

According to Hulin (1991), employees lacking loyalty to their organizations engage in withdrawal behaviors which he defined as a set of actions that employees do to avoid the work situation—behaviors that may eventually result in quitting the organization. Many traditional and foundational theories such as the equity theory, the inducements – contributions theory and the social exchange theory support the role of withdrawal behaviors as a means by which employees hold back inputs from an organization. According to these theories, when employees reduce their input toward the job in a controllable manner, it results in withdrawal behaviors.

Many studies done in the past decade have identified perceived unethical conditions as a root cause for employee withdrawal behaviors and which affects organizational effectiveness (Hart, 2005; Koslowsky, 2009). Unethical perspective in the organization may be reflected when employees with similar attitudes and behaviors may decide to bring down their effort at work (Shaw et al., 2005). These studies signify the importance of examining the ethical predictors that may forecast withdrawal behaviours. Retention



research would benefit from greater linkage with areas that can underline the circumstance in which the behavior might occur, such as the work and careers (Ornstein & Isabella, 1993).

### **1.5 Role of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) in enhancing Employee Retention**

In today's globalized world characterized by increased competition, expansion of the service sector and the growth of knowledge work, organizations are increasingly looking for ways to leverage the value of their human resources to gain competitive advantage. Several theoreticians argued that the human resources of the company are potentially the only source of sustainable competitive edge for the organization (Becker & Gerhart, 1996). Pfeffer (1998) argued that a human resource system facilitates to create a workforce whose contributions are valuable, unique and inimitable. A surplus of academic research carried out at the organizational level also suggests that human resource practices affect organizational outcomes by molding employee behaviours and attitudes (Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995).

Whitener (2001) suggested that employees comprehend organizational actions such as human resource practices and the trustworthiness of management as signs of organization's commitment to them. They give, in return, their whole hearted commitment to the organization. Conventional stream of research based on social exchange theory has revealed that employees' commitment to organization evolves from their perceptions of the employer's commitment to and support of them. In their multi level model linking human resources practices and employee reactions, Ostroff &

Bowen (2000) described relationships suggesting that human resource practices are significantly connected with employee perceptions and employee attitudes.

High Involvement Work Processes allow organizations to leverage their human capital by both building it and actively connecting it to organizational performance. Numerous studies suggest that High Involvement Work Processes will enhance employee retention (Arthur, 1995; Koch & McGrath, 1996). HIWP denotes positive changes in employee attitudes and behavior that are achieved through a process of involving employees in aspects of decision making that have been traditionally kept aside for management (Ahlbrandt, Leana & Murrell, 1992). According to Lawler's (1992) definition, the components of HIWP are: (a) Power to make or influence decisions about the work in all its aspects; (b) Information about processes, quality, customer feedback, events and business results; (c) Rewards tied to business results and personal growth in terms of capability and contribution; (d) Knowledge of the work, the business and the total work system.

HIWP have been considered by many researchers to be of prime importance in providing firms with winning edge and the ability to operate efficiently within a competitive environment (Becker & Huselid, 1998). As an inevitable part of the value chain, these processes affect the overall performance of the firm and commitment of the employees (Meyer & Smith, 2000). Some researchers have found that HIWP can drastically improve organizational commitment of employees (Wong, Wong, Hui & Law, 2001). They have also been acknowledged as one of the strongest

antecedents of affective commitment when compared with other types of organizational influences (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999).

A study conducted by Batt (2000) in the service industry proved that the implementation of high involvement systems reduced employee turnover and increased the sales growth. Many other studies also recommend that High Involvement Work Processes will improve employee retention (Koch & McGrath, 1996). Arthur (1994) and Huselid (1995) came up with evidence that these programs are predicted to have a positive impact on employee retention and commitment. Therefore, organizations should focus on creating a positive work climate by implementing high involvement work practices.

This study attempts to explore employee retention problems in IT industry in India. Employee retention problems and its relationships with HIWP are currently under researched in the Indian context. The research will provide new platform to test western theories and assumptions found in HIWP studies about employee retention. Studies done by Klein et al., (2000) have pointed out that the main limitation of the HIWP research is that there is no generally accepted, clearly articulated model to explain how, when and why HIWP might improve employee retention. This study differs from other studies in that it undertakes to develop a theoretical framework for employee retention using high involvement work processes and employee withdrawal behavior as independent and dependent variables.

Apart from this, it is found that most of the research connecting HIWP and employee retention are considered from the employer's perspective. Although majority of current organizations choose for policy formulation

strategies that mirror their own cultures and priorities, the significant issue is whether the employees have been consulted, and whether the resultant policy reflects a negotiation between management and employee interests, satisfactory to both or is it simply a management or HR directive. If the value proposition is viewed from the employee's point of view, the outcomes will be different. Taking into consideration this research gap, this study tries to find out insights that will shed new lights into the area of employee retention from the employee's perspective.

## **1.6 Rationale of the study**

With regard to the organizational perspective, two factors have led to the increased need for the development of comprehensive retention strategies.

- First, the advent of the twenty-first century has occurred during a period of severe shortage of skilled labor which is forecasted to continue throughout the next century (Judy, 2000). In a technologically oriented marketplace, organizations facing shortage of employees with the right kind of Knowledge, skills and attitude have a huge risk of failure. Also, current labor market conditions have resulted in a vast amount of career opportunities for skilled professionals. Today's organizations are in direct competition with one another to obtain the skilled professionals who have become a scarce commodity in the marketplace due to prevailing labor shortages. This financial aspect makes retention of employees a top priority issue in human resource management today. To become and remain effective competitors in the area of employee loyalty, organizations must have extensive retention strategies in place (Half, 1993).

- Second, from the organizational perspective, the sheer cost of high turnover rates to today's organizations necessitates comprehensive retention tactics. It is said that replacement costs for skilled professionals lost to an organization through voluntary turnover can be extraordinarily high. As a matter of fact, some human resource executives estimate that when all factors are considered not only the recruiter's fee, but also the leaving employee's lost leads and contacts, the new employee's depressed productivity while he's learning, and the time coworkers spend guiding him-replacement costs can be as much as 150% of the departing person's salary (Branch, 1998). In addition, when an organization's voluntary turnover rate is high, the organization can fall prey to a spiraling turnover rate caused by low employee morale. It has been argued that the dissatisfaction caused by a colleague's departure combined with the supposition that the colleague has departed for a better alternative can lead to lower morale, lower job satisfaction, and higher turnover rates (Sheehan, 1991). Thus, organizations must have retention strategies in place to avoid spiraling turnover rates. With regard to the individual perspective, three factors have led to the increased need for the development of comprehensive retention strategies.
- First, from the individual perspective, the globalization of the present economy has led to individual expectations of comprehensive organizational retention strategies. Economic globalization provides individuals with the capability of crossing borders to take advantage of career opportunities in other areas. This increases the already high number of job opportunities in existence for skilled professionals. For

individuals to remain in organizations, they must feel that their current work situation is better than any other alternatives elsewhere thus reinforcing the critical importance of organizational retention strategies.

- The second factor affecting the salience of organizational retention strategies to individuals involves organizational competition for scarce human resources. It has already been mentioned that due to the shortage of skilled professionals, those employees who do possess the necessary Knowledge, skills, and abilities to become competent organizational performers are facing a wealth of career opportunities. Higher levels of more aggressive competition between organizations for skill led talent have resulted in inflated salary and benefits packages for skilled professionals. Skilled employees are aware of their leverage in the labor market and, as a result, have come to expect superior organizational retention policies to be in effect in the organizations in which they choose to work.
- The third factor of note with regard to the individual perspective concerning organizational retention strategies is the emergent interest in work-life balance. The decade of the 1990s marked the birth of the individual pursuit of a balance between work objectives and personal objectives, which is expected to continue (Branch, 1998). Individuals now aspire to maximization of work, family, and community objectives, and employees seek to maintain their affiliation with organizations that protect these aspirations. It is believed that organizations that do not react to the trend toward work-life balance will risk falling prey to significant staff losses (Ulrich, 1997).

Essentially, there are five factors influencing the need for comprehensive retention strategies in IT organizations.

- The first factor indicating the importance of organizational retention strategies for IT firms concerns the turnover rates within these types of organizations. It is found that annual turnover rates of 30-40% are not uncommon in the IT sector (Kinsey-Goman, 2000). As has been previously mentioned, excessive turnover is costly to organizations and can potentially affect organizational survival in the long run. Therefore, technology organizations in particular, must pay careful attention to retention strategies to ensure control over voluntary turnover rates.
- The second factor which makes retention strategies crucial for technology organizations is their vulnerability to shifting demographics. Since the IT industry is characterized by a younger workforce demographic, organizations that wish to remain competitive must reevaluate the effectiveness of their current retention strategies to see if they are still useful for younger employees (Davenport, 1999). The retention strategies prevalent during the period between 1950 and the early 1980s, which were designed to target the loyalty of the 'Baby Boomer' professionals, may not be suitable to target the loyalty of 'Generation X' professionals. Evaluation and planning will be necessary to determine whether or not existing IT organizational retention strategies are effective, and if they are not, the types of retention tactics that will allow IT firms to obtain a competitive edge in the arena of human capital today.

- The third factor affecting the salience of retention strategies to IT organizations is the advent of the Knowledge economy. According to Peter Drucker (1954), the foundation of an organization is knowledge and education, which he termed as human capital. Knowledge creation and innovation are the focal points of organizational survival in the IT industry. Since technology workers possess the Knowledge necessary to service existing organizational products, and since that Knowledge can be used to create the type of technological innovation necessary to give IT organizations the competitive edge they need to survive, it can be inferred that technology professionals are literally the most important assets of the organizations in which they work. Therefore, retaining these Knowledge workers must be an important organizational objective.
- The fourth factor influencing the importance of retention strategies to the IT industry concerns the skills gap. It has been demonstrated that there is a shortage of skilled labor available in the marketplace. This is inherent in the IT sector where technological advancements are occurring so rapidly that the educational sector cannot keep up. Furthermore, IT professionals who are already employed feel little compunction about jumping ship for a better offer (Joinson, 2000) and taking their Knowledge with them. The constant risk of employee poaching due to high organizational competition for scarce human resources means that IT organizations must continuously readapt their retention strategies to ensure their marketability to IT professionals, who are facing a period of abundant job opportunities.



- The importance of superior retention policies to IT firms does not only involve the monetary cost of high turnover rates. In addition to visible or monetary organizational costs, turnover also has invisible or non-monetary costs. These non-monetary costs are the fifth factor influencing the importance of retention strategies to the IT industry. For instance, high turnover rates can lead to lower employee morale which may, in turn, lead to a phenomenon termed work force haemorrhage (Kinsey-Goman, 2000). Workforce haemorrhage occurs when remaining employees choose to leave the organization rather than continue working under poor conditions. In the IT industry, where turnover rates are unusually high due to the wealth of available job opportunities for IT professionals, IT organizations are particularly vulnerable to workforce haemorrhage. IT organizations seeking to avoid the potentially treacherous effect of invisible turnover costs must continuously develop their retention strategies.

In sum, high turnover rates and their antecedent visible and invisible costs, increasing workforce diversity and an environment of high organizational competition for scarce and critical human assets creates the need for IT organizations to take notice of employee retention issues.

## **1.7 Statement of the problem**

Management practices leading to greater employee involvement are generally accepted as the way for attaining the maximum benefit out of human resources and guarantee outcomes such as employee retention. Literature review of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) suggests

that employees' perceptions that they are involved intervene between practices and outcomes, and are more significant than practices in achieving the benefits of HIWP (Vandenberg et al., 1999). While majority of the current literature concentrates on the bundle of organizational practices as the primary predictors of a climate of involvement, the process aspect of High Involvement Work Processes has been largely neglected (Becker & Huselid, 1998). Based on studies done by Klein and associates (2000), the main limitation of the HIWP research is that there is no generally accepted, clearly articulated model to explain how, when and why HIWP might improve employee retention. This thesis views the existence of High Involvement Work Processes as a prerequisite to retention of employees.

While there is a growing concern over the need for retention strategies, there is a hope that HIWP has the potential to address the issue. A study conducted by Batt (2000) in the service industry proved that the implementation of high involvement systems reduced employee turnover and increased the sales growth. Many other studies also recommend that High Involvement Work Processes will improve employee retention (Koch & McGrath, 1996). Arthur (1994) and Huselid (1995) came up with evidence that these programs are predicted to have a positive impact on employee retention and commitment. Therefore, organizations should focus on creating a positive work climate by implementing High Involvement Work Practices. However, till date, there is no such study relating High Involvement Work Processes and retention using Employee Withdrawal Behaviors as the dependant variable. The study therefore aims to provide a valid contribution to the HIWP literature by creating a valid model linking the linking High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

Apart from this, most of the research connecting HIWP and employee retention are considered from the employer's perspective. Although majority of current organizations choose policy formulation strategies that mirror their own cultures and priorities, the significant issue is whether the employees have been consulted, and whether the resultant policy reflects a negotiation between management and employee interests, satisfactory to both or is it simply a management or HR directive. If the value proposition is viewed from the employee's point of view, the outcomes may be different. Taking into consideration this research gap, this study tries to find out insights that will shed new lights into the area of employee retention from the employee's perspective.

## **1.8 Objectives of the study**

Based on the conceptual focus highlighted in the earlier sections, this study proceeds to inquire into the following set of objectives and test the hypotheses framed as under.

### **1.8.1 Major objective**

To investigate the relationship between High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors in IT firms in Kerala.

### **1.8.2 Specific objectives**

- a) To determine the influence of demographic variables on High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP).
- b) To establish the relationship between High Involvement Work Processes and Job Satisfaction among the employees in IT Firms.

- c) To establish the relationship between High Involvement Work Processes and Organizational Commitment among the employees in IT Firms.
- d) To establish the relationship between High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors among the employees in IT Firms.
- e) To develop and statistically validate a model linking High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

## **1.9 Organization of the Report**

The study is organized in six chapters.

Chapter 1 is an introduction to the study.

Chapter 2 presents the review of literature pertaining to High Involvement Work Processes, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

Chapter 3 describes the research methodology used in the study. It also discusses the development of the survey instrument, sampling methodology and sampling frame. The scope and limitation of the study is also included in this section.

Chapter 4 presents the empirical findings from the data and data analysis of High Involvement Work Processes, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

Chapter 5 presents the analysis of the measurement model of the study using Structural Equation Modeling.

Chapter 6 discusses the implications of the research and findings and how this relates to the current research in the area of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) along with theoretical implications and directions to future research.



# Chapter 2

## LITERATURE REVIEW

<i>Contents</i>	2.1 Human Resource Management.
	2.2 High Involvement Work Processes.
	2.3 Job Satisfaction
	2.4 Organizational Commitment.
	2.5 Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.
	2.6 Conceptual focus of the study
	2.7 Research Hypothesis

*This section provides an in depth review of literature of all the important variables related to the study. Section 2.1 presents a short review of the evolution of human resource management. Section 2.2 gives a snap shot of the theoretical background of High Involvement Work Processes. A detailed literature review of Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Employee Withdrawal Behavior is done in sections 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5. Section 2.6 and 2.7 deal with the conceptual focus of the study and research hypotheses.*

### **2.1 Human Resource Management**

#### **2.1.1 Early Influence of Human Resources**

The genesis of modern HR can be traced back to the development of the Human Relations approach, which began with the partnership between Harvard Business School and Western Electric Company. The estimated outcomes of the studies were harmony, cooperation and positive attitudes, achieved through communication and social interaction among the

stakeholders. While this approach has been widely considered as a way of achieving constructive outcomes for both management and employees through collaboration and improved employee satisfaction, some viewed that the human relations approach is manipulative and subversion of legitimate collective action (Leana & Florkowski, 1992). Although the forecast that job satisfaction would lead to productivity failed to happen (Locke & Schewieger, 1979; Wagner, 1994), human relations theoretical concerns with employee well being are still pivotal to many involvement approaches of HR (Lawler, 1986). HRM has progressed from its humble origins in personnel administration in which staffing, employee development, remuneration, career development and industrial relations functions were often performed effectively (Sheehan and Cooper, 2011). However, at times, HRM is conducted without clear integration either between the functions or towards broader firm goals and objectives (Soderquist et al., 2010).

Peter Drucker has been attributed with the origin of the term ‘Human Resource’. Individual development was the focus of the Human Resource approach with benefits accruing to both the employee and the organization. Incorporating the essence of ‘Theory Y’ view of employees proposed by McGregor (McGregor, 1960) and growth concepts from Argyris and Maslow, it was thought that skill development and opportunity would fulfill the higher order needs of the employees which would, in turn, lead to their personal development and constructive performance outcomes (Leana & Florkowski, 1992). The conceptual implications of this approach are still significant in strategic approaches that include both financial and human development components (Ferris, Hochwarter, Buckley, Harrell-



Cook&Frink, 1999; Kaplan & Norton, 1992). Modern human resource theory and practice had been significantly influenced by the concepts of Workplace democracy and instrumental management. Workplace democracy is based on individual rights, democratic principles and issues of power. Increased productivity and product quality was the focus of instrumental management with employee development seen as a means to achieve this end.

According to some authors, during 1980s, human resource management was synonymous with Personnel and Industrial Relations with a focus on core managerial activities which include recruiting, selection, performance appraisal, reward system, staff development and instrumental industrial relations (Marciano, 1995; McMahan, Bell&Virick, 1998). Even though the strategic application of human resource has been a concern of management since 1950s (Ansoff, 1991), the 1980s saw a resurrection of interest in HR as the reason for competitive advantage. When this re – christening of HR as Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) happened, HR professionals realized the importance to equip themselves as strategic partners in setting the direction of the organization and its governance to remain significant in an era of automated processes and outsourcing (Wright & Snell, 1998).

### **2.1.2 Strategic Human Resource Management**

Radical changes in business in the 1970s, including the emergence of a global economy, foreign competition, and changes in customer expectation resulted in the development of Strategic Management. Porter’s (1985) work stated that competitive force, barriers and strategies will help an organization

in outperforming competition, including cost leadership, differentiation, focus and a systematic analysis of business, suppliers and customers. In order to materialize competitive outcomes, strategic management should be supported by an organizational capability which is built to respond to environmental instability consisting of organizational culture, rewards and power structure, information, planning and control systems (Ansoff, 1991). The fundamental aim of Strategic HRM is to develop organizations that were flexible, adaptable, and capable of being promptly responsive to customers and quality conscious (Besanko, Dranove & Shanley, 1996; Lieberman & Montgomery, 1988). SHRM aims to align HRM practices with an organization's strategy and ultimately with organizational development goals beyond the mere operation of these functions (Pynes, 2013).

A strategic approach that included the building of core competencies was suggested by Prahalad & Hamel (1990). They stated that competitive advantages that come from the ability to produce at lower costs and faster than competitors, requires mutually supporting portfolios of business, products and competencies. Learning, coordination, skills and technologies, multi skilling and integration come under the umbrella of strategic competence. Apart from its difficulty to be imitated, core competencies are those that provide access to a wide variety of markets, contribute to consumer perceptions of benefits of end products. Organizational strategy in this context is the result of skilled employees, with the requisite competencies who enable low cost, high quality production, customer responsiveness, flexibility and learning that facilitates broad market opportunities and internal labor flexibility.

The beginnings of multidisciplinary approaches to HR research were visible in the past decade with HR being contextualized in broader strategic approaches. The crux of Strategic HRM was to align HRM to the firm's policy which is accomplished through complimentary processes and resource allocation practices that encourage flexibility, coordination and feedback. To realize the firm's strategic direction (Wright & Snell, 1998), it was also seen as important to develop effective behavioral repertoires, alignment of motivations and interests, participative appraisal systems and management of the bureaucracy. Strategic planning and HRM are well integrated by SHRM through the process of responding to political, economic and cultural issues to align structures and people while supporting flexibility and innovation (Lundy, 1994). Considering HR as an organizational resource thus improves our understanding of how HR can provide sustainable competitive advantage to an organization.

### **2.1.3 Resource Based View (RBV) of Human Resource Management**

Rather than a theory, the resource based view of Human resource management has been popularly viewed as a framework (Barney, 2001). Even though the value of strategically applied resources was recognized in the 1970s, it was Barney's (1991) article that described the resource characteristics necessary for long term competitive advantage. According to Barney (2001), in order to provide competitive advantage, resources must be uncommon, precious, inimitable and non replaceable. The RBV has influenced the evolution of SHRM through treating HR as a strategic resource. Strategic HR practices are casually ambiguous, organizationally – embedded, and made up of unique routines and practices that are built up in an organization over time, and thus cannot be easily interpreted and imitated

by competitors (Wright, Dunford & Snell, 2001). Thus, the RBV suggests that a firm's resources and capabilities are determined not only by its external environment but also by its strategic internal decisions and that firms obtain competitive advantage by deploying or acquiring resources (Mello, 2011).

The RBV makes a strong contribution to HR theory through creating the realization that organizational performance is more than the sum of individual behaviors, and includes systems, processes, human, social and organizational capital. The flip side of the RBV perspective is its assumption that resources are stable and enduring which is seldom the case in changing competitive environments. The RBV can be used for identifying the characteristics of HR as a strategic resource, but fails as a theoretical basis for facilitating practice selection, intervening processes and outcomes (Becker & Gerhart, 1996).

According to Amit and Shoemaker (1993), a strategic asset is a group of hard to trade and imitate, limited, appropriable, and specialized resources and capabilities that ensure the firm's competitive advantage. According to the resource based view, HR practices need to generate value, be rare and difficult to reproduce, to convey a competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). Integrating HR practices in broader framework of the firm provides efficiencies that are unique and can underline a firm's competitive position as core competencies (Wright et al., 2001). It is tough for competitors to decode and imitate policies and strategies because of the causally uncertain nature of the embedded HR practices. It is difficult to reproduce socially complex systems such as culture and personal relationships and it forms the

context for the HR practice selection and operation (Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Pfeffer, 1994).

#### **2.1.4 Control and Commitment approaches to Human Resource**

In literature, human resource practices have often been classified as either control or commitment practices. Control systems of human resource are often compared with traditional HR, inferring a Tayloristic approach (Guest & Conway, 1999). For some, this carries negative connotations, appearing to be totally against the human relations, human resources and democratic views – even though Taylor was quite worried about working environments, higher wages, collaboration and harmony (Muchinsky, 1993), and an eager and hearty cooperation (Rose, 1978). According to Lawler (1986), traditional job structure motivated by Taylor’s scientific management approach, actually provided an important competitive advantage to pre – 1970s industry, facilitating high productivity from unskilled, low wage employees. Apart from close supervision, Taylor’s Scientific Management approach was widely criticized for its dictatorial management methods and for treating men like machines (Rose, 1978).

Control HR practices are used synonymously with manipulative practices, autocratic management and technocentric methods. The critics of control oriented HR suggest that this approach produces work alienation, elevated turnover, higher absenteeism, work sabotage, lower motivation, higher dissatisfaction and poor quality work (Lawler, 1996). Lawler (1992) differentiated control and commitment approaches by focusing on how work is structured and managed at the lowest possible levels in the organization. According to him, motivation in control systems is fundamentally extrinsic,

creating jobs that are less complicated, standardized, specialized and closely monitored. Control is vested in the hands of management with thinking and doing separated. The major costs involved in this approach include hierarchies of supervisors, and intricate measurements, rewards and disciplinary systems.

As opposed to this view is the commitment HR approach which says that employees can be more productive if they are properly involved with the job and organization. Arthur (1994) considered the effect of HR systems on manufacturing performance and turnover using a control versus commitment HR practices taxonomy. In the study, he highlighted the basic differences between these approaches in determining employee behaviors and attitudes at work. Arthur differentiated control and commitment HR systems, saying that the goal of control systems is to cut down direct labor costs, or improve efficiency, by implementing employee compliance with precise rules and procedures and basing rewards of employees on some measurable output criteria. In contrast, commitment HR systems achieve the desired employee behaviors and attitudes by strengthening psychological associations between organizational and employee goals. Here, the attention is on developing committed employees who can be trusted to use their prudence to carry out job tasks in ways that are aligned with organizational goals.

It would be an oversimplification if it is concluded that commitment HR practices are clearly superior to control HR practices (Lawler, 1986). A comparison of HR taxonomies and measures suggests that there are certain facets of the so called control HR such as standard, technology and quality

checks that do not easily fit into commitment typologies, but is imperative for organizational competitiveness. According to Lawler (1992), there are certain situations under which control HR systems may be a more suitable approach when, for example, the work is relatively less complicated and there is little need for coordination and problem solving. These circumstances are characterized by highly stable work, low labor cost and poorly skilled and less educated labor force. He further added that where the labor costs is high and competition is happening on a global scale, it is ideal for organizations to opt for an involvement oriented approach (Lawler, 1992).

### **2.1.5 The Human Capital and Abilities, Motivation and Opportunity (AMO) Theory**

Human resource practices can impact a firm's future through thoughtfully investing in human capital (Becker & Gerhart, 1996). According to the advocates of human capital, employees own knowledge, skills and experience that have monetary value to organizations. Schultz was the first person to suggest the human capital theory to examine the economic value of education. But more recently it has been used in human resource practice field. Organizations attain human capital through recruiting employees with high level of skills and knowledge, both of which are intangible, including such abilities as problem solving, coordinating, and making decisions in new circumstances (Becker & Gerhart, 1996). These intangible skills and knowledge contain idiographic resources which produce competitive advantage to firms (Barney, 1991).

Human capital is transferable in nature and it is embodied in employees, who have the liberty to move from one firm to another, especially for employees with general human capital. Employees' willingness to

perform plays a crucial role in the contribution of human capital to a firm's performance. This viewpoint is in alignment with the AMO theory which states that a firm's performance is a function of ability of the employee, his motivation to work and opportunity provided by the organization to participate in work process (Boselie, 2010). Competitive advantage can be created by organizations through improving employees' ability, motivation and provide employees opportunities to involve in value creation, which will result in improved productivity and enhanced organizational performance.

### **2.1.6 Perspectives of Human Resource Management**

The four perspectives that describe the relationship between human resource and firm performance are universalistic, contingency, configurational and contextual (Huselid, 1995).

#### **2.1.6.1 The Universalistic Perspective**

According to universalistic perspective of HRM which is also known as the best practice approach, there exists a bundle of best HRM practices which can be implemented by any firm irrespective of industry, size, work force or product market and may lead to positive outcomes. Seminal research studies of Pfeffer (1994), Huselid (1995) and Wood & Albanese (1995) have established the empirical proof to support this view. But some researchers raised a separate opinion that this best practice approach is about the association between individual HRM practices and firm performance rather than the bundle of practices (Gooderham, Nordhaug&Ringdal, 2008). To support this viewpoint, they point out several individual practices like job rotation, quality circles and TQM that will enhance firm outcomes for all types of companies (Osterman, 1994).



For maximizing the impact of best practices, researchers suggest that human resource practices should be combined and work together (Delery & Doty, 1996; Gooderham et al., 2008). The blend of HRM practices which is called high performance work systems or high involvement work systems have been shown to have a positive impact on organizational effectiveness (Datta, Guthrie & Wright, 2005). The bundle of practices approach shares an important concern to be considered in the HRM - performance linkage. However, the greatest criticism faced by the universalistic approach is that it fails to consider the context in which these practices are used.

#### **2.1.6.2 The Contingency Perspective**

According to contingency perspective on HRM which is also known as best fit approach, the direction of the impact of HRM on firm performance will depend upon a firm's environmental conditions (Burns & Stalker, 1994; Thompson & Heron, 2005). Experts supporting contingency perspective question the best practices approach by stating that it may not be appropriate in all contexts and other approaches may have greater success in resulting in organizational performance. In this approach, HRM systems are made to fit to a number of contingencies including business strategy, competitive environment and national business systems (Youndt, et al., 1996; Truss, 2001).

The main criticism on the resource-based view of HRM is that it lacks definition of boundaries or the context in which it will hold (Priem & Butler, 2001). Researchers have brought to notice the lack of efforts made to establish the correct contexts for the Resource based view (Boxall & Purcell 2000). For overcoming the disapproval about boundary issues, firm's

resources and capability should be consistent with other aspects of the organization (Delery & Doty, 1996). Resources and capabilities bring value when they are applied to the context (Yang, 2005). The intervening effects of industry characteristics on HRM-performance linkage was well studied by Guthrie's (2001) work in New Zealand companies and research studies of Datta et al. (2005) which proved the validity of this perspective of HR.

### **2.1.6.3 Configurational Perspective**

The configurational argument highlights the visibility of interaction effects among HRM practices and their capacity to clarify at least some variation in dependent variable apart from any important effect of individual practices (Macky & Boxall, 2007). This has resulted in the investigation of a number of hypothesized bundles of HR practices in research studies (Delery & Doty, 1996; Arthur, 1994; MacDuffie, 1995; Huselid, 1995; Ichniowski, Shaw & Prensushi, 1997). Simultaneously, the configurational perspective stresses on the vertical or external fit of such bundles to the business circumstances of the firm. In a nutshell, the configurational approach adopts a holistic principle of inquiry and explores how patterns of manifold interdependent variables connect to a given dependent variable.

The configurational perspective is unmanageable to construct and this creates a lot of practical difficulties apart from creating fewer consensus upon theoretical framework. In reality, practical situation in organizations is very complex, which may still necessitate a more refined methodological approach to test and verify systems or bundles. The configurational debate is taken to the next level by Lepak & Snell (2002) when they stated that an individual organization may implement different HR configurations for a

subgroup of employees based on the difference between the human capital value and exclusivity of the subgroup within the organization. If the idea of configurations within an overarching architecture has to make valuable contributions to configurational perspective, it has to come out of infancy and should generate more empirical evidence (Delery, 1998).

#### **2.1.6.4 The Contextual Perspective**

The impact of context on HRM has always been a bone of contention for human resource theorists. The classic models recommended by Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills & Walton (1984) and many others were interested in a wide range of contextual factors. According to the findings of Jackson & Schuler (2007), internal and external environment of the organization has to be taken into account in order to understand HRM in context. According to some researchers, the contextual perspective gives a descriptive and universal explanation through a broader model, relevant to different situations. They take their argument ahead by stating that while the rest of the approaches at best taking the situation as a contingency variable, this perspective put forward an explanation that goes beyond the organizational level and blends the function in a macro-social framework with which it relates.

There is now an upcoming trend using the contextual perspective from empirical studies and a number of researchers suggest frameworks to direct researchers to adopt contextual studies (Jackson & Schuler, 2007; Paauwe, 2009). But there are many procedural and empirical challenges in adopting even small scale contextual studies in HRM even though the perspective is appealing and logical. Instead of analyzing external environment and the

organizational context as unidirectional contingency variables, this perspective considers it as a framework. According to Jackson & Schuler (2007), HRM studies that concentrate on contextual approach should look at more conceptual, fundamental dimensions of contexts, HRM systems and dimensions of employee's responses in order to develop the theory on HRM and performance.

### **2.1.7 Latest approaches to Human Resource Management**

To survive in the competitive world, Pfeiffer recommends firms to consider their workforce as a source of competitive advantage rather than a cost to be minimized and invest in practices that can train, retain, motivate and improve the human capital of an organization. This new paradigm has been referred to by theorists as high commitment / high involvement / high performance human resource management (Wood, 1999).

#### **2.1.7.1 High Performance Work Practices**

There is steady research evidence accumulating over the past two decades, which demonstrated the positive impact of High Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) on business performance (Wright, et al., 2005). The efficiency of HPWPs is said to be at peak when they function together as a refined and internally consistent system or bundle (MacDuffie, 1995). Significant investment has to be made by firms adopting these practices in realigning their various HR subsystems to reflect this high-performance emphasis. Conventional wisdom says that if HPWP have to be successfully adopted and provide an inimitable competitive advantage, they should be integrated with the firm's unique strategy and structure (Becker & Gerhart. 1996).

### **2.1.7.2 High Performance Work Systems**

In the literature on industrial relations and strategic human resource management, the concept of High Performance Work Systems (HPWSs) is no longer new. Through the following three interrelated, causal routes, HPWS practices contribute to betterment in employee performance and organizational performance : (a) by building employee skills and abilities (b) by increasing an employee's motivation for voluntary effort and(c) by giving employees the opportunity to make complete use of their competencies in the jobs (Cooke, 2001). Literature reviews of the HPWS concept pointed to a baffling array of definitions (Becker &Gerhart, 1996), much of this caused by theorists collecting lists of 'best practices' without developing an internal logic for their chosen system. Even though the group of practices needed is certainly dependent on industry and occupational contexts (Kalleberg Marsden, Reynolds & Knoke, 2006), at the crux of the dominant HPWS model is a process of developing higher levels of employee involvement in organizational settings. HPWS have been shown to be more effective than basic, traditional HRM practices in helping firms elicit improved individual productivity and firm performance in various contexts (Gong et al., 2011; Wei & Lau, 2010).

### **2.1.7.3 High Commitment Work Practices**

The three dimensions that exist in the high commitment organization literature are: 1) elevated relative skill requirements, 2) work built so that employees have the choice and opportunity to use their skills in connection with other workers, and 3) an incentive option to enhance commitment and motivation (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg & Kalleberg, 2000). High commitment

work practices have been widespread in the workplace because they generally improve organizational performance and promote positive employee attitudes. Many studies have recognized a relationship between high commitment HR practices and various organizational outcomes. For example, high commitment work practices were found to be positively connected to performance (Bae & Lawler, 2000), job satisfaction (Cohen & Bailey, 1997), turnover (Batt, 2000, Batt., 2002). Apart from that, Appelbaum et al. (2000) argued that High commitment work practices increased trust among workers and intrinsic rewards that have strong positive impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

#### **2.1.7.4 High Involvement Work System**

High involvement work system depicts an organizational design approach that has drawn the attention of both professionals and academicians in the past decade and is now widely used by Fortune 1000 companies (Lawler, Mohrman & Ledford, 1995). Studies done in this area have distinguished several interconnected core features of high involvement work systems such as empowerment, teamwork, performance facilitating work structures and performance based compensation. HIWS research has mainly concentrated on how it impacts productivity, quality, customer satisfaction and organizational performance with the overt intention of making a powerful business case for these practices. Recent trends in research prove that introduction of high involvement or high performance work systems in organizational contexts can bring in huge benefit (Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999). These systems produce positive outcomes such as hard working employees involved in responsible and smart work apart from resulting in tremendous changes in workplace practices and employee attitude.

### **2.1.8 Impact of HRM practices on Retention**

Recent studies point towards the fact that human resource management can play a significant role in retaining a high-quality workforce. Decreased turnover and absenteeism, better quality work, and enhanced financial performance have been proved to be the results of progressive HRM practices in training, compensation and reward sharing (Delaney & Huselid 1996; Ichniowski et al., 1997). Some studies state that many HR practices have to be managed congruently to ensure retention management of employees. These HRM practices are widely used by organizations for achieving retention and commitment (Beck, 2001; Clarke, 2001).

Employees are motivated to stay with the organization when they experience a feeling of being recognized and appreciated for their capabilities, efforts and performance contributions (Davies, 2001). Organizations achieve differentiation in their respective industries by introducing innovating compensation approaches. Apart from conventional compensation, intangible recognitions such as recognitions from management, team members and peers and the opportunity to engage in decision making can enhance the commitment of employees.

Organizations are currently acknowledging the importance of training and development of employees and consider it as a significant part of HRM (Oakland & Oakland, 2001). It has been purported that there is an inverse relationship that exist between levels of employee turnover and training: the higher the level of turnover, the lower the amount of training. This anticipation is based on the logic that the longer an employee stays with an employer, the return on investment for training and development program

will be relatively high. An empirical research done by Frazis, Gittleman, Horrigan&Joyce (1998) demonstrated that there is a difference of 41 percent in total training time spent by employees working in low turnover organizations compared to those in high turnover organizations.

It is the responsibility of the employer to stimulate employees with creative challenges and prevent them from going where the excitement is, be it another department, industry or organization. Employees tend to express negativity and lack of loyalty toward their employer when they feel that the firm failed to provide them with challenging and appealing work, autonomy to be creative, opportunities to develop new skills, and freedom and control (Davies, 2001). To be precise, employees are more likely to experience negative feelings and attitudes toward the organization when the promises related to freedom, growth, compensation and opportunities are breached.

## **2.2 High Involvement Work Processes**

Increased interest in different forms of inclusionary practices and processes among managers and researchers resulted from the realization that success partially stems from an emphasis on employee involvement practices and is essential to survival in this age of escalating global and domestic competition (Leana & Florkowski, 1992). Important stakeholders started accepting the fact that the best way to enhance organizational performance is by building a climate of employee involvement. This belief has paved way for many modern managerial practices, such as participative decision making, quality circles and gain sharing. Once introduced, these practices will lead to improved product or service quality, better innovation, bolstered employee motivation, increased speed of production and lesser



employee absenteeism and turnover (Lawler, 1996; Leana & Florkowski, 1992).

Likewise, in the past decade, different views and perspectives concerning the definition of involvement, how to construct involvement and how to operationalize involvement in research have evolved (Wagner, 1994). However, no individual approach to constructing involvement has evolved as the definitive approach. The approach to employee involvement applied in the present study is referred to as High Involvement Work Processes.

### **2.2.1 High Involvement Vs High Performance**

The term high involvement is chosen over the more popular label high performance because of multiple reasons. The first reason is that the HR processes and employee participation is well depicted by the term high involvement (Ledford, 1993; Ramsay, Scholarios & Harley, 2000; Vandenberg, Richardson & Eastman, 1999). In addition, this label improves flexibility as it permits for the chances of having employee-centered practices without subsuming organizational outcomes (Wall & Wood, 2005). Several researchers have suggested that high involvement better depicts the crucial role played by employees in achieving organizational effectiveness (Vandenberg et al., 1999; Wall & Wood, 2005).

The second reason is that, contrasting many earlier research studies (Arthur, 1994; Guthrie, 2001; Huselid, 1995), the focus of the present research is not ‘performance’; it is about the correlation between employees’ subjective understanding of the various human resource management practices used within their respective firm and individual

employee's work attitudes. Vandenberg et al. (1999) argued that HIWP relies on subjective beliefs. Recent researches show that the strength of subjective beliefs about events has more dominant influence over individuals' and organizational effectiveness than does objective assessments of those same events. According to the arguments put forward by Wood (1999) and Wall & Wood (2005), risk in using the term 'high performance management' is that it strengthens specific bundles of management practices before its outcomes are known. On the contrary, high involvement does not subsume outcomes, only processes, rendering it a less restrictive term.

Third, many researchers like for example, Becker & Huselid (1998) choose the term High Performance Work Processes to widen the focus away from employees' attitudes and commitment (Wood, 1999). Since the present study focuses on employee attitudes, perceptions, and commitment, but not outcomes, it would be inappropriate to use this term. Previous conceptions of high commitment / involvement (Beer, et al., 1984; Walton, 1985) relate these schemes with a control-oriented Human Resources Management strategy and many scholars argue that that including contingent based pay schemes requires a change of terminology from high commitment / involvement management to high performance. But the current trend agrees that appropriate performance-based-pay schemes such as team and organizational wide incentives can be successfully incorporated into models of High Performance Work Processes (Lawler et al., 1995, Vandenberg et al., 1999). To put it differently, the researcher in the present study is investigating the nature of High Involvement Work Processes from the employees' perspectives rather than that of their managers. It is for this

rationale that the term involvement rather than performance is a better descriptor of these systems.

### **2.2.2 High Involvement Processes Vs High Involvement Practices**

A large share of HIWP theoretical literature indicates that introduction of practices just serves as an obvious way for initiating the involvement process, and various intermediary processes are estimated to mediate between practice implementation and final outcomes (Becker & Huselid, 1998; Lawler, 1996; Vandenberg et al., 1999). Current experimental research across the literature also shows that practices are necessary but not adequate for achieving HIWP's desired ends (Wagner, 1994).

Extensive investigation done on the participation dimension of HIWP has repetitively confirmed that single involving practices have little significant influence on objective performance outcomes (Wagner, 1994). Apart from that, similar HIWP studies demonstrated that employees' perceptions that they are involved (i.e., that they experience a climate of involvement) mediate the relationship between practices and outcomes, and are more significant than practices in obtaining the benefits of HIWP (Vandenberg et al., 1999). From the above studies, it can be deduced that practices are only moderately responsible for building the perception among employees that they are involved.

Creation of a shared experience or climate of involvement among employees is considered by theory and research to be a significant intermediary process (Lawler, 1996; Vandenberg et al., 1999). Literature indicates that managers and their leadership behaviors have a pivotal role in intervening the relationship between practices, a climate of involvement,

and outcomes. Importance of managers in creating high involvement is acknowledged by many involvement theorists (Roberts, et al., 1968; Rodgers & Hunter, 1991; Runyon, 1973; Tesluk, Vance & Mathieu, 1999). According to the viewpoint adopted by Lawler (1996), efficient leadership accounts for a significant amount of the success of high-performance organizations because leadership is so important in defining the agenda of an organization, developing its values, and formulating its competencies.

In the broad picture of a process oriented model of HIWP, there are three categories of constructs: (a) practices, (b) processes, and (c) outcomes. Practices, which instigate the involvement sequence of incidents, represent any organizational practices, policies, or procedures implemented within an organization and expected to motivate or facilitate involvement. Initiatives such as quality circles, participative goal setting, and employee ownership plans (Cotton, Froggatt, Vollrath, Jennings & Lengnick-Hall, 1988); suggestion systems, self-managed work teams, and ongoing developmental training (Lawler et al., 1995); and decentralization, pay-for performance, and job rotation (MacDuffie, 1995) come under the broad term of involvement practices. The crucial role played by high involvement is stressed in existing literature and several authors argue that involving practices function as part of a synergistic system through which practices enhancing involvement serve to strengthen one another.

### **2.2.3 Relevance of High Involvement Work Processes.**

A superficial look at the literature falling under the general rubric of involvement shows that participative decision making is one form of involvement narrowly concentrated by majority of researches (Wagner,

1994). All these researches have exclusively operationalized participative decision making as the independent variable by identifying characteristic organizational level practices and then connecting these practices to productivity (Cotton et al., 1988). The role played by individual in involvement processes is only indirectly acknowledged by this approach of moving from organizational practices to the outcomes. The common notion is that organizational practices represent individual feelings toward involvement, and the individual's acceptance of those practices as guiding principles.

The reality is that this approach has not been an accurate test which would operationalize involvement through the individual. The characteristics of this type of operationalization are that it acknowledges the need for individual employees to perceive the existence of opportunity for involvement and the employee must support it by actually putting involvement into practice in his or her day-to-day work routine (Lawler, 1996). In a nutshell, a firm may have plenty of written policies regarding involvement, and top management may even assume that it is practiced, but these are insignificant until the individual perceives them as something significant to his or her organizational well-being.

The HIWP approach provides a feasible way of bringing the individual into the research picture. Relying heavily on the works of Galbraith (1973) and Lawler (1996), it is evident that HIWP approach does not assign itself to a particular program or practice, such as participative decision making or quality circles alone and its focus lies on four complementary attributes. These attributes are : (a) the power to perform and take decisions about job in

all its aspects; (b) information about processes, quality, customer response, event and business results; (c) rewards linked to business results and development in capability and contribution; and (d) knowledge of the work, the business, and the total work system (Lawler, 1996).

HIWP literature stresses a lot on whether the attributes are the exclusive privilege of only a few individuals in the firm or broadly distributed across all members of the organization (Lawler, 1996). According to Galbraith (1973), the four attributes of involvement such as power, information, reward, and knowledge (PIRK) is present in all organizations but are conventionally restricted to the individuals in the top of management and asserts that the mere existence of the attributes doesn't serve the purpose. For involvement to be high, the four attributes must be evenly distributed at all levels of the organization (Lawler, 1996) and employees must regard the PIRK attributes as operational characteristics of their jobs.

The main advantage of HIWP approach is that it avoids the pointless dissection that results from discussing over how much decision making one is allowed, over which array of topics and at the result of which type of intervention. Since HIWP completely relies on subjective beliefs, these needless arguments are alleviated. Based on studies done on similar beliefs, it is evident that power of subjective beliefs about incidents exerts a much more dominant influence over individuals' and organizational effectiveness than does objective assessments of those same incidents. Hence, even if a researcher identifies a range of involving practices in place within a firm, those practices will have little impact unless the relevant individuals manifest them in some form and put them to practice in their own ways.

The theoretical positive influence of HIWP on organizations allows them to take advantage of their human capital by both building it and actively connecting it to the firm's performance. Since competitors can imitate similar policies, procedures, and technologies, the leverage created by organizations out of various non-human resources may be short lived (Barney, 1991). The benefits gained out of leveraging human capital are supposed to be more important, rare, and hard to imitate, and hence, offer a sustainable advantage (Jackson & Schuler, 1995; Koch & McGrath, 1996).

In highly stable manufacturing industries where the nature of work restricts redesign to provide employees more power and they necessarily have little control over the quantity and quality of their production, HIWP might not be very effective (Lawler, 1996). On the contrary, implementation of HIWP will directly benefit organizations operating in very dynamic environments where employee flexibility and up-to-date knowledge are vital. Firms operating in technology industry or those that rely heavily on knowledge-based work falls under this category

Lawler's influential research on High-Involvement Management summed up the issue of how HIWP maximizes human capital. When people participate in goal setting and obtaining information about their performance, two things happen. Firstly, they set goals that they think are attainable. Secondly, their self-esteem and competence becomes tied for achieving the goals and therefore they are also highly motivated to achieve them (Lawler, 1996).

## **2.2.4 Theoretical foundation for High Involvement Work Processes**

### **2.2.4.1 Social Cognitive Theory**

Social Cognitive Theory gives a powerful theoretical foundation supporting the cognitive influence of HIWP. Since participation in decision making improves the information flow and use of important information in organizations, Miller & Monge (1986) recommend it as a vital strategy based on the cognitive models of participative effects. According to the research done by Eylon & Bamberger (2000), self belief in one's competence is an important cognition in employee involvement. Review of related literature (Ritchie & Miles, 1970; Miller & Monge, 1986) points to the fact that involvement of employees in their work enhances not only competence but more importantly self belief in that competence.

### **2.2.4.2 Cognitive Evaluation Theory**

Deci (1971) proposed the Cognitive Evaluation Theory which states that employees who are intrinsically motivated have an internal locus of control wherein individuals attribute the causes of their behavior to their inner needs and will work for contentment and intrinsic benefits. On the other hand, certain aspects of the circumstance such as the reward process or the feedback mechanism may lead an employee to question the intrinsic causes of behavior. Circumstances that persuade individuals to see themselves as competent should be created to maximize intrinsic motivation. Therefore, HIWP create situations in which workers can recognize themselves as proficient since they are offered with not only power but adequate training and information to perform their jobs satisfactorily.



#### **2.2.4.3 Human Capital Theory**

Human capital theory is based on the philosophy that people in the organization are adding value by improving efficiency via their enhanced skills and knowledge, thus, representing capital to the firm. Because of the organization or job-specific nature of human capital in terms of developing knowledge, skills and abilities, these are imperative to be successful in an organization. It is well said by Huselid (1995) that value created to the organization can be directly linked to the firm's tangible product, or indirectly through participating in decisions and solving problems. Improvement and expansion of experience, knowledge and skills of the employees in an organization and enabling them to utilize these skills are crucial for creating an ambiance of HIWP. One important outcome of a climate of HIWP is the enhanced confidence in one's ability to solve problems (Huselid, 1995).

#### **2.2.4.4 Enactment Theory**

The relevance of enactment theory (Weick, 1988) comes out of the premise that individuals have to make meaning of their surroundings especially the many constraints that may exist within organizations. The main aim of HIWP is to dispel these constraints by handing over the power, information, rewards and knowledge to the respective individual so that they can effectively carry out their duties as employees. Similar to human capital theory that supports investing directly in employees, enactment theory focuses on investing in processes that removes constraints away from people and allows them to capitalize on their potential in the work

atmosphere. By providing a context for the overall efficiency and operation of HIWP at the individual level, both theories have proved to be effective.

### **2.2.5 Definition of High Involvement Work Processes**

According to Vandenberg et al. (1999), involvement attributes as High Involvement Work Processes. High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) has to be differentiated from High Performance Work Practices or High Involvement Work Practices (Guthrie, Spell & Nyamori, 2002) - which are synonymous with specific bundle of HR practices. Formal and sanctioned job activities that assist an organization to achieve its objectives – such as training and performance appraisal come under the purview of practices. The resultant experience of involvement in the work atmosphere is termed as processes.

Based on research done by Lawler (1992), involvement is a management perspective that takes the dimensions of power, information, rewards, and knowledge to the lowest level in an organization. The power element of High Involvement Work Processes refers to the power to act and take decisions about work in all its aspects. Information about processes, quality, customer response, events and commercial outcomes is defined as Information element of High Involvement Work Processes. Rewards element of High Involvement Work Processes refers to rewards tied to organizational results and growth in capability and contribution. Knowledge of the job, of the business, and of the total work environment is defined as knowledge element of High Involvement Work Processes (Lawler, 1992). HIWP expands this universal definition by asking workers as to how much of each of these dimensions they experience in their work (Vandenberg et al., 1999).

Lawler and colleagues referred to HIWP as constructive changes in employee attitudes and behavior that are thought to be materialized through a process of involving employees in aspects of decision making that have been traditionally kept aside for top management (Leana, Ahlbrandt & Murrell, 1992). An integrated system of involvement that is found across the firm's management systems, processes, and structures and at all sections of the organizational ladder are captured through this approach to involvement. Another traditional definition of HIWP describes it as a bundle of organization-wide system of mutually reinforcing processes that try to positively affect institutional efficiency by leveraging on an organization's human capital through the involvement of workforce in organizational activities and decisions. An atmosphere of involvement which is characterized by the perception of workers throughout a unit or organization as they have high levels of PIRK is the most widely used conceptualization of experience of involvement (Lawler, 1992).

#### **2.2.6 Key assumptions and theoretical premises of High Involvement Work Processes**

Based on the research done by Galbraith (1973), Lawler (1992) defined the components of PIRK as: (a) Power to make or influence decisions about the work in all its aspects; (b) Information about processes, quality, customer feedback, events and business results; (c) Rewards tied to business results and personal growth in terms of capability and contribution; (d) Knowledge of the job, the industry and the total work system. The most significant characteristic of Lawler's theoretical premises is the need for all of the PIRK components to be operationalized concurrently down to the grass root levels of the organization.

Lawler (1986) stated that power in the absence of knowledge, information and rewards may lead to poor decisions. Employees will be frustrated when they are unable to use their expertise because of information and knowledge without power. Rewards for firm's performance without power, knowledge and information results in frustration and de-motivation because people cannot influence their reward. Information, knowledge and power without rewards for better firm performance can be hazardous since people may not exercise their power in ways that will contribute to organizational effectiveness.

Apart from embodying a bundle of organizational practices, PIRK represents the experience of involvement as manifested in a climate or culture that evolves when employees recognize high levels of all four PIRK attributes and, thus they are highly involved (Lawler. 1992). The core idea behind the concept is that workers should realize their opportunities for involvement and then practice involvement in their daily work activities, building a culture or climate in which involvement is the norm and that conveys to employees certain attitudes and behaviors (Vandenberg et al., 1999). Synergistic characteristics of PIRK attributes cause the climate of high involvement to occur only when employees concurrently experience and take benefit of all the four attributes. This signifies that true high involvement happens only when employees are provided with the experience of all the four PIRK attributes.

Relying heavily on theories proposed by Galbraith, one important characteristic of a climate of high involvement is that PIRK exists in all organizations. An organization with strong HIWP permits the spread and

experience of PIRK to the grass root levels whereas those without strong HIWP restrict it as the privilege of top management. Lawler has depicted the allocation of PIRK across an organization as an omnipresent climate in a HIWP organization (Lawler, 1996). To put it in simple words, involvement in an organization will be successful when all employees, especially general employees experience involvement as a usual way of operating within the organization.

According to Lawler, distribution of PIRK across an organization is impossible by relying on one form of organizational mechanism such as pay-for-performance practices or quality circles. Lawler distinguished a system of involvement and participative management by stating that creation of new work systems, policies, procedures, practices, and organizational designs - in effect, the creation of a new type of organization is imperative for achieving high involvement (Lawler, 1992). Lawler also claimed that there must be fit among these things and even though the means for achieving fit may differ, the end result will be the same. It can therefore be deduced from the concept of different forms of fit that for creating a successful HIWP organization, there is no one template.

Effectiveness of implementing HIWP happens when other organizational practices are aligned with them (Lawler, 1996). Therefore, organizations implementing HIWP must also build matching business strategies, selection practices, and promotion policies for creating a climate of involvement. For example, an organization trying to introduce a strategy of innovation may face difficulty in achieving the same if rewards systems within the organization are not changed to reward innovative employee behaviors.

## **2.2.7 Individual PIRK Attributes**

### **2.2.7.1 Power**

According to the conventional definition of power, it is the authority of employees to act and make decisions about work in all of its aspects. Lawler (1996) had stated that this authority facilitated employees in influencing important organizational decisions. Decisions taken by employees include work methods, involving in business strategy decisions, and coordinate work with each other (Lawler, 1996). The idea of power is popular in participation literature and the terms “involvement” and “participation” are often used synonymously (Dachler & Wilpert, 1978; Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Wagner, 1994).

The focus of Lawler was on a bottom up approach to management which is achieved by shifting decision making to grass root levels of the organization and requires a management philosophy that emphasizes sharing and accountability (Lawler, 1992). The focal area of involvement research on power revolves around power sharing practices, such as quality circles, union-management, quality work life committees, survey feedback, suggestion systems, and other participative groups; as well as more direct forms which consist of job enrichment or redesign, self-managing work teams, task forces and policy/strategy committees, and mini business units (Lawler et al., 1995). The processual approach stresses the experience of the individual as being crucial to comprehend HIWP in an organization (Vandenberg et al., 1999).

In a nutshell, the majority of literature exploring the connection between power and outcomes has operationalized power via only a single

mechanism or practices such as quality circles. In reality, organizations tend to use several approaches in combination rather than using only one mechanism to provide power (Ledford, 1993). Evidence from a study done by Lawler (1992) attempting to examine the joint effects of multiple power-sharing practice points towards the fact that multiple practices may have greater effects than single practices.

### **2.2.7.2 Information**

Intelligence about processes, quality, customer feedback and business results can be defined as information. Employees understand business when information is disseminated throughout an organization and will have a better understanding about firm strategy, how it is doing, and who their customers and competitors are (Lawler, 1996). The important aspect of the information attribute lies in the fact that the absence of significant unit and organizational information makes the employees handicapped in understanding the business and will not be in a position to contribute to its success. To reap better business results, sharing of key business information to employees and top management is necessary so that they could make sound organizational decisions (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996).

Research done by Drucker (1988) establishes evidence stating that intelligible data is vital to the effective functioning of organizations. This is critical for motivated employees who make decisions matching organizational strategies, gives vertical operational intelligence and participate in decision making in meaningful ways (Miller & Monge, 1986; Scully, et al., 1995). Clarity of purpose of behavior can be achieved by employees when precise

information is passed on and it provides feedback critical to learning and the development of self-efficacy (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

In a nutshell, conclusions regarding the attribute of information fundamentally reflect those for power. Present research has examined information-sharing in the context of multiple information-sharing practices and general human resource practices whereas very less research has been carried out regarding single information-sharing practices. In the light of research done in the past decade, it can be deduced that information is related to performance outcomes, but primarily when it is used in conjunction with a variety of other practices. Similar to participatory research, information research only considers the presence or absence of given practices and has basically neglected the issue of whether employees experience or perceive that they have been provided with the information necessary for them to perform at high levels.

### **2.2.7.3 Rewards**

Reward aspect of HIWP takes an additional dimension of appreciation for personal development in terms of growth in capability and potential future contribution apart from the traditional rewarding of employees for their performance. Success of business is the most important criteria for rewarding individuals in HIWP organizations. Employees own the organization and what is beneficial for the business should be beneficial for them (Lawler, 1996). The reward programs which consist of gain sharing and employee stock option plans reviewed as part of the participation literature are ones in which employees are considered as part owners of their firms.



The important aspect of rewards is that they have to be linked to performance, aligned with organizational goals, be seen as attainable and be valued by the employee (Lawler, 1986). The rewards are both intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic rewards consist of feelings of achievement and self-worth, experienced through employees being involved in important work decisions and extrinsic rewards are through remunerative practices. According to Lawler, commitment is improved through the alignment of personal and organizational goals. He firmly believed that both team-based rewards and rewards for skills held by the individual can be used together if properly managed (Lawler & Ledford, 1987).

We can narrow down the conclusions regarding the reward literature as similar to those of both power and information. Based on research, it is found that reward attribute alone will not substantially influence either attitudinal or performance outcomes. But when an organization employs a bundle of practices such as multiple ownership, performance-based, and skill based reward practices in conjunction with other supportive human resource practices, rewards are much more likely to significantly influence attitudinal and performance outcomes. The impact of rewards as part of a climate of involvement on outcomes remain unclear since research has failed to examine the extent to which employees acknowledge that they are rewarded for business and personal performance and skill development (Lawler et al., 1995).

#### **2.2.7.4 Knowledge**

Employee's comprehension or understanding regarding the work, the business, and the total work system is defined as knowledge. The idea of

knowledge rests on the assumption that employees need the right knowledge and skills to be productive at work and efficiently participate in influencing the outcomes of their organizations (Lawler et al., 1995). Employees who have knowledge are competent enough in performing at the level that the organization requires. In organizations seeking to implement high involvement, training and development programs are a unique way for developing knowledge. In firms where employees have to work in teams, solve problems, and manage themselves, training and development must be a continuous, rigorous process (Lawler, 1996).

Employees can see the big picture only when they know their jobs and the operation of the organization. They can effectively participate in decision-making when technical knowledge is integrated with a broader firm perspective. Multi-skilling and an extensive knowledge of other functional areas, is critical in being able to function efficiently in a flatter organization. Bottle necking in production can be avoided if employees can move to busy areas in times of peak workloads. Job rotation will expand the skill base of the employees and help them in equipping themselves for future challenges. Team dynamics, absence management and stimulation of innovation can be influenced by increasing mobility supported by multi-skilled employees (Lawler, 1996; MacDuffie, 1995).

If the context of other human resource practices is ignored, knowledge-provision initiatives have little influence on attitudinal and performance outcomes. These purported links become strong when knowledge practices are considered in conjunction with other human resource practices or when organizations take various steps to guarantee knowledge provision. However, it is difficult to conclude whether these practices actually

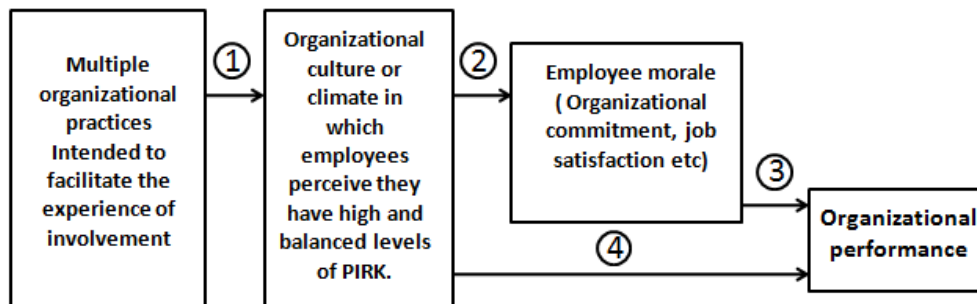
facilitate the employee experience of knowledge and whether this experience is also related to attitudinal and performance outcomes (Lawler, 1996).

To summarize, HIWP studies have mainly shown that (a) all four PIRK attributes are essential in order for high involvement and its outcomes to happen and (b) the link between perceptions of PIRK and organizational outcomes is stronger than the link between certain practices and organizational outcomes (Lawler et al., 1995; Riordan & Vandenberg, 1999; Vandenberg et al., 1999). Thus, the following conclusion about HIWP can be drawn:

- Apart from the utilization of involving practices, a holistic conceptualization of involvement also includes the climate of involvement that exists within an organization and the experience of involvement by employees throughout an organization.
- Based on Lawler's writings and existing research (Vandenberg et al., 1999), it is evident that one way of capturing a climate of involvement is through employees' perceptions of the PIRK attributes.
- Collective performance outcomes can be impacted through a climate of involvement, either directly or indirectly through employee attitudes, and
- A climate of involvement intervenes the relationship between involving practices and attitudinal and performance outcomes.

Figure 2.1 explains the role of HIWP in creating organizational performance. According to the studies of (Vandenberg et al., 1999),

multiple organizational practices implemented by the organization with an intention to facilitate the experience of involvement is the starting point of the entire process. This leads to an organizational culture or climate in which employees perceive that they have high and balanced level of PIRK. This climate increase employee morale which is the sum total of various constructs like organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1999) and this ultimately leads to organizational performance.



**Research supporting each path**

①	②	③	④
Vandenberg et al., (1999)	Cohen et al., (1999) Ledford & Moherman (1993) Riordan & Vandenberg (1999) Spreitzer et al., (1997) Vandenberg et al., (1999)	Riordan & Vandenberg (1999) Vandenberg et al (1999)	Cohen et al., (1999) Ledford & Moherman (1993) Riordan & Vandenberg (1999) Spreitzer et al., (1997) Vandenberg et al., (1999)

Source: Richardson, H.A. (2001). Exploring the mechanism through which High Involvement Work Processes result in group level performance outcomes, Georgia University.

**Figure 2.1.** Research supporting the impact of High Involvement Work Processes

### **2.2.8 Paths of influence of High Involvement Work Processes**

Studies done by Vandenberg and colleagues considered the PIRK attributes as a synergistic set and as perceived by employees in terms of a climate or culture of high involvement. Their research depicted that PIRK can be measured as a mutually reinforcing set of attributes that demonstrate a climate of involvement, and it also provided an important means for explaining how a climate of involvement affect attitudinal and performance outcomes. Riordan & Vandenberg (1999) have put forward a model which suggests that performance outcomes are affected via two paths of influence: (a) a motivation path (also referred to as the “working harder” path), and (b) a cognitive path (also referred to as the “working smarter” path).

#### **2.2.8.1 Motivational path of High Involvement Work Processes**

Human relations school of thought is considered as the source of motivational, path (Miller & Monge, 1986; McGregor, 1960). This path is based on the premise that employees' work responsibility, the meaningfulness of their work, and opportunities for self-expression can be enhanced using involvement. This path proposes that the higher order needs of the employees are fulfilled with the help of involvement. This fulfillment transcends into employee morale and motivation, and happy, motivated workers are more likely to exhibit improved performance (Miller & Monge, 1986).

The evolution of this model can be attributed to the theory proposed by Argyris that suggested involving work can be useful to the individual and the organization. HIWP produces the purported benefits to the individual and the organization through the creation of work situations that are both

intrinsically motivating and that provide appropriate extrinsic rewards. Employees usually experience enhancement in organizational commitment and job satisfaction with the creation of these types of situations (Miller & Monge, 1986). The motivational model argues that the four elements of HIWP will create a positive work environment to produce intrinsic motivation and enhanced morale. According to Riordan and Vandenberg (1999), the power element fulfills the needs for accountability, feedback and independence, the knowledge and information elements fulfill the need for facilitation and the reward element fulfills the needs for support and recognition.

HIWP's consistency with models including the motivation and cognitive paths was well supported by Lawler (1986). Particularly, he argued that the high involvement approach accepts both human relations and human resource assumptions and takes them further. Lawler strongly affirmed that involved employees get really committed to work, come up with their own valuable ideas and knowledge, and can take higher quality decisions. He stated that the individual-level benefits linked with these things may positively influence organizational effectiveness.

#### **2.2.8.2 Cognitive path of High Involvement Work Processes.**

The basic hypothesis for the cognitive path of influence is that involvement enhances employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities, and that they often have more holistic knowledge than management of how to do their jobs (Latham, Winters & Locke, 1994; Scully, Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1995). Therefore, involvement permits employees to work smarter than they would otherwise because it makes use of their knowledge, skills, and

abilities in quality decision making and find out the ways to work more efficiently and effectively. Involvement avoids the scenario of all the significant decisions restricted to top management and ensures that those who have the ability to make decisions are the ones who are given decision-making authority—regardless of their organizational rank. Through involvement, employees together add greater value to the organization by providing input on critical organizational decisions.

In the cognitive path, attitudinal outcomes, such as satisfaction, are secondary. Based on the studies done by Miller & Monge (1986), it was found that effects of Cognitive path advocates the use of involvement in decision making as an important strategy because it improves the information flow and use of significant information in organizations. Organizations will make high quality decisions on a consistent basis when they rely on involvement to effectively disseminate and use information. According to Ritchie and Miles(1970), the cognitive impact of involvement on organizational outcomes is basically concerned with the use of subordinates' competencies (Ritchie & Miles, 1970). Therefore, cognitive path is beneficial in enhancing employee and organizational performance by utilizing their expertise in issues in which they are knowledgeable and interested (Miller & Monge, 1986).

Many researchers (Leana & Florkowski, 1992; Miller & Monge, 1986) have pointed out that enhancement in an employee's involvement in his/her work results in higher quality services and products because the employee is more knowledgeable of the day to day problems within an organization, better than the top management. It suggests that a climate of

HIWP leads to betterment in the confidence level of employees' in their abilities. Maximization of the knowledge, skills and abilities of workers is a precondition for HIWP to work and it helps in increasing the workforce's confidence in this acquired human capital.

### 2.2.9 Models of High Involvement Work Processes

Review of literature of HIPW is rich with a lot of models and the most significant five models are: (First Order Factor Model, Second Order Factor Model, OME (Opportunity, Motivation, and Skill) Participation Model, Strategic and Technical HRM Model, and the Skill, Job Design, and compensation model. A brief summary of all the five models of High Involvement Work Processes is given in table 2.1.

**Table 2.1.** Models of High Involvement Work Processes

Model name	Author	Description of model
HIWP First Order Factor Model	Zacharatos et al. (2005)	All eight HR practices (i.e., employee security, selective hiring, contingent compensation, extensive training, reduced status distinctions, information sharing and transformational leadership) load onto one first order construct labelled High Involvement Work Processes.
HIWP second Order Factor Model	Vandenberg et al. (1999)	All eight HR practices (same as above) load onto their respective first order latent constructs. These first order constructs then load onto a second order construct labelled High Involvement Work Processes.
OME Participation Model	Bailey et al. (2001)	The Opportunity to Participate Bundle includes information sharing, reduced status distinctions and teams. The Motivation to Participate Bundle includes contingent compensation, employment security and transformational leadership. The Effective Skills to Participate Bundle includes extensive training and selective hiring.
Strategic and Technical HRM	Huselid et al. (1997)	The Strategic HRM Bundle includes teams, employment security, reduced status distinctions,



Model		information sharing and transformational leadership. The Technical HRM Bundle includes selective hiring, contingent compensation and extensive training.
Skill, Job Design and Compensation Model	Patterson et al. (2004)	The Skill Enhancement Bundle includes selective hiring and extensive training. The Job Design Bundle includes reduced status distinction, teams, transformational leadership, information sharing and employment security. The Compensation Bundle comprise of contingent compensation.

### 2.2.10 Antecedents of High Involvement Work Processes

Literature rejects the spontaneous rise of involvement. A bundle of business practices must drive the existence and continued reinforcement of involvement (Ledford & Lawler, 1994; Pill & MacDuffie, 1996). Apart from attributing the synergy among many practices for creation of an involving environment, HIWP literature has been quite hazy as to how this is achieved (Lawler, 1996). To discover an initial set of business practices, the focus has directed towards research on high performance work systems which has concentrated on groups of HR practices (Arthur, 1994; Pfeffer, 1994), and on participative decision making (Cotton et al., 1988; Wagner, 1994). Five categories of such practices are: (a) work design (b) incentive practices (c) flexibility (d) training opportunities and (a) direction setting.

#### 2.2.10.1 Work design

Drawing insights from the innumerable employee interviews carried out during the course of his research, Lawler (1996) stated that there was one topic that always came up: the nature of the work that employees do. This forced him to suggest that there should be a transition of work design from the traditional, control-oriented view which restricts jobs to a fixed set of tasks outlined in job descriptions. The most effective way to achieve

involvement is by challenging employees to adapt to a changing environment and empowering them to decide how their work should best be undertaken (Neal & Tromley, 1995). Lawler recommended job enrichment as an approach for achieving this type of work design. It suggested that jobs should be meaningful, empower employees with control, and provide adequate feedback as an approach for achieving this type of work design. This is well supported by studies done by many authors who have included work design, performance feedback and self-organized work teams in their conception of high performance work processes (Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995, Huselid et al., 1997; MacDuffie, 1995).

#### **2.2.10.2 Incentive practices**

In Participative Decision Making (PDM) literature, incentives were considered as ways of enhancing employee attitudes and performance (Lawler & Jenkins, 1992). The current model of high involvement affirms that incentive practices must facilitate the mechanisms for providing power, information, and knowledge, as well as employees' perceptions that they are being compensated for the judicious use of power, information, and knowledge. The balance between individual and team incentives is a prerequisite for a climate of involvement. Individual performance-based incentives stresses on personal accountability and team based incentives facilitate employee interaction and the tangential exchange of information (Lawler, 1996; Neal et., al, 1995; Pfeffer, 1995). They also help in reducing disruptive worker competition and increase teamwork among them. A blend of long- and short-term incentives facilitates in keeping works focused on organizational objectives while reinforcing their motivation and hard work. Irrespective of the combination of rewards chosen, the involving nature of

the incentive system must not be restricted only to the top management and should be perceived throughout the organization by lower level employees. Therefore, the current study includes not only the company, individual, team, long-term, and short-term-based incentive practices as possible antecedents of high involvement but also the levels at which these incentives are offered.

### **2.2.10.3 Flexibility**

Practices related to flexibility can also be considered as an unconventional form of incentive. The motivational model suggests that even though involvement demands hard work from employees, they do so since it allows them to fulfill their own higher order needs. But there remains a possibility for increased involvement to be viewed negatively since it also increases conflicts with employees' outside lives. By giving personal decision-making power to the employees through options, the commitment-robbing conflicts can be minimized and the involvement system can be reinforced. A study done by Kossek & Nichol (1992) concluded that the existence of an on-site childcare facility can significantly affect employees' attitudes and membership behaviors by liberating them from worries regarding childcare problems during work hours. Apart from considering provision of flexibility as a tool for motivation, it directly relates to the provision of power, particularly the power to decide when and how work should be done. The advantage of flexible time, telecommuting, and part-time tracks is that it allows employees to work around schedule of their dependants, opt the hours when they are most productive, and to manage their work in the way they feel is most effective. Job sharing, a unique form of flexibility promotes knowledge and skill diffusion as well as

a comprehensive understanding of the overall organization. Vertical hierarchy that restricts the development of organization-wide involvement can be reduced by implementing flexibility practice such as telecommuting and flextime (Lawler, 1996).

#### **2.2.10.4 Training opportunities**

Different training programs will be crucial in creating an environment in which important information is freely communicated and employees perceive lot of opportunities of self development (Koch & McGrath, 1996). Training helps in building organization specific human assets which are strongly linked to an organization's core competencies (Pralhad & Hamel, 1990). Thus, as the advantages of training accumulate over time, they become part of the group of practices that can drive firm performance. Various types of training can play a significant role in building and reinforcing high involvement work processes. For the success of involvement in an organization, they must utilize training to display their commitment to employees and the extent to which they consider employee contributions since involvement requires employees to gain new skills they did not have or need previously (Marchington, Wilkinson, Ackers & Goodman, 1994). Training in problem solving skills is essential to effectively handle power and complex decision-making environments. Lawler (1992) argued that empowerment training facilitates employees in perceiving power attribute as positive and take advantage of power with ease. Since implementation of involvement is a demanding procedure, training is a good tool for providing employees with knowledge and information regarding stress, change, and performance management. Training in these areas further reinforces positive perceptions of involvement.

#### **2.2.10.5 Direction sharing**

The basic assumption of the model proposed in the study is that workers in high involvement organizations work harder and more efficiently compared to employees working in less involving organizations. If the efforts are channelized in the wrong direction, it will act against the organization and will result in disappointment for employees and managers alike. Therefore, good mechanisms must be in place that conveys the organization's intended direction or goals to the workers and each employee should have clarity regarding the connection between his job and the organization's goals (Lawler, 1992). Significant direction-sharing practices that reinforce involvement include development plans and conveying lucid performance objectives for each employee. These formal plans convey to workers the knowledge that they must obtain to effectively accomplish their roles within the organization. At the same time, these practices harmonize incentive practices by setting criteria on which to base incentives.

#### **2.2.11 Outcomes of High Involvement Work Process**

The broad range of outcomes of involvement includes improvements in productivity and quality, employee motivation, lesser work force alienation, encouraging changes in employee attitudes, lesser resistance to change, improved employee development, information sharing between organizational levels, and enhanced employer-employee relations (Leana & Florkowski, 1992). Many studies were quoted by Glew (1995) that linked participation to decreased absenteeism and intention to quit, lowering turnover, lesser grievances, lower cost of performance, lesser injury rates, reduced number of accidents, and enhancement in quality of work life.

Brady (1989) attributed involvement with enhanced work environments, job satisfaction, increase in the number of recommendations for work improvements, decrease in scrap waste, and positive personal outcomes including higher levels of pride and self-confidence, and reduced stress.

The broad claims of Lawler (1991) about the impact of HIWP included better quality products and services, reduced absenteeism, fewer turnover, improved decision making, and better problem solving, in short superior organizational effectiveness. According to Riordan and Vandenberg (1999), HIWP exerts influences upon a number of individual level variables, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions, which they jointly referred to as employee morale. They also observed that the increase in morale is directly impacting organizational effectiveness. However, Riordan & Vandenberg (1999) stated that a precedent for such claims already existed in the participation / involvement literature in the form of a motivational model of influence (Latham, Winters & Locke, 1994; Miller & Monge, 1986).

According to McGregor (1960), the need satisfaction model connects different forms of involvement to outcomes through effective mechanisms (Miller & Monge, 1986). In particular, the motivational model forecasts that one way through which involvement enhances organizational effectiveness is by improving worker's satisfaction and other affective reactions. The act of keeping employees informed and continual chances for self-improvement will facilitate even lower level employees to begin to satisfy higher order needs. These needs will be further satisfied by facilitating employees with the autonomy and accountability in connection with power, as well as by

compensating employees for using their power and seeking greater knowledge and information. Need fulfillment also stimulates generally higher levels of morale (Macy, 1989; Miller & Monge, 1986). In turn, this improved morale results in better organizational-level performance because employees can work hard to fulfill their own needs and achieve organizational goals (French, 1960).

Riordan & Vandenberg (1999) stated that apart from the wide claims concerning HIWP, there was also anticipation for a straight influence of HIWP on organizational-level variables such as turnover, productivity, and financial performance. Again, the authors demonstrated that the precedence for such straight effects already existed in what has been referred to as a cognitive model of influence (Leana & Florkowski, 1992; Miller & Monge, 1986; Scully, et al., 1995). Within the cognitive model of influence, HIWP allows organizations to take better advantage of the skills and abilities their employees already possess and assumes that workers know the most about how to perform their jobs. Therefore, performance will be better than when employees' actions are controlled by someone with less relevant experience or knowledge (Latham et al., 1994). Again, involvement is expected to constantly encourage individual knowledge, skills, and experience, assets that have straight economic worth to organizations because they permit the organization to be productive and adaptable (Flamholtz & Lacey, 1981; Jackson & Schuler, 1995).

#### **2.2.12 Limitations of previous research on High Involvement Work Processes**

Even though the connection between the use of High Involvement Work Processes and performance is well supported by the literature, the studies, to date, have a number of limitations. First, previous research

(Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Vandenberg et al., 1999) has mainly concentrated on self-report measures obtained only from senior managers about the types of management practices prevalent in their firm. Undoubtedly, senior managers are in a position to report on the prevalence of their own human resource practices. By sidelining workers in the process, important information is neglected. To be precise, it is the worker's experiences of the prevalent HR practices that will likely decide their subsequent attitudes and behavior. For example, if a worker perceives the improper implementation of teamwork, it is likely that this practice will not be as strongly related to organizational outcomes.

Lack of consistency between research studies of the types of practices innate in High Involvement Work Processes is another major limitation in the existing literature. Researchers have recommended using a series of approaches, including fair treatment of organizational members, training, performance linked compensation that is equitable and just, investment in recruiting and selecting people with the best fit to the organization, and focuses on teamwork. As suggested in the research cited above, the studies to date has operationalized High Involvement Work Processes in so many different ways and using so many measures, that it is still vague what is meant by high involvement work Processes (Wall & Wood, 2005). So the lack of clarity still remains and more studies are required in this direction.



## **2.3 Job Satisfaction**

### **2.3.1 Relevance of Job Satisfaction**

It is widely acknowledged that job satisfaction is one of the most widely investigated variables in the area of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (Visser & Coetzee, 2005; Coetzee, 2004; Buitendach & De Witte, 2005). The justification behind this considerable focus given to job satisfaction can be credited to four factors. Firstly, in a highly competitive market where optimal performance is mandatory for existence, employee job satisfaction becomes a significant issue with which organizations continue to struggle. Even though the relationship between job satisfaction and performance has given inconsistent results, there is a general agreement that job satisfaction factors do affect the amount of satisfaction that employees derive and ultimately, their job performance (Chambers, 1999; Schleicher, Watt & Greguras, 2004).

The second reason for researchers giving unnecessary importance to job satisfaction is because of the fact that strong relationship exists between job satisfaction and withdrawal behaviors such as attrition, absenteeism, psychological distress and lateness (Lease, 1998; Organ, 1991; Price & Mueller, 1981; Scott & Taylor, 1985). Thirdly, Kreitner and Kinicki (1992) argued the impact that job satisfaction has on employees and its link with their physical and psychological wellbeing (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992; Landy, 1989; Vecchio, 1988). Researches done by Locke (1976) and Hoole & Vermeulen (2003) emphasized the most common outcomes of job satisfaction in terms of its effects on physical fitness, longevity and psychological wellbeing. Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza (2000) stated that job

satisfaction is one of the three most important antecedents of overall well-being which alone provides a strong case for the importance of studying job satisfaction.

A major change that is happening from manufacturing to service industries in the majority of countries is one reason for the extensive study of job satisfaction. Studies done by Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza (2000) have revealed that a straight and significant positive relationship has been shown to exist between employee and customer satisfaction in service firms. From the literature cited above, it is evident that no firm can afford to neglect the significance of job satisfaction. Boshoff & Higson-Smith (1995) have clearly pointed out in the research that for the long term survival and development of an organization, the efficient utilization of its human resources is crucial. It is an established fact that job satisfaction can play a dynamic role in the optimization of this important resource.

### **2.3.2 Definition of Job Satisfaction**

Classic definitions describe job satisfaction as a positive emotional response and experience resulting from the evaluation of one's work (Pavelka et al., 2014). Job satisfaction is universally considered as an employee's perception of, and attitude towards the job and the job environment. Aamodt (1999) defined job satisfaction as an attitude employees have towards their jobs. Greenberg and Baron (2000) termed job satisfaction as an employees' positive or negative attitude toward their jobs. Hirschfeld (2000) considered job satisfaction as the extent to which people like their jobs. Moorhead & Griffen (1998) detailed on these definitions by stating that job satisfaction is a positive attitude held by workers while job

dissatisfaction results in negative attitude. Dipboye, Smith & Howell (1994) expressed their opinion on job satisfaction by arguing that it is an attitude which is relatively stable and is formed mainly by interpersonal and social processes in the working atmosphere.

Three important dimensions of Job Satisfaction are acknowledged by all the common definitions of job satisfaction specified in the literature (Luthans, 1992). Firstly, job satisfaction may be considered as an emotional or affective reaction. Kreitner & Kinicki (1992) depicted job satisfaction as an emotional response towards various dimensions of one's job. Based on the definition given by Locke & Sweiger (1979), job satisfaction is a constructive affective state resulting from the evaluation of one's work experience. These authors ascertained that job satisfaction results in the affective orientation of employees to the work, roles and characteristics of their jobs. Saal & Knight (1988) hold a related view, and also regard job satisfaction to be an emotional, affective or evaluative response.

Larwood (1984) and Milkovich & Boudreau (1991) extended the above definitions by stating that job satisfaction can be considered as entailing the degree to which employees find pleasure in their job experiences. This definition was well supported by Locke & Sweiger (1979) who defined job satisfaction as the constructive affective state resulting from the evaluation of one's job or job experience. Researchers who defined job satisfaction in terms of equity regard satisfaction to be determined mainly by the employees' comparison to actual consequences with the required consequences or by how well consequences meet or exceed

expectations (Cranny, et al., 1992; Hirschfeld, 2000; Locke, 1976; Luthans, 1992).

Camp (1994) considered the needs and values of employees as a yardstick in defining job satisfaction and also considered the extent to which these needs and values are satisfied in the workplace. Klein & Ritti (1984) stated that job satisfaction is a positive feeling that employees have towards a job that arises as a result of fulfilled expectations. Apart from being an attitude towards one's job, Robbins (1998) considered it as the difference between the extend of rewards received by workers and the amount they believe they should receive. The basic assumption of this definition is that both the needs of the individual as well as the characteristics of the job remain relatively stable (Camp, 1994). Multifaceted nature of job satisfaction is well acknowledged in the literature and many authors define job satisfaction in terms of several related attitudes (Luthans, 1992). They conceptualized job satisfaction as being a multidimensional construct consisting of a number of distinct, relatively independent components (Saal & Knight, 1988; Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967). Smith, Kendall & Hulin (1969) defined job satisfaction as the extent to which employees have a constructive emotional orientation towards particular elements of their jobs.

Five elements such as work itself, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision and coworkers that represent the most important characteristics of a job about which people experience affective responses were identified by Smith et al. (1969). The work itself refers to the extent to which the job facilitates the worker with opportunities for learning, challenging tasks, and

accountability. Pay refers to the amount of financial rewards that an individual receives as well as the extent to which such rewards is perceived to be equitable. Opportunities for promotion refer to the employee's chances for moving ahead in the organizational hierarchy. Supervision element incorporates the ability of the employee's superior to provide technical support and assistance. Co-workers involves the degree to which colleagues are technically proficient and socially supportive (Luthans, 1992; Smith et al., 1969). According to a comprehensive definition of job satisfaction proposed by Cranny, Smith & Stone (1992), it is a blend of affective and cognitive reactions to the differential perceptions of what workers want to receive compared with what they actually receive.

### **2.3.3 Theories of Job Satisfaction**

For having a better understanding of job satisfaction, it is crucial to comprehend what motivates people at work. In the past decades, a lot of theories have been put forward by various researchers to explain the causes and effects of job satisfaction. There are many theories attempting to explain job satisfaction and most of it is generally concerned with motivation (Saal & Knight, 1988). The theories most frequently addressed in the literature, are as follows:

#### **2.3.3.1 Discrepancy Theories**

According to Aamodt (1999), discrepancy theories hypothesize that employees' satisfaction with a work is calculated by the incongruity between what they want, value, and expect and what the job really provides. It is very difficult for workers to experience satisfaction when incongruity exists between what they want and what the job provides. Theories that

focus on employee needs and values include Needs hierarchy, ERG theory, Two-factor theory and Needs theory.

- **Maslow's Need Hierarchy** - Maslow (1954) argued that workers will only experience job satisfaction if certain needs are satisfied. This theory argued that lower-level needs must be fulfilled before an employee will become apprehensive with the next level of needs (Aamodt, 1999; Maslow, 1954). The five major needs according to them are physiological, safety, social, esteem and actualization needs.
- **Aldefer's ERG Theory** - To overcome the constraints faced by Maslow's needs hierarchy, Aldefer (1972) proposed a theory that has only three levels labeled existence, relatedness and growth (Aamodt, 1999).
- **Herzberg's Two Factor Theory** - The theory proposed by Herzberg is exclusively applicable to the workplace and job design. Herzberg (1966) postulated that job satisfaction relies upon a certain set of conditions while job dissatisfaction results from an entirely different set of conditions and implies that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction do not exist on a continuum extending from satisfaction to dissatisfaction.
- **McClelland's Theory of Needs** - McClelland (1996) stated that employees vary in terms of their needs for achievement, affiliation, and power. Challenging jobs will be desired by workers who have a strong need for achievement and they would like to exercise control over it. The satisfaction of these workers will be directly

proportional to problem solving and successful accomplishment of job tasks (Aamodt, 1999; McClelland, 1996; Saal & Knight, 1988).

### **2.3.3.2 Equity Theory**

Equity theory proposed by Adams (1965) stated that the degree of job satisfaction experienced by employees is linked to how fairly they perceive that they are being treated in comparison to others. The three elements involved in the perception of fairness are input, output and input/output ratio (Aamodt, 1999). Inputs consist of personal variables such as time, effort, experience, education and competence that employees put into their jobs (Robbins, 1998). Outputs include the factors such as pay, benefits, responsibility, and challenge that employees derived directly from their jobs. Adams (1965) argued that employee subconsciously calculates the Input/ Output ratio by dividing the output value by input value and compare it with that of other employees and work experiences. According to equity theory, employees will be satisfied if their ratios are similar to those of others and will be dissatisfied if the ratio is lower. He further proposed that employees will be motivated to restore equity (Adams, 1965).

Adams (1965) explained about the different attempts made by employees to bring about greater equity. This can happen by workers attempting to increase output by requesting greater responsibility and the absence of the same may result in employees reducing their input. Another approach that an employee may adopt may be changing the ratios of employee's input by encouraging the employee to work harder (Aamodt, 1999; Adams, 1965). The three significant implications of equity theory suggested by Greenberg & Baron (2008) are: avoid underpayment, avoid

overpayment, and be open and honest with employees. Since equity deals with perceptions of fairness or unfairness, it is logical to expect that inequitable states may be redressed by simply changing one's thinking about circumstances (Grobler et al., 2006).

### **2.3.3.3 Value Theory**

The value theory focuses on the big picture by asking questions of what the reasons for the satisfaction of people are. The theory argues that roughly any element can be a source of job satisfaction as long as it is something that people value (Grobler et al., 2006). It suggests that when some aspect of the job such as pay, learning, opportunities is missing to the amount they desire, employees tend to be more dissatisfied for those aspects of the job that are highly valued. The main focus of the theory is the gap existing between what workers have and what they want. According to this theory, the value systems of employees working in the organization are different and their satisfaction levels will also differ. Many successful organizations take a lot of pain to find out the factors that satisfy their employees. Keeping this in mind, an increasing number of firms, especially large ones, conduct employee survey on a regular basis. For example, FedEx relies on information gained from surveys to identify sources of dissatisfaction and possible remedies (Grobler et al., 2006).

### **2.3.3.4 Expectancy Theory**

The expectancy theory emphasizes on the role played by motivation in the overall work environment rather than just focusing on employees' needs traits and skills or social comparisons (Greenberg & Baron, 2008). Vroom (1967) argued that employees will put higher levels of effort if they believe



that there is a realistic chance that their effort will lead to the accomplishment of organizational goals which in turn will become an instrument through which the employee will attain personal goals (Nel et al., 2004).

The important elements of the expectancy theory are valence, expectancy, and instrumentality. Nel et al. (2004) defined valence as the attractiveness of a specific outcome to an employee. For example, if employees believe that working hard leads to better performance and they will be compensated according to their performance, employees will still be inadequately motivated if the reward has low valence to them. Greenberg & Baron (2008) affirmed the importance of this theory by stating that in today's competitive market, employers go to great lengths to attract and retain the best employees by giving them the rewards that they value greatly. The worker's belief that a certain effort will lead to a certain performance level can be termed as expectancy. For example, if a compensation is extended to employees to achieve a bonus for exemplary work in a given frame of time, and the employees desire the reward (positive valence) and believe that it is an impractical goal and it cannot be attained, employees might not put the required effort. Similarly, if they believe that they will be successful at attaining the desired goals in the required frame of time, they might put greater effort (Nel et al., 2004).

Perception of employees that performance will lead to the desired outcome can be termed as instrumentality. According to Nel et al. (2004), performance is significant when it leads to a particular outcome or outcomes. Employees do not usually receive rewards for their hard work,

but for accomplishing real results. For example, greater the time spend by an employee to attain a promotion (high performance), lesser will be the time they spend with their family. Conversely, lesser the time employees spend working for promotion (low performance), greater will be the time they spend with their family. The expectancy theory argues that motivation is a multiplicative function of all three elements. That means high levels of expectancy, instrumentality and valence may lead to higher levels of motivation and vice versa. The multiplicative supposition of the theory also implies that if any one of these three elements is zero, it can be estimated that the overall level of motivation will be zero. For example, if an employee believes that their effort will lead to performance, which will result in compensation, motivation will be zero if the valence of the compensation the employee expects to receive is zero (Greenberg & Baron, 2008).

### **2.3.3.5 Goal Setting Theory**

According to the goal setting theory, employees are motivated to strive for and attain goals just the way in which they are motivated to satisfy their needs on the job (Greenberg & Baron, 2008). The basic premise of this theory is that assigned goals influence employees' belief about being able to perform the job and their personal goals and both these tasks influence performance. The goal operates as a motivator to work because it causes them to evaluate their present capacity to perform with that required to succeed at the goal. The belief that they will not succeed leads to dissatisfaction among the employees and they tend to work harder to achieve goals that are possible to achieve. Theory suggests that assigned goals will lead to the acceptance of these goals as personal goals. Finally the

model proposes that belief about self efficacy and goal commitment influence task performance (Greenberg & Baron, 2008).

### **2.3.3.6 Evaluation of Job Satisfaction Theories**

McCormick & Ilgen (1985) argued that there is a lack of comparative research on the various job satisfaction theories. In spite of the limited experimental support that discrepancy theories have, they do appear to explain more variance in job satisfaction than the other theories (Saal & Knight, 1988). It was observed that equity theory seems to influence job satisfaction more than the influence exercised by the discrepancy theories. Equity and social learning theories may dominate in work settings in which social comparison is prominent (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985). Another possibility is that the development of work attitudes, such as job satisfaction is influenced by such multiplicity of personal and situational variables that a single theory is doubtful to provide a complete clarification. A combination of perspectives may finally provide the most precise picture of job satisfaction (Saal & Knight, 1988).

### **2.3.4 Antecedents of Job Satisfaction**

According to Staw (1978), firms can only enhance job satisfaction and reap the consequent benefits only if the factors causing and influencing this attitude can be identified. Studies have proved that satisfaction is a function of both the personal and the situational factors of the individual. Basically, the determinants of job satisfaction can be categorized mainly into extrinsic and intrinsic sources of satisfaction (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005; Vecchio, 1998). Work, working conditions, pay, supervision, participation in decision making and co-worker relations constitutes the extrinsic

dimension. Intrinsic dimension of satisfaction includes opportunities for promotion and feelings of recognition since these factors have symbolic or psychological meaning for the individual. It was observed the since these sources originate from the employee's circumstances, they might also be viewed as extrinsic sources of satisfaction and they may be said to serve a dual purpose (Staw, 1995). Apart from extrinsic and intrinsic sources of satisfaction, researchers have come up with numerous demographic variables that have been found to exercise a significant influence on job satisfaction (Robbins, 1998; Staw, 1995; Vecchio, 1988). There are many components affecting job satisfaction including the possibility of career growth and further professional development, working conditions and the actual work and pay and fringe benefits (Mohelska & Sokolova, 2015).

#### **2.3.4.1 Extrinsic Sources of Job Satisfaction**

Vecchio (1988) stated that extrinsic sources of satisfaction originate from outside the individual, that is, they originate from the environment. Conditions and forces that are beyond the control of the employee usually determine the regularity and intensity of extrinsic sources of satisfaction. The important elements constituting external sources of satisfaction are work itself, working conditions, pay, supervision and co-worker relations.

##### **2.3.4.1.1 Work itself**

The nature of the work done by employees has a crucial impact on their level of job satisfaction (Landy, 1989; Larwood, 1984; Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992). Luthans (1992) argued that interesting and challenging work along with a job that provides them with status eventually leads to satisfaction of employees. According to Aamodt (1999), chances

for development as well as by the prospect to accept responsibility play a crucial role in experiencing job satisfaction. Employees will be more satisfied if they are given the authority to assume responsibility and to make decisions concerning their work.

#### **2.3.4.1.2 Working conditions**

Another element that has a moderate effect on the employee's job satisfaction is the working conditions (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992). According to Landy (1989), a worker experiences job satisfaction when there is a match between their working conditions and physical need. Robbins (1998) is of the opinion that employees are concerned with their work circumstance for both individual comfort and for facilitating better job performance. Researches prove that employees do not prefer physical surroundings that are uncomfortable or hazardous. Apart from these factors, the number of hours of work done by the employee play a crucial role. The sign of a satisfied employee is that they tend to complain that they do not have sufficient time to perform all their duties. On the contrary, dissatisfied employees are likely to want their workday done with as soon as possible.

#### **2.3.4.1.3 Pay**

Pay is a significant element in deciding the satisfaction of employees (Larwood, 1984). There has been consistent research finding that indicated positive relationship between satisfaction with pay and overall job satisfaction. Many studies have revealed salary to be an important antecedent of job satisfaction. In addition, Ting (1997) conducted a study involving federal government employees and found that pay satisfaction have important effects on increasing the satisfaction of employees at all levels. This was well

supported by research done by Lambert, Hogan & Barton (2001) which found that financial rewards have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Various authors are of the viewpoint that the key in connecting pay to satisfaction is not the absolute amount that is paid, but the perception of justice (Aamodt, 1999; Landy, 1989). Robbins (1998) argued that employees seek pay systems that are perceived as fair, definite and in line with their expectations. The employees may feel satisfied when they perceive pay as equitable, based on work demands, competency level and industry pay standards.

#### **2.3.4.1.4 Supervision**

There is enough literature supporting the fact that there is a significant relationship between employee's general level of job satisfaction and the quality of relationship between supervisor-subordinate (Aamodt, 1999; Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Robbins, 1998). Researchers have proved that when supervisors provide employees with support in finishing their tasks, they tend to have high levels of job satisfaction (Ting, 1997). Studies done by Billingsley and Cross (1992) stated that dissatisfaction with management supervision is a significant predictor of job dissatisfaction. These findings were well supported by Staudt (1997) who stated that respondents who reported satisfaction with supervision tend to be satisfied with their jobs in general.

#### **2.3.4.1.5 Co-worker relations**

This element of extrinsic job satisfaction includes all interpersonal relations, both positive and negative, that occur within the work situation. Hodson (1997) found that these social relations form an important part of the social environment within the workplace and provide a background

within which employees can experience meaning and identity (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985). There is ample literature supporting the role of coworkers in either facilitating or hampering satisfaction within the organization (Jinnett & Alexander, 1999). Results of one such study showed that co-worker conflict is indirectly proportional to job satisfaction, while co-worker solidarity leads to high levels of this attitude (Hodson, 1997). These findings are supported by the works of Ting (1997) who asserted that this connection is likely to gain significance as the tasks performed by employees become increasingly interconnected.

#### **2.3.4.2 Intrinsic Sources of Job Satisfaction**

Intrinsic sources of job satisfaction mainly come from within the individual and are basically self - administered (Vecchio, 1988). These sources are usually intangible and have innate and psychological value because of what they symbolize. Vecchio (1988) stated that intrinsic sources of job satisfaction consist of opportunities for promotion and feelings of recognition since these elements have symbolic or psychological meaning for the individual.

##### **2.3.4.2.1 Opportunities for promotion**

Job satisfaction is said to be influenced by the worker's opportunities for promotion (Vecchio, 1988). The reason behind this is the fact that promotions give employees opportunities for individual growth, increased responsibility and elevated social status (Robbins, 1998). McCormick and Ilgen (1985) stated that satisfaction of employees with promotional opportunities is dependent on a number of elements including the likelihood of the employee being promoted, as well as the basis and the fairness of

such promotions. Visser and Coetzee (2001) extended this argument by stating that satisfaction related to promotion can also be considered as a function of the employee's needs and the relative significance that the employee attaches to promotion.

#### **2.3.4.2.2 Recognition**

Recognition mainly includes an expression of acknowledgement, appreciation and approval of services, actions and achievements (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2000). There is enough literature support proving that employee satisfaction is positively influenced by the extent to which employees receive recognition for their efforts (Robbins, 1998; Vecchio, 1988). Studies done by Arnolds & Boshoff (2000) stated that the positive connection between satisfaction and recognition can be credited to the fact that recognition is a potent satisfier of esteem needs. Visser & Coetzee (2005) extended the discussions by stating that a positive self concept is dependent a lot on the approval of others. Therefore, this sense of recognition plays a crucial role in developing employee's self image which eventually leads to higher job satisfaction.

#### **2.3.5 Outcomes of Job Satisfaction**

The importance that human resource professionals attribute towards job satisfaction is mainly because of the positive effects it has on work behaviors. This is evident from the considerable amount of time spent by researchers in exploring the connections between satisfaction and withdrawal, and between satisfaction and performance (Saal & Knight, 1988).



### **2.3.5.1 Withdrawal Behaviors**

Saal & Knight (1988) postulated withdrawal as a general term used to refer to behaviors by which workers remove themselves, either temporarily or permanently, from their jobs or workplaces. The three types of withdrawal usually linked to job satisfaction are tardiness, absenteeism, and turnover.

#### **2.3.5.1.1 Tardiness**

Even though chronic tardiness cannot always be attributed to employee dissatisfaction, certain forms of employee tardiness, such as that caused by remaining in the parking lot or restroom, may be credited to low levels of satisfaction (Vecchio, 1988). Smither (1988) argued that tardiness have been depicted as an antecedent to absenteeism, while absenteeism has in turn been viewed as a predecessor and a substitute to turnover. According to him, tardy employee tends to become frequently absent and these absences will ultimately lead to turnover (Smither, 1988). Nevertheless, research has mainly concentrated on the association between job satisfaction and absenteeism, and between satisfaction and turnover. Eventually, there is a lack of evidence to support the association between job satisfaction and tardiness.

#### **2.3.5.1.2 Absenteeism**

There is consistent evidence in literature about the inverse relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism (Belcastro & Koeske, 1996) even though there is contention regarding the strength of this relationship. According to Luthans (1992) and Moorhead & Griffen (1992), a comparatively good relationship exists between these variables. This observation is well supported by Organ (1991) who stated that any firm

trying to bring down levels of absenteeism should focus on job satisfaction. Nevertheless, Vecchio (1988) distinguished between voluntary and involuntary absenteeism. There is growing evidence among the researchers that voluntary absence rates are more intimately linked with satisfaction than are overall absence rates (Staw, 1995). From the literature cited above, it might therefore be concluded that low job satisfaction is likely to bring about high absenteeism (Luthans, 1992).

### **2.3.5.1.3 Turnover**

There is consistent evidence in literature that dissatisfied employees tend to quit their jobs (Hanish & Hulin, 1991; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992). According to Robbins (1998), the association between job satisfaction and turnover is stronger than the association between satisfaction and absenteeism. While some researchers suggest that a direct correlation exists between job satisfaction and turnover (Clugston, 2000; Lambert et al., 2001), past literature suggests that the relationship is neither simple nor direct (Saal & Knight, 1988; Somers, 1996). Camp (1994) asserted that job satisfaction exerts an insignificant direct influence on turnover. Previous researches show that dissatisfaction leads to turnover intent, which in turn is the direct antecedent of actual turnover (Jinnett & Alexander, 1999; Morrison, 1997). Smither (1988) also ascertained that such turnover intent is the best predictor of actual turnover. Similar to that of absenteeism, job satisfaction will not, in and of itself, keep turnover low. But high turnover is a possibility if there is considerable job dissatisfaction (Luthans, 1992). So it can be concluded that job satisfaction is a significant consideration in employee turnover.

### **2.3.5.2 Productivity**

It was always a hard time for researchers in organizational behavior to reach a consensus on the association between job satisfaction and productivity (Saari & Judge, 2004). Previous researches (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985) have found that the relationship between job satisfaction and performance was insignificant, but this was contradicted (Isen & Baron, 1991). Even though many researchers found out a strong connection, current evidence states that the relationship between satisfaction and productivity is a weak one (Klein & Ritti, 1984; Organ, 1991, Vecchio, 1988). Keeping in mind these contradictions, it is hard to assume that satisfied employees will be more productive, nor can it be deduced that job satisfaction is the result of superior performance (Bassett, 1994). Another controversy revolves around the causal relationship between satisfaction and performance. Staw (1995) found that the relationship between the two variables is probably due to performance indirectly causing satisfaction. Therefore, job satisfaction becomes an incentive related to outcomes of job performance. Still, some researchers firmly believe that satisfaction strongly influence productivity (Klein & Ritti, 1984) even though there is little empirical support to prove this argument. Robbins (1998) has attributed the focus of researches on employees rather than on organizations as a potential lack of support for the satisfaction-causes-productivity argument and those individual-level measures do not take all the interactions and intricacies in the work process into account.

### **2.3.5.3 Quality of work life**

Apart from the organizational performance objectives, there are significant humanitarian reasons for improving the satisfaction of employees. Work satisfaction often carries over to the worker's life outside the work environment. There is enough research evidence to prove that job satisfaction has a positive effect on the individual's satisfaction with life in general (Aamodt, 1999; Landy, 1989; Robbins, 1998). In addition, job satisfaction is also related to the employees' physical and mental well-being. Even though the proof is strictly correlational in nature, highly satisfied employees tend to have better physical and mental health records (Luthans, 1992; Vecchio, 1988). To be more specific, severe job dissatisfaction often manifested in stress, leads to a range of physiological disorders, including headaches, ulcers, arterial disease, and heart disease (Robbins, 1998; Vecchio, 1988). According to Coster (1992), work can have a significant impact on the total quality of life of employees' behavior like absenteeism, complaints and grievances, labor unrest and termination of employment.

### **2.3.6 Conclusion**

It can be deduced that job satisfaction not only affects employees' well-being and quality of life, but also has an important impact on withdrawal behaviors. Levels of job satisfaction of employees determine their decisions about whether to go to work on any given day or to quit. Apart from that, absenteeism disrupts scheduling, while the costs of recruiting and training replacement employees can be exorbitant. Since satisfaction is controllable and affects absenteeism and turnover, organizations can manage withdrawal behaviors (Staw, 1995). Researchers

have shown that high levels of job satisfaction among employees can be of great advantage to service organizations and an increase in satisfaction of employees may lead to the satisfaction of customers as well (Bowen, Gilliland & Folger, 1999; Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000). To conclude, it may be said that when the potential benefits and consequences of employee satisfaction are considered, organizations cannot within the context of continued growth and survival afford to neglect job satisfaction.

## **2.4 Organizational Commitment**

### **2.4.1 Relevance of Organizational Commitment**

Organizations have witnessed a lot of changes in the past decade with the focus of business shifting from manufacturing to technology, services and the rise of the knowledge worker. Firms have started to work smarter and have shifted away from the physical labor to intellectual labor. Mowday (1998), a leading researcher in the area of organizational commitment, asserted that the economy, firms and work environment have changed since he started learning commitment over 25 years ago.

Organizational commitment has been a vital concept in the study of work attitudes and behaviors, mainly because of its connection with significant work outcomes which impact organizational effectiveness, such as tardiness, absenteeism, turnover intentions and actual turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Reichers, 1985; Allen & Meyer, 1996). There is a common notion that committed employees have a strong aspiration to stay with their organizations and they will be more willing to put efforts in order to achieve organizational goals and values. Eventually, committed employees contribute to overall organizational effectiveness by bringing down the costs incurred

from high turnovers and enhancing job performance and productivity (Mottaz, 1988). Therefore, organizational commitment has been discussed in connection with human resource management (HRM) and corporate cultural management (Tichy & Cohen, 2003; Legge, 1995).

The importance attributed to organizational commitment even in this changing world of work is because of many reasons. Even though organizations are becoming leaner, they don't disappear and people still form the core of an organization. When organizations are becoming smaller and more flexible (Meyer & Allen, 1997), it is natural that commitment develops through social exchange. A decrease in the organizational commitment of employees may result in their commitment channelized towards activities such as industry, occupation, profession, hobbies or volunteer activities. Employees with low organizational commitment start to evaluate their marketability outside the organization and focus less on their current or future job prospects in the organization. Mowday (1998) argued that for an employee, commitment is a way to find meaning in his life and employees still seek a sense of accomplishment in their work through a goal or project worthy of committing to. It has to be noted that the time frame through which commitment plays itself has shortened and the focus of commitment may be less on the organization and more on other domains e.g., commitment to the profession (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

#### **2.4.2 Definition of Organizational Commitment**

Ever since the concept of organizational commitment was defined by Mowday et al. (1982) as an evaluation of an individual's identification with and attachment to a particular organization, it has garnered a lot of

skepticism about its distinguishability from other behavioral constructs. Meyer & Allen (1997) argued that the concept of organizational commitment is a construct discernible from other common concepts such as job satisfaction, job involvement, work commitment and turnover intentions (Mueller, Wallace & Price, 1992).

Apart from being a distinct construct, organizational commitment contributes distinctively to the forecast of significant outcome variables such as performance and withdrawal behaviors (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Since the discernability of organizational commitment from other constructs was questioned, it became tough to find a definition for the construct. According to the observations made by Mowday and colleagues (1982), researchers from different disciplines gave their own meaning to the concept thereby increasing the intricacy complexity involved in understanding the construct.

Some of the important definitions from the commitment literature are given below.

- Organizational commitment is the sum total of normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational objectives and interests (Wiener, 1982).
- Organizational commitment is the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization; it will mirror the extent to which the individual internalizes various characteristics of the organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

- Organizational commitment a psychological state that binds the employee to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996).
- Organizational commitment is a bond or linking of the employee to the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Many researchers argued that commitment affects behavior irrespective of other motives or attitudes and, might lead to the persistence in a course of action even in the face of contradicting motives or attitudes (Meyer & Allen, 1997). There is evidence proving that commitment leads individuals to behave in ways that is in contrast to their own self-interest such as a temporary employee who is productive regardless of having no job security (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Even though there are many points of agreement and disagreement on the definition of organizational commitment, all definitions of commitment in general make reference to the fact that commitment : (a) is a harmonizing and obliging force, and (b) gives direction to behavior. For the purpose of this study, the definition of Organizational Commitment as provided by Allen & Meyer (1990) is considered to be sufficient.

### **2.4.3 Multi-dimensionality of Organizational Commitment**

There is greater consensus among the researchers about the multi-dimensional nature of the organizational commitment construct. Many studies discern behavioral or exchange commitment from attitudinal or psychological commitment (Gaertner, 1989). While behavioral commitment refers to utilitarian gain from the employment relationship, attitudinal commitment refers to non-instrumental affective attraction to the organization by the workers. Allen & Meyer (1996) put forward three



unique, distinctive conceptual components of organizational commitment. These are: 1) Affective commitment which stresses employees' emotional attachment to the organization; 2) Continuance commitment which focuses on the perceived cost incurred from leaving the organization; and 3) Normative commitment which is considered as a requirement to stay with the organization. Affective commitment exhibits employees' desire to stay in an organization, continuance commitment connects to employees' need to stay in an organization, while normative commitment displays employees' obligation to stay in an organization. Meyer and Allen argued that each component of organizational commitment is having a negative association with turnover intentions. The motives underlying each element of commitment are so diverse that they may be associated with different effects on work outcomes or behaviors.

Affective commitment has the distinction of being the most commonly researched type of organizational commitment usually by means of a scale built by Porter and associates (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Apart from that, previous experimental researchers have found that affective commitment is a stronger antecedent than normative and continuance commitment to work outcomes, in particular, employees' withdrawal behavior (Somers, 1995; Jaros, 2007). A study done by Jaros (2007) to empirically evaluate the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions showed a significant and negative relationship between them even though they varied in the strength of their correlations. Jaros (2007) summarized his research by stating that organizations interested in reducing voluntary turnover behavior can do so indirectly by fostering affective commitment. Given major influences of the affective

component of commitment on employees' withdrawal behavior, important organizational commitment models give more importance to affective commitment to the organization rather than normative or continuance commitment.

#### **2.4.4 The focus of Organizational Commitment**

The commitment dimension develops during the tenure of the employee in the organization. In general, commitment is targeted toward an entity (e.g. union, organization, career or job) or toward behavior (e.g. attainment of organizational goals). This behavioral and entity perspective to organizational commitment has an effect on the focus of commitment.

##### **2.4.4.1 Behavioral focus of Organizational Commitment**

Employees' behaviors and attitudes are influenced by organizational factors in terms of the psychological contract. There is strong literature support on the significance of organizational factors in affecting attitudes or behaviors of employees (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Research done by Chang (2006) suggested that employees evaluate whether the company has fulfilled the psychological and employment contract the moment they enter into the organization. The psychological contract can be defined as a perceptual belief about what workers believe they are entitled to receive or should receive. According to Robinson and associates (1994), employees who feel that their employers have failed to fulfill their obligations tend to reduce their obligation by showing withdrawal behavior (e.g. decreased level of commitment and turnover).

#### **2.4.4.2 Entity focus of Organizational Commitment**

Meyer and associates (2002) argued that differences in focus are mainly a function of emphasis. When commitment is considered to focus on an entity, the behavioral outcomes are often implied, if not stated overtly. They stated that for understanding and predicting the outcomes of commitment, there may be a benefit to specifying the relevant entity and behavior. A study done by Morrow's (1983) focused on 25 employee commitment concepts and measures that have been reported in the literature since 1965. He argued that conceptual redundancy exists across these concepts and grouped them together into five foci such as commitment to work, career, organization, job and union. The entity focus of organizational commitment can be separated into two groups: domain (e.g. commitment to the organization, profession, career, union, work or job) and constituencies (e.g. supervisor, top management, co-workers or work group).

Meyer & Allen (1997) argued that when measuring commitment as a whole, it is possibly measuring employee's commitment to top management (Reichers, 1986) or to a blend of top management and more local foci (Becker, Billings, Eveleth & Gilbert, 1996). These researchers argued that if the commitment is used as a means of understanding or predicting the behavior of relevance to the organization as a whole, it would seem that the purpose can be well served with global measures of organizational commitment. But if they are concerned about behavior to more precise constituencies (e.g. supervisor), it would be better to measure commitment to the relevant constituency. Meyer and associates (2002) also stated that employees can be committed to both entities and behaviors.

## **2.4.5 Theoretical framework of Organizational Commitment**

### **2.4.5.1 Social Exchange Theory**

When a new employee joins an organization, he/she will learn the ideals and objectives of the organization and they receive a reward for the successful completion of the goal. This exchange happening between organization and employees develops over time into a certain concept of commitment. Social exchange theory plays a pivotal role in the development of organizational commitment. Theory of social structure is based on the assumption that nearly all social behaviors are based on the individual anticipation that one's actions with respect to others will result in some kind of commensurate return. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1985) is credited with giving an original explanation of the motivation behind the attitude and behaviors exchanged between individuals. This theory was expanded by Eisenberger and associates (1986) to explain certain aspects of the relationship between the institution and its employees.

### **2.4.5.2 Side Bet Theory**

The distinguishable roots of organizational commitment are traceable to H. S. Becker and his side-bet theory that connects efforts to valued returns. He argued about the significance of separating committed behaviors from the act of being committed. Becker (1960) included the side-bet concept as an instrument to rationalize behavior. In this sense, committed workers exchange service and effort for extrinsic and intrinsic instruments of value such as rewards and recognition. Side bets can be worker initiated or organizationally created (Becker, 1960). He depicted the organizational initiation of side bets by stating that workers may be reluctant to change

jobs for greater compensation if they believe the decision impugns their reputation. Considering his depiction of the side-bet concept and Meyer & Allen's (1997) three-component conceptualization, Becker's thinking provided a conceptual foundation for organizational commitment.

#### **2.4.6 Models of Organizational Commitment**

There is a gradual shift in literature regarding organizational commitment as a multi-dimensional construct rather than as a uni-dimensional construct. The major multi dimensional models of organizational commitment are O'Reilly and Chatman's model and Meyer and Allen's three component model.

##### **2.4.6.1 O'Reilly and Chatman's model**

The theoretical premise of the multidimensional framework proposed by O'Reilly & Chatman (1986) was that commitment represents an attitude toward the organization, and that there are different mechanisms through which attitudes can develop. Supported by the work of Kelman on attitude and behavior change, O'Reilly & Chatman (1986) argued that commitment takes on three forms such as compliance, identification and internalization. Compliance happens when attitudes and consequent behaviors are adopted in order to gain specific compensations. Identification happens when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a fulfilling relationship. Internalization is the result of acceptance of influence because the attitudes and behaviors that are being promoted to adopt are in sync with existing values.

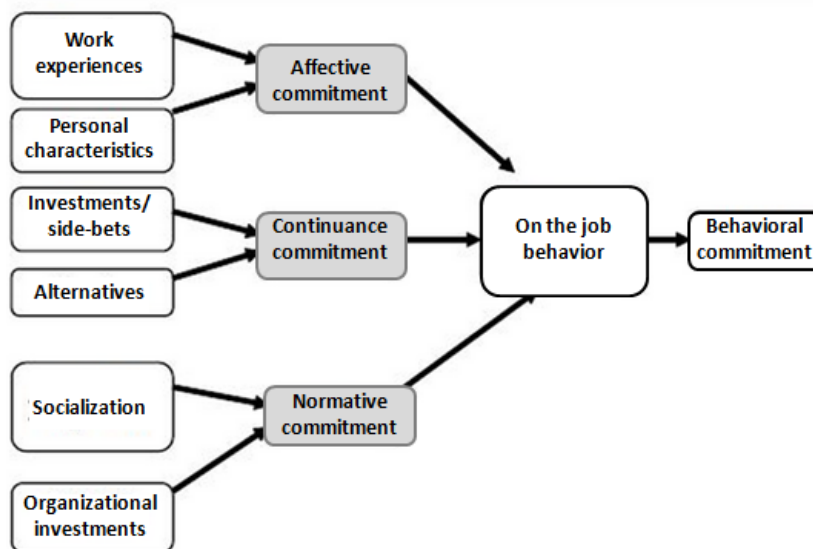
Different combinations of these three psychological foundations can reflect the employee's psychological attachment. O'Reilly & Chatman (1986) have given ample support for their three dimensional structure of commitment measurement. Further research has identified a difficulty in discerning between identification and internalization (Vandenberg et al., 1999). There is a tendency of high correlation between the measures and displayed similar patterns of correlation with measures of other variables. Later, both O'Reilly & Chatman combined these two, labeled identification and internalization, and called it normative commitment. However, this is different from the normative commitment in Meyer & Allen's model (1991).

It is easy to distinguish compliance from identification and internalization. The difference does not stop in terms of the criteria for approval of influence, but also in its connection to turnover. O'Reilly & Chatman (1986) argued that compliance is positively correlated with turnover. It is a widely acknowledged fact that organizational commitment is negatively correlated with turnover (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Inspection of the items to measure compliance might probably address an employee's motivation to abide with day to day stress for performance and not with stress to remain in the organization. O'Reilly & Chatman's notion of compliance might assess commitment to perform which has a different behavioral focus.

#### **2.4.6.2 Meyer and Allen's three component models**

With over fifteen studies published from 1984, Meyer and Allen made great contribution to the organizational commitment literature. The

universal empirical evaluation undergone by Meyer and Allen's three component model of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996) is the main reason for choosing it for this study. Meyer and Allen (1997) identified general themes in the conceptualization of commitment from existing literature and considered it as a base for developing their three component model. According to them, the most common conceptualization was the belief that commitment binds an individual to an organization and thereby decreases the likelihood of turnover.



Source: Meyer, J.P. & Allen, N. (1991). A three component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1, 61-69.

**Figure 2.2.** Meyer and Allen's three component model.

According to Meyer & Allen (1991), organizational commitment is a mental state that depicts the relationship with the organization, and has connotations for the decision to continue membership with the organization.

Meyer & Allen (1991) had described these three components as affective, continuance and normative. Hrebiniak & Alutto (1972) argued that Continuance commitment is a structural process, which happens as a result of individual-organizational transactions and changes in side bets or investments over time. Normative commitment can be defined as the commitment employees consider ethically right to stay in the company, irrespective of how much status improvement or satisfaction the firm gives him or her over the years.

Allen & Meyer (1996) concluded that there is enough proof supporting their hypotheses relating to the construct in their model. Some contentions exist about the distinguishability of affective and normative commitments and the unidimensional nature of normative commitment. Affective and normative commitment displays a high level of mutual correlation through confirmatory factor analyses. The dimensionality of continuance commitment is still a grey area with some research (Ko, 2003) sharing evidence of unidimensionality and others for the two separate, distinct factors, one reflecting supposed sacrifices associated with leaving, and the other, acknowledgement of the dearth of alternative employment opportunities (McGee & Ford, 1987). Meyer & Allen (1991) had argued that affective, continuance and normative commitment are elements of organizational commitment and each one mirrors varying degrees of employee employer relationship.

#### **2.4.7 Development of Organizational Commitment**

Mindset is one important factor that distinguishes the different forms of commitment within the various models. According to Meyer &



Herscovitch (2001), it is important to differentiate among the mindsets that are associated with commitment while considering the factors involved in the development of commitment. Therefore any factor that contributes to the development of commitment does so through its effect on one or more of the mindsets that connects an individual to a particular course of action of relevance to a specific goal. Then only distinguishing between affective, continuance and normative commitment becomes a possibility.

Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) has proposed some arguments regarding the development of the different mindsets:

- Affective commitment also termed as the mindset of desire develops when an employee becomes involved in, acknowledges the value-relevance from which he derives his identity and association with an entity or pursuit of a course of action.
- Continuance commitment also termed as the mindset of perceived cost develops when an employee acknowledges that he stands to lose savings, and that there are no options other than to adopt a particular course of action of relevance to a specific target.
- Normative commitment also termed as the mindset of obligation develops as a result of the internalization of rules and regulations through socialization, the receipt of benefits that creates a need to reciprocate, and/or reception of the terms of a psychological contract.

## **2.4.8 Antecedents of Organizational Commitment**

### **2.4.8.1 Antecedents of Affective Commitment**

There is no consistency or strength in the relationship between demographic variable and affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). One important factor influencing affective commitment is the people's perception of their own competence. Mathieu & Zajac (1990) analyzed many personal characteristics and found out that there is a strong connection between perceived competence and affective commitment. Considering that efficient people are able to opt higher-quality institutions, which in turn inspired affective commitment is the only possible explanation for the observed relation between the two variables.

Studies done by Meyer & Allen (1997) showed that there is a strong and consistent relationship between work experience variables and affective commitment. A meta study done by Mathieu & Zajac (1990) showed that affective commitment has displayed a positive relationship with job scope. Job scope is a combination of three variables: work challenge, degree of freedom and variety of skills used. It has been observed that employees experience stronger affective commitment to the organization when their leaders facilitate participatory decision-making (Rhodes, 1981) and treat them with consideration (DeCotiis, 1987). Based on the antecedent research on affective commitment done by Meyer & Allen (1997), they proposed a probable universal appeal for those work circumstances where employees are helped, treated justly and

made to feel that they make contributions. Such experiences might satisfy a higher order need to improve perceptions of self worth.

#### **2.4.8.2 Antecedents of Continuance Commitment**

The origin of continuance commitment lies in the side bets tradition (Becker, 1960) and refers to the sacrifices made by the employee (e.g. losing seniority or pension benefits) which are associated with terminating employment resulting in employees' awareness about the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees with a strong continuance commitment do not leave because they believe they have to do so. Continuance commitment can be the result of any action or event that enhances the costs of leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The action is summarized into two sets of variables by Meyer & Allen (1991): investments and alternatives. According to Becker (1960), commitment to a course of action is the outcome of the accumulation or investment in side bets that a person makes. If the worker discontinues with the activity, side bets would be forfeited. The other hypothesized antecedents of continuance commitment are the employee's perceptions of employment alternatives. Continuance commitment is negatively correlated with the perceived availability of alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1997). An employee's acknowledgement that investments and/or lack of alternatives has made leaving the organization more costly, demonstrates the process through which these investments and alternatives influence continuance commitment.

### **2.4.8.3 Antecedents of Normative Commitment**

According to Wiener (1982), normative commitment is developed on the basis of a group of pressures that individuals feel during their initial days of socialization as newcomers to the organization. Meyer & Allen (1997) argued that normative commitment evolves on the basis of a specific kind of investment that the organization makes in the employee, particularly, investments that seems tough for employees to reciprocate (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Scholl, 1981).

Reading along the same lines, evolution of normative commitment can also happen based on the psychological contract between an employee and the organization (Schein, 1980). Even though psychological contracts take various forms, most widely accepted are transactional and relational (Rousseau, 1989). While transactional contracts are somewhat more objective and based on principles of economic exchange, relational contracts are more abstract and based on principles of social exchange. Many researchers have suggested that relational contracts are more relevant to normative commitment and transactional contract might be involved in the development of continuance commitment.

### **2.4.9 Outcomes of Organizational Commitment**

#### **2.4.9.1 Outcomes of Affective Commitment**

According to Mottaz (1988), extrinsic rewards are strong antecedents of organizational commitment than intrinsic rewards. This notion was verified by Meyer & Allen (1997) and they confirmed that

employees with a strong affective commitment feel emotionally attached to the organization. From this argument, it can be deduced that an employee with high affective commitment will have greater motivation or desire to contribute significantly to the organization compared to an employee with weak affective commitment. Meyer & Allen (1997) stated that affective commitment to an organization will evolve among employees to the extent that it satisfies their wants, meets their expectations and permits them to achieve their goals, and thus, affective commitment develops on the basis of mentally satisfying experiences. Adenguga et al (2013) indicated that there is a significant relationship between each dimension of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. They found affective commitment to be the most highly correlated dimension with turnover intentions.

#### **2.4.9.2 Outcomes of Continuance Commitment**

Employees with strong continuance commitment stay in their organizations not for reasons of emotional attachment but because of a recognition that there is too high costs associated with doing so. Circumstances being stable, such employees will not be having a passion to contribute to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Many studies have proved that continuance commitment is negatively related to performance among technical personnel whereas some others confirmed that continuance commitment is positively related to performance in a military organization.

### **2.4.9.3 Outcomes of Normative Commitment**

Feeling of obligation and duty towards the organization characterizes strong normative commitment. Meyer & Allen (1991) stated that such feelings would encourage employees to behave appropriately and do what is right for the organization. Studies show that normative commitment to the organization will have a positive relationship with such work behaviors as increased performance, enhanced attendance and better organizational citizenship behaviors. While normative commitment is related only to withdrawal intentions, organizational commitment is said to have positive link with retention (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Meyer and associates (1993) argued that affective and normative commitment has a negative relationship with intention to quit.

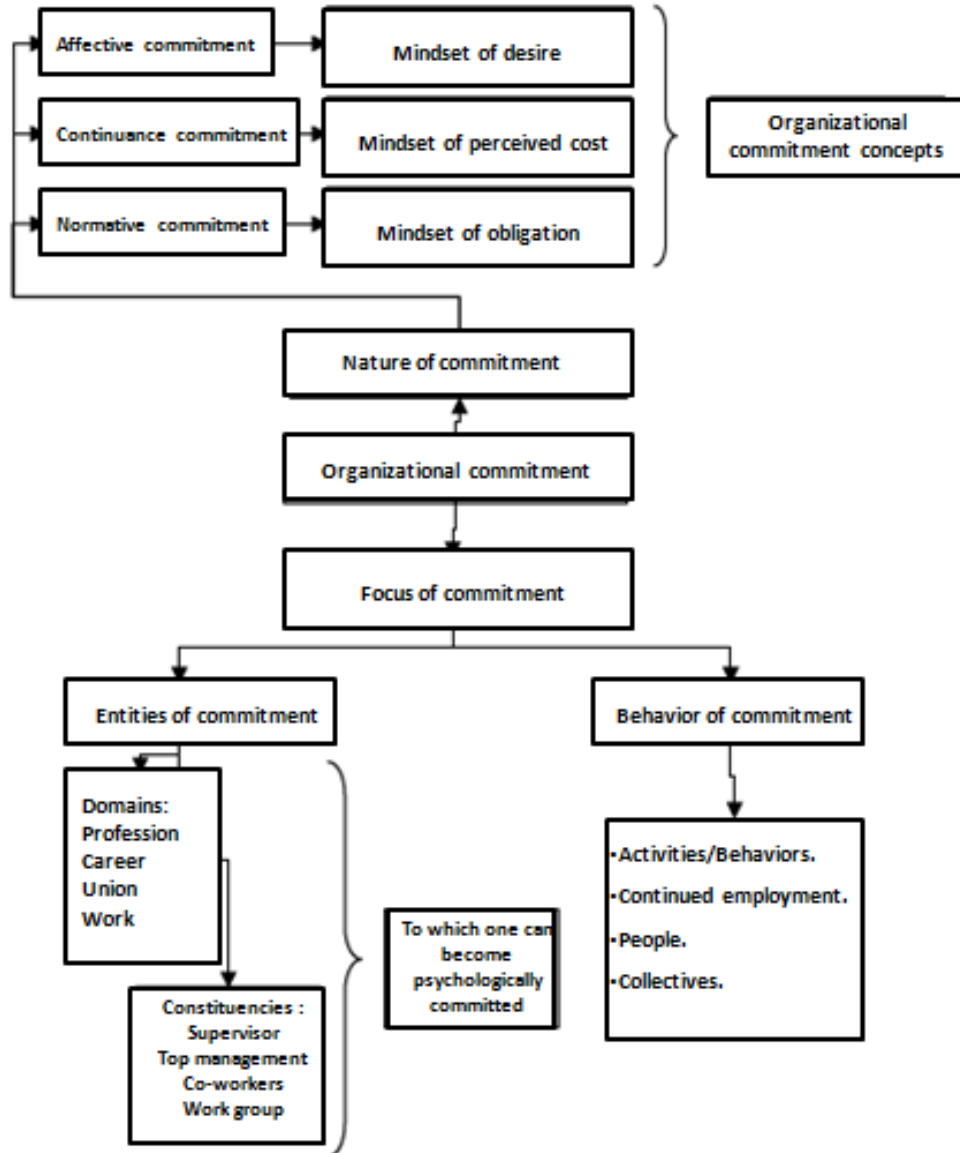
Meyer & Allen (1997) affirmed that there is a positive relationship between affective commitment and employee retention. The likelihood of an individual remaining within an organization can be enhanced with the help of affective and continuance commitment even though the reason for remaining differ between affective and continuance commitment. Somers (1995) who observed organizational commitment, job withdrawal, turnover, and absenteeism found out that while affective commitment forecasted all three outcomes, continuance commitment had no direct impact but interacted with affective commitment in predicting absenteeism and job withdrawal intentions.

#### **2.4.10 Integration of the consequences of Organizational Commitment**

Many researchers have argued that there is a need for organizations to re-examine policies that lead to building commitment. Generally implemented strategies in high technology circumstances, such as non-vested pension plans and participation in stock options may be working against the organization. Even though these steps make it tough for workers to leave, they may not motivate them to stay. Many employees may find themselves in a circumstance where they may want to leave the organization, but cannot afford to do so. Some may be inspired to do just enough to maintain their jobs and steps taken to foster commitment can actually be counterproductive (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It is tough to foster affective commitment but once established, it is strongly related to employees' motivation to contribute to organizational effectiveness. Therefore, affective, continuance and normative commitment will all be linked to employee retention, i.e. each form of commitment should be negatively correlated with the employees' intention to leave the organization and with voluntary turnover behavior.

#### **2.4.11 Graphical summary of Organizational Commitment**

The discussion of Organizational Commitment made in this section can be depicted in a graphical form as presented in Figure 2.8. The top half captures the form of Organizational Commitment and the lower half the different foci of Organizational Commitment. This figure can be used to distinguish the different concepts in the Organizational Commitment literature.



Source: Dockel, A. (2003). *The effect of retention factors on organizational commitment: An investigation of high technology employees.* University of Pretoria.

**Figure 2.3.** Graphical summary of Organizational Commitment.



#### **2.4.12 Impact of Organizational Commitment on retention**

The purported relationship that Organizational Commitment has with important work outcomes which affect organizational effectiveness such as tardiness, absenteeism, turnover intentions and actual turnover made it an important concept in the study of work attitudes and behaviors (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Morrow, 1993; Reichers, 1985; Allen & Meyer, 1996). Researchers firmly vouch that employees who are committed have a strong desire to stay with their organizations. Apart from that, they will be more willing to put extra effort in order to achieve organizational goals and values thereby avoiding the option of withdrawal or exit. Eventually, committed employees help in enhancing organizational effectiveness by reducing the costs incurred from high turnovers (Ivancevich et al., 1997), and increasing job performance and productivity (Mottaz, 1988). Therefore, organizational commitment has been discussed in relation to human resource management (HRM) and corporate cultural management (Tichy, 1983; Legge, 1995). There is an assumption that a strong, unitary corporate culture creates organizational commitment, and hence achieves desired behavioral outcomes such as low labor turnover and high job performance (Legge, 1995). Hence, for long term survival, organizations should identify the antecedents of Organizational Commitment and make sure these issues are addressed in their human resource strategies.

#### **2.4.13 Summary**

In a nutshell, commitment of employees to an organization is viewed as a significant success factor in today's corporate world (Pfeffer, 1998). The focus that organization directs towards an employee is evident by the

monetary and non – financial benefits they receive (Williams, 1999) and the service that is devoted to them (Payne, 2000). If employees perceive that organizations are less committed to them, they may respond by feeling less committed to the organization. This lack of commitment by employees toward their organization will be reflected in their intention to quit.

## **2.5 Employee Withdrawal Behaviors**

### **2.5.1 Relevance of Withdrawal Behaviors**

Researchers have recognized employee exit intentions as one of the most important antecedents of turnover (Griffeth, 2000) and have been widely used as an outcome variable in research studies focusing on voluntary employee turnover (Benson, 2006; Finegold, Mohrman & Spreitzer, 2002). On the contrary, employee neglect behaviors such as absence, lateness and decreased work efforts have not been extensively researched. However, review of literature indicates moderate negative relationship between job satisfaction, affective commitment and employee neglect (Johns, 2002; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002). Even though these associations are not as strong as those for intentions and turnover, they need further exploration. There is a universal consensus among researchers about the connectedness of withdrawal behaviors and there is proff that employee withdrawal is progressive, with trivial forms of withdrawal such as neglect behaviors eventually leading to severe acts such as turnover (Johns, 2002).

### **2.5.2 Definition of Withdrawal Behaviors**

Withdrawal behaviors can be defined as a set of attitudes and behaviors exhibited by employees when they remain on the job but for some

reason choose to be less participative. Many conventional theories including equity theory and social exchange theory emphasized the role played by withdrawal behavior that compels employees to hold back inputs from an organization. These theories argue that withdrawal behaviors are often controllable versions of input reduction. Furthermore, withdrawal behaviors help an employee to trim down the cost of an aversive job by involving in more gratifying activities while still enjoying the financial benefits offered by the job.

Employee withdrawal intentions consist of various diverse, yet associated variables which have been generally studied in connection with withdrawal behavior. The definition given in the organizational research literature depicts withdrawal behavior as actions intended to place a physical or psychological seclusion between employees and workplace (Rosse & Hulin, 1985). Mobley (1982) argued the meaning of the label “withdrawal” as a process, which contains different, yet related constructs. The turnover model of Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth (1978) has evaluated various constructs of withdrawal intentions such as intention to quit as well as the construct of withdrawal behavior such as actual quit.

Hanisch & Hulin (1991) identified two types of organizational withdrawal behaviors: job withdrawal behaviors and work withdrawal behaviors. Job withdrawal behaviors consist of a bundle of behaviors that dissatisfied individuals exhibit to avoid the work environment; they are behaviors intended to allow avoidance of involvement in dissatisfying work atmosphere (Hulin, 1991). Variables that come under the description of job withdrawal behaviors are turnover intentions, desire to retire or

resign. Work withdrawal behaviors on the other hand, consist of a bundle of behaviors that dissatisfied individuals use to avoid elements of their specific work role or bringing down the time spent on their specific work tasks while maintaining their organizational memberships (Hanisch & Hulin, 1991). Variables that come under the description of work withdrawal behaviors are unfavorable job behaviors, lateness, and absenteeism.

Hulin (1991) has defined withdrawal behaviors as the ways in which a dissatisfied employee responds to that situation. Studies have observed that withdrawal behaviors may include such actions as stealing from the organization, using work time for personal tasks, skipping assigned meetings, taking longer time than permitted for breaks, wasting time talking to other employees, arriving late or leaving early and increasing use of sick days (Kanungo & Mendonca, 2002). Withdrawal behaviors/cognitions can be defined as a set of neglect behaviors and cognitions such as daydreaming, thinking about absenteeism, engaging in non-work related conversations and thinking about quitting from the organization (Lehman & Simpson, 1992). It was found that employees are benefited from engaging in these behaviors and cognitions. For example, withdrawing from work (e.g., spending time on personal matters or being absent) can allow employees to deal with both work and non-work related stress. Nevertheless, these behaviors and cognitions are often linked with decreased productivity and are negatively related to performance (Hanisch & Hulin, 1991; Lehman & Simpson, 1992).

### **2.5.3 Traditional explanations of Withdrawal Behavior**

#### **2.5.3.1 Job Satisfaction and Withdrawal Behaviors**

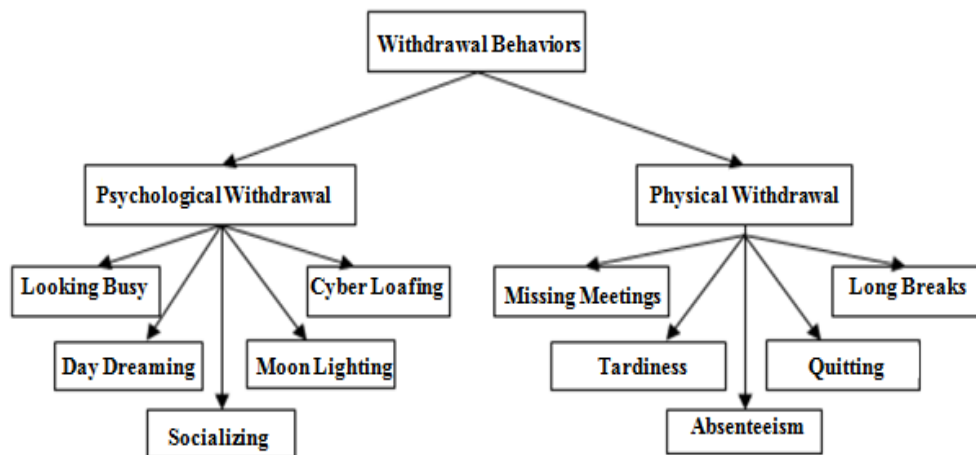
There is enough evidence in the literature supporting the fact that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is related to job satisfaction (Dinham, 1993; Dinham & Scott, 1998, 2000; Friedman & Farber, 1992). A reduction in employees' job satisfaction leads to high levels of absenteeism, various unconstructive work outcomes (Conley & Woosley, 2000; McCormick & Ayres, 2009) and even with leaving the vocation (Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). Therefore dissatisfaction of an employee is connected with decreased productivity, which may express itself in various withdrawal behaviors.

#### **2.5.3.2 Conservation of Resources (COR) model of Burnout**

A valid explanation is given by Conservation of Resources (COR) model of Burnout about the teachers' withdrawal behaviors. The main focus of this model lies in the environmental and cognitive factors associated with resources. Model defines these as personal characteristics that are valued because they act as channels to the attainment of valued resources (Hobfoll, 2001). According to COR theory, people struggle to maintain valued resources and minimize any threats of resource loss. Threats of resource loss are generally in the form of role demands and work done toward meeting such demands. Considering the work environment, stress is mainly the result of work demands that typically use up more employee resources than are replenished (Halbesleben, 2006). In teaching profession, teachers can use withdrawal behaviors as a means to protect their internal resources so as to maintain their better performance at work (Hackett & Bycio, 1996).

### 2.5.4 Main classification of Withdrawal Behaviors

Withdrawal behavior can be defined as a set of actions that employees perform to avoid work circumstances and this may eventually lead to employee quitting the organization (Hulin, 1991). It is normally observed that employees who are not committed to their firms involve in withdrawal behavior. Withdrawal comes in two forms: physical (or exit) and psychological (or neglect). This is explained in the following figure.



**Source:** SehBaradar, S., Ebrahimpour, H., & Hasanzadeh, M. (2013). Investigating the Relationship between Organizational Justice and withdrawal Behavior. *International Journal of Management and Social Sciences Research*, 2(3), 93-99.

**Figure 2.4** Psychological and physical Withdrawal Behaviors.

#### 2.5.4.1 Physical Withdrawal

Physical withdrawal can be defined as actions that provide a physical escape, whether short term or long term, from the work circumstances. Physical withdrawal also comes in a number of forms and sizes. The major form of physical withdrawal is voluntary turnover. Voluntary turnover is a situation whereby an employee chooses to leave the organization of his own

volition, either to escape negative experiences in the working environment or to pursue better opportunities that are more rewarding, in terms of career growth (Tumwesigye, 2010). The other main forms of physical withdrawal include lateness, absenteeism and intention to quit.

#### **2.5.4.1.1 Lateness**

The layman definition of lateness includes the behavior of arriving late to work or leaving before the end of the day (Koslowsky, 2000) and studies have identified motivational antecedents to this withdrawal behavior. Hypothetically, lateness is divided into three dimensions: chronic, unavoidable, and avoidable. Chronic lateness is usually a response adopted by the employees in a bad work situation and main antecedents to chronic lateness are, for example, lack of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Avoidable lateness happens when employees have better or more significant activities to do than to arrive on time and main positive antecedents to avoidable lateness are leisure – income tradeoff and work-family conflicts. Unavoidable lateness consists of factors beyond the employee's control, such as transport problems, bad weather, illness, and accidents (Blau, 1994).

#### **2.5.4.1.2 Absenteeism**

Work absence can be defined as the lack of physical presence at work environment when and where one is expected to be (Harrison & Price, 2003). Sagie (1998) classified employee absence into two dimensions: voluntary and involuntary. Employees have direct control over voluntary absence and are frequently exploited for personal issues such as searching the market for alternative prospects of employment whereas involuntary

absences are normally beyond the employee's immediate control. Latest research reviews presented absence as a variable linked not only to the individual's demographic characteristics, but also to the organizational circumstances and social context (Martocchio & Jimeno, 2003). Previous literature showed that psychological problems, lack of support from superiors, low level of perceived justice, and negative social relations represent risk factors for sickness absence.

#### **2.5.4.1.3 Intention to quit**

Intent to leave is the extent to which employees are ready to trade their present jobs for other jobs elsewhere (Hanisch & Hulin, 1991) and consists of dimensions of thinking of leaving and the desirability of leaving their existing job (Blau, 1998). Based on this assumption, an employee who thinks about leaving his/her work is more likely to do so if the right circumstances exist. Employees who plan to leave their organization may decrease their efforts at work. Well qualified employees who are more likely to find alternate employment consider leaving the job more often and this may put at risk organizational standards and affect colleagues' motivation and efforts (Dinham & Scott, 2000; Parry, 2008). There are lots of studies indicating that the lack of professional chances, restricted professional freedom, unsatisfactory compensation, and low job satisfaction contribute to a general intent to leave the organization (Fochsen, Sjogren, Josephson & Lagerstrom, 2005; Morrell, 2004; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). Bester (2012) observed that turnover intention is seldom precisely defined in reported studies. According to him, this practice is probably attributable to the assumption that people perceive the term to be self-explanatory.



#### **2.5.4.2 Psychological Withdrawal**

Psychological withdrawal can be defined as actions that provide a psychological escape from work circumstances. The phenomenon of psychological withdrawal can be well depicted by the analogy of the lights being there, but there is nobody at home. Some research studies refer to psychological withdrawal as warm-chair attrition which is a phenomenon depicted by the fact the even though the chairs of the employees remain occupied, they are essentially lost (Hulin, 1991). There are different forms of psychological withdrawal such as day dreaming, socializing, looking busy, moonlighting and cyber loafing.

The least serious form of psychological withdrawal is daydreaming and it happens when an employee appears to be working but is actually preoccupied with random thoughts or concerns. Socializing which is another form of psychological withdrawal involves the verbal chatting about topics other than work. When an employee exhibits an intentional desire to look like he or she is working, even when not performing work tasks, he is said to be involved in looking busy, a unique form of psychological withdrawal. Sometimes workers decide to rearrange their desks and go for a walk around the building. People who are adept at looking busy do these activities very fast and with a concentrated look on their faces. When an employee is using his official time to complete unofficial assignments, he is said to be engaged in moon lighting (Lim, 1995). Cyber loafing is the most prevalent form of psychological withdrawal among white collar employees and they use internet, e-mail, and instant messaging access for their personal enjoyment rather than work duties (Lim, 1995).

### **2.5.4.3 Work and Job Withdrawals**

Hanisch, Hulin & Roznowski (1998) noted a positive relationship among the various behavioral manifestations of withdrawal and they suggested the existence of a broad organizational withdrawal construct consisting of job withdrawal (turnover and early retirement) and work withdrawal (Lateness, absence and escapist drinking). As understood from the literature, researchers have favored the aggregation into behavioral composites, even though most of the literature available on the subject appears to use self reported feelings, desires, expectations and intentions to engage in the behavior (Johns, 1994). Even though these studies reveal many psychometric gains for this particular approach, the main advantage would appear to be its ability to accommodate the influence of various situational constraints on the elicitation of a particular form of withdrawal.

Job withdrawal consists of a group of behaviours exhibited by dissatisfied individuals to avoid the work environments; they are behaviours designed to allow evadance of participation in dissatisfying work environments (Hulin, 1991). Some examples of Job withdrawal construct includes turnover intentions and desire to retire or resign. Work withdrawal consists of a group of behaviours exhibited by dissatisfied individuals to avoid aspects of their specific work role or minimizing the time spent on their specific work tasks while maintaining their organizational memberships (Hanisch & Hulin, 1991). Some examples of work withdrawal construct include unfavourable job behaviours, lateness and absenteeism.

#### **2.5.4.4 Minor measures of withdrawal**

Although lateness, absence, and turnover are the conventional variables in the field of withdrawal behaviors, a wide range of other variables like social loafing, shirking one's responsibilities and duties, long lunch breaks, excessive socializing with colleagues during the work day all represent other forms or dimensions of withdrawal that need to be examined. Hanisch & Hulin (1991) were the researchers to first venture into this type of behavior and argued that they are actually part of a larger dimension called work withdrawal. As with employee tardiness, when attendance is not monitored vigilantly by the organization, these behaviors may very well remain hidden and go unnoticed by management. In fact, if one of the common components in this category is withholding effort, the employee, in many cases, can underperform or under produce without being noticed. It is a tedious task to monitor this behavior and may require intra-individual comparisons as well as inter-individual ones.

There will be far reaching financial repercussions if the organization leaves these behaviors unchecked. In fact, there is a possibility for organizations to lose much more time and money from these minor behaviors than from actual lateness or absence. In the model, minor withdrawal behavior has been placed at the beginning of the withdrawal process because of its invisibility compared to lateness. Minor withdrawal occurs during the day, while the employee is formally at the job, and is tough to objectively evaluate with the frequency or duration measures. Even though documenting such behaviors is helpful particularly in making performance evaluation schemes more meaningful (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 1996), data concerning social loafing or shirking are normally not

documented and are therefore not available for analysis. Blau (1998) has elaborated on the term unfavorable job behaviors by identifying items such as personal phone calls, making excuses for getting out of work, and poor quality work as belonging to this category. In depth review of relevant findings led Blau to the conclusion that it was still somewhat premature to form larger aggregate categories (e.g. work withdrawal vs. job withdrawal) using these behaviors and the other withdrawal measures, which contrasts with the conclusions of Hanisch & Hulin (1991).

From a more conceptual angle, many authors have discussed the connections between various types of withdrawal behavior. Kidwell & Bennett (1993) observed that the tendency to withhold effort is a common thread among fudging, social loafing and free riding. Shepperd (1993) considered social loafing as an issue related to productivity loss which results from affective and perceptual sources. Work done by Rosse (1988) proposed that comparatively neglected modes of withdrawal, including mental withdrawal, social loafing, leaving work early, and sabotage form a significant portion of the overall withdrawal process. Similar to absence and turnover, it is possible that minor withdrawal behaviors have unique causes. However, the linking element among them may indeed indicate a response to affective stimuli which, under certain conditions, leads to more overt behavior such as lateness. Even though extensive literature is available on some of these behaviors (e.g. social loafing in-group processes), the connection between them and lateness has not yet been investigated. These studies point towards the fact that future research into the underlying process of employee lateness should

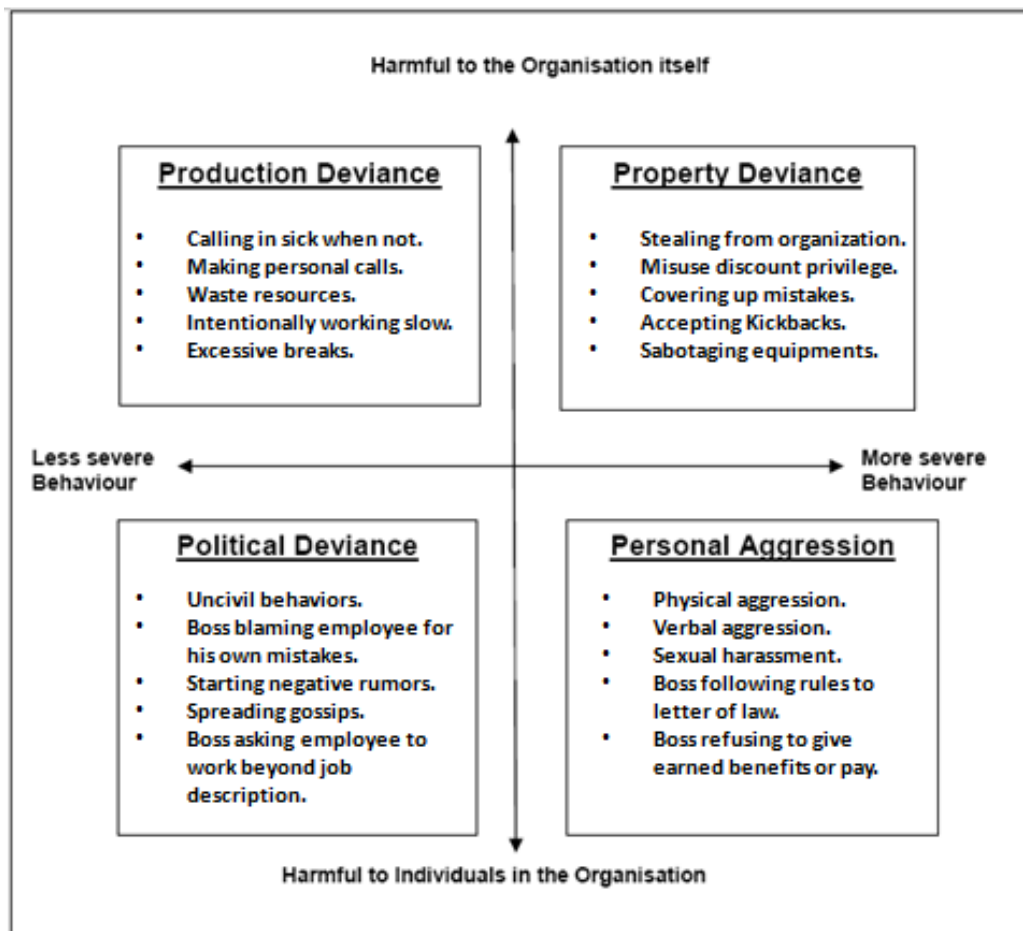
include these minor withdrawal measures as potential predictors (Rosse, 1988).

#### **2.5.4.5 Counterproductive Work Behaviors**

The typology of workplace deviance behavior is divided into two dimensions based on the severity of the deviance and whether the deviance is intended to harm an individual or the organization. Production and property deviance is directed toward the organization whereas political deviation and personal aggression is directed toward the individual. Production deviance consists of behaviors that directly affect work performance in the organization and consists of activities like reading a newspaper, over socialization with co-workers, and so on. Property deviance is characterized by employees destroying or misusing property which belongs to the organization. Political deviance indicates milder interpersonal harmful behavior. The most harmful interpersonal behavior is personal aggression, which forms the last quadrant (Robinson & Bennett, 1995)

Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) has emerged as an important area of concern among employers and employees. These behaviors consist of a group of distinct acts that share the features that they are volitional and harm or intend to harm organizations and/or organization stakeholders, such as customers, co-workers and superiors (Spector & Fox, 2005). Apart from this, counterproductive work behavior consists of a lot of workers' negative behaviors that threaten the very existence of an organization. There has been extensively diverse research done on these behaviors in the past decade. Because of that, counterproductive work

behavior is now commonly used as an umbrella term for any negative behavior that is directed against the workplace such as antisocial behaviors, delinquency, deviance, retaliation or revenge (Bies, Tripp & Brokner, 1993).



Source: Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviours: A multidimensional scaling study.

**Figure 2.5.** Typology of deviance behaviors.

#### **2.5.4.6 Employee Disengagement**

Dysfunctional coping propensity can be depicted as the opposite of being motivated to do something about your problem or the difficult situation that you face. This phenomenon that causes people to reduce their efforts as a result of a stressful environment is termed as behavioral disengagement. This concept can be compared to being helpless, like when people give up on their ability to do anything about the situation (Carver, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989). This way of coping is considered to be maladaptive and often harmful, leading to an increase in stress. Carver et al. (1989) argued that behavioral disengagement is less effective than functional strategies because it avoids addressing the real source of the stressor. Disengagement is commonly defined as a feeling of distancing from and devaluing of the work experience, that is not under conscious control, but will lead to explicit behavioral decisions. Employees suffering from disengagement will first become negative about their work and question its meaning. Sonnentag (2003) argued that disengagement is a coping strategy where the employee disengages and becomes negative about the workplace.

#### **2.5.4.7 Deviant behaviors in workplace**

Researchers have categorized deviant behavior in the workplace along two dimensions: minor versus serious deviance, and directed at either organizational or personal targets (Fox & Spector, 1999). Behaviors that come under the label of minor organizational deviance which disrupts productivity includes arriving late or leaving early, intentionally working slower, daydreaming instead of working, failing to help a coworker, or withholding work-related information from a co-worker. On the contrary,

serious organizational deviance is linked to behaviors targeted at the property, such as damaging or stealing equipment. Minor interpersonal deviance points towards petty acts against individuals in the workplace, such as gossiping about co-workers or blaming coworkers whereas serious interpersonal deviance denotes acts of aggression or violence directed at individuals in the workplace which includes sexual harassment and verbal or physical abuses.

Considering the categorization system discussed above, the category of minor organizational deviance includes many behaviors that overlap with the concept of psychological withdrawal which implies the little effort that the employee puts into the work. Many different manifestations of this include daydreaming, doing personal tasks at work, chatting excessively with co-workers, and letting others do the work (Lehman & Simpson, 1992). Even though some researchers consider psychological withdrawal behaviors as minor deviances when compared to the willful harm of property or persons, work done by Skarlicki & Folger (1997) purports that ignoring mild negative behaviors can have dramatic consequences on organizational functioning. It was observed that psychological withdrawal behaviors have a progressive propensity, whereby one withdrawal behavior affects subsequent withdrawal behaviors (Sagie, Birati & Tziner, 2002). Decreased effort on the job can lead to lateness or leaving early, which can then progress to greater levels of withdrawal such as absenteeism and turnover. The withdrawal behavior phenomenon can be compared to ripple effect where one employee influences the behaviors of other employees (Sagie, et al., 2002). For example, late coming of one employee may tempt the others to respond in similar ways resulting in them to become



psychologically and behaviorally withdrawn, thereby hampering productivity even further.

## **2.5.5 Theoretical framework of Withdrawal Behaviors.**

### **2.5.5.1 Social Exchange Theory**

Research on organizational behavior has utilized the support of social exchange theory to explain the relationship between employees' perceptions and behavioral reactions (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989). According to this theory, parties in any given relationship seek balance and fairness in it. The negative perceptions of employees towards organizations may intensify if they feel being mistreated and may look for means to get back the benefits they feel entitled (Turnley, Bolino, Lester & Bloodgood, 2004). Consistent with this theory, researchers state that ethical ambiance and procedural justice are part of the organizational inputs into the social exchange to which workers respond. When employees feel uneasy with organizationally enforced values, they may react by displaying various withdrawal behaviors (Rousseau, 1989).

### **2.5.5.2 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Theory**

Based on the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theory (Deci, 1971), researchers have distinguished between the different aspects of organizational ethics. Extrinsic motivation comes from outside of the individual and includes rewards like money and threat of penalty by rules, which focus on the short term in controlling people's behavior (Kohn, 1990). On the contrary, intrinsic motivation consists of motivation that exists within the individual rather than relying on any external pressure.

Investigation on intrinsic motivation has a long-term focus and channelized attention to broader benefits of support and the justice process.

The widely accepted model of the internal structure of withdrawal behaviors states that there is a progression in the manifestation of withdrawal, starting with relatively mild forms of psychological withdrawal and moving to more severe forms such as intent to leave. Researchers expect lateness to be affected by external ethical factors focusing on the short term like formal climate and distributive justice. Internal ethical factors focusing on the long term, like caring climate and procedural justice will affect severe withdrawal behaviors as absence and intent to leave (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 1999).

### **2.5.5.3 Attraction, Selection and Attrition Theory**

The theory of attraction, selection and attrition (ASA) was proposed by Schneider (1987) and it gives a lot of insight into the individual withdrawal behaviors. Attraction of employees towards certain organizations or jobs is mainly because of their belief that they can achieve a substantial fit. Employees develop withdrawal behaviors when they fall short of meeting the expectations and become a misfit in their environment. Therefore, the employees who stay with the organization have similar characteristics and constitute a more homogenous group than at the start. This phenomenon forces organization to restrict their recruitment to only those individuals that they believe would fit the organizational culture (Schneider, 1987). Research done by O'Reilly et al. (1991) proved that newcomers who hold a related profile of values of the organization develop a higher commitment to the organization. They are more fulfilled with their

job and display lower turnover intentions. Apart from that, Chatman (1991) found that high individual - organization fit has a negative correlation with intent to leave the organization.

#### **2.5.5.4 Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect Theory**

Even though exit-voice-loyalty-neglect model was originally developed to categorize and understand employee responses, it provides a useful framework for exploring employee withdrawal responses. Exit includes behaviors directed towards leaving the organization such as looking for a new job or resigning. Voice consists of any attempt to change, rather than escape from the dissatisfying situation. Loyalty is characterized by passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve. Neglect consists of reducing work effort, paying less attention to quality, and increasing absenteeism and lateness (Withey & Cooper, 1989).

#### **2.5.6 Models of Withdrawal Behaviors.**

##### **2.5.6.1 Major theoretical constructs of Withdrawal Behaviors**

Researchers have been inquisitive about the associations between different forms of work withdrawal. Conceptually, understanding such relations explains very clearly what is meant by withdrawal. Realistically, such understanding may help us to forecast one form of withdrawal from the occurrence of another. Even though connections among lateness, absence and turnover have been most studied, the withdrawal rubric might be extended to include psychological detachment, reduction in role performance, decreased organizational citizenship, choice of part time work, or early retirement (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990).

Five major theoretical constructs have been proposed for depicting the association between various withdrawal behaviors: independent, spillover, compensatory, and progression (Johns, 1994; Koslowsky, Sagie, Krausz & Singer, 1997).

#### **2.5.6.1.1 Independent model**

Independent model states that withdrawal behaviors have various causes and functions, and should as a result be unconnected to each other and therefore employees can opt to choose different forms of withdrawal (Hulin, 1991). In the area of lateness, absence and turnover, the independent forms model can surely be ruled out, as Meta – analyses expose common attitudinal correlations and substantial positive correlations between the different forms of withdrawal at the individual level (Hom & Griffeth, 1995).

#### **2.5.6.1.2 Spill over model**

The spillover model states that withdrawal behaviors are positively linked, without specifying any temporal or sequential relationship (Beehr & Gupta, 1978). Therefore, an employee may react to certain predictors with a bundle of withdrawal behaviors rather than with just one (Koslowsky et al., 1997).

#### **2.5.6.1.3 Alternate model**

This model states that if the occurrence of one form of withdrawal is constrained, a substitute form will manifest. The basis of this theory lies in the idea that the incapacity to react to dissatisfaction with one form of

withdrawal will increase the occurrence of another form in future (Rosse, 1988).

#### **2.5.6.1.4 Compensatory model**

According to this model, the similar functionality causes specific forms of withdrawal have a negative relationship (Nicolson & Goodge, 1976). In simple terms, this model argues that any act of withdrawal reduces dissatisfaction and thus brings down the probability of some other act.

#### **2.5.6.1.5 Progressive model**

This model is the most popular of all and states that manifestation of withdrawal happens in progression, starting with comparatively lighter forms of psychological withdrawal and then moving to more severe forms such as intent to leave (Koslowsky et al., 1997). Many researches have shown a progression from absence to turnover and argued that the progression was mediated by reduced job satisfaction.

To conclude, there is not a clear single model available in the literature that depicts the relations between the different withdrawal behaviors and the findings are actually somewhat vague. There is a contention among the researchers on the issue with some reporting no relationship (Ross, 1988), others reporting negative relationships (Nicolson & Goodge, 1976), another group reporting positive relationships (Iverson & Deery, 2001; Leigh & Lust, 1988), while still others claim that there is no steady relationship between them and they can occur concurrently (Benson & Pond, 1987; Wolpin, Burke, Kraus & Freibach, 1988).

### 2.5.6.2 Models of commitment – turnover relationship mediated by withdrawal cognition

Eight structural equation models were specified to estimate the unique effect of all three forms of commitment on turnover, mediated by withdrawal cognitions (MacCallum, Wegener, Uchino & Fabrigar, 1993).

**Table 2.2.** Models of commitment – turnover relationship mediated by withdrawal cognition

Model name	Author	Description of model
<b>Traditional theory</b>	Mobley et al. (1978)	According to the model, affective, continuance and normative commitment substitutes job satisfaction as the direct antecedents of withdrawal.
<b>The withdrawal variables trimmed</b>	Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian (1974)	This model proposed by Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian (1974) specifies direct effects between each form of commitment and turnover, with no moderating withdrawal variables.
<b>Thinking of quitting, search trimmed</b>	Farkas & Tetrick, 1989	Recent research has suggested that only intent to leave stage separates the forms of organizational commitment and decision to quit (Williams & Hazer, 1986). This model tests for the likelihood that the withdrawal process consists of one intervening variable, intent to leave.
<b>Search trimmed</b>	Spencer, Steers and Mowday (1983)	This model is similar to model 1 except that a direct path is shown from thinking of quitting to intent to leave, cutting short the search intentions variables.
<b>Thinking of quitting trimmed</b>	Bluedorn (1982)	Bluedorn (1982) suggested that model proposed by Mobley et al. (1978) could be enhanced by removing thinking of quitting. In view of that, this model specifies direct relationship between the commitment variables and intent to search, trimming thinking of quitting.
<b>Spurious Correlation</b>	(Bollen, 1989)	This model depicts the associations among thinking of quitting, intent to search, and intent to leave as spurious correlations resulting from their combined reliance on the three forms of commitments. The notion of causality among the withdrawal variables will become suspicious if this model cannot be rejected.
<b>Reciprocal</b>	(Mobley et al., 1978)	This model describes reciprocal relationships among the withdrawal process variables rather than specifying sequential stages of withdrawal

<b>causality</b>		(Mobley et al., 1978). The concept of ruminative thought can be considered similar to reciprocal causality.
<b>Constrained latent correlation</b>	Hom and Griffeth (1991)	This model describes the withdrawal variables as indicators of an unmeasured latent factor – withdrawal tendency. It is similar to cognitive psychologists’ portrayal of human psychological process that stress vague, general orientations and a lack of distinction making in everyday life.

### **2.5.7 Antecedents of Withdrawal Behaviors**

Researchers have accepted withdrawal intentions as a strong predictor of an employee’s actual behavior (Mobley, 1982). The reason for turnover intentions was accepted to have a direct effect on actual turnover and show a strong influence compared to other variables. Studies done by Hom (1992) exhibited a strong correlation among intentions to quit and actual turnover. Turnover intention is the last cognitive variable having a direct causal impact on turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1982). Employees with high withdrawal intentions have admitted that they will be leaving the organization in the near future (Mowday et al., 1984).

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment played an integral part in the theoretical models of labor turnover and retention (Winterton, 2004; Price, 2001) and are often considered as the key psychological antecedents in research studies investigating employee withdrawal (Georgellis and Lange, 2007). Extensive literature review supports the fact that both job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment predict employee exit intentions and subsequent turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993). But, Meta analytic reviews normally report slightly larger effect size estimates for affective organizational commitment than for job satisfaction,

a pattern that is borne out in individual studies that have incorporated both constructs (Winterton, 2004).

### **2.5.8 Outcomes of Withdrawal Behaviors**

Withdrawal behavior literature has considered constructs such as considering leaving the organization, considering looking for another organization to join, and actually leaving the organization as a part of the main variable. The manifestation of these constructs is evident in activities such as increased absenteeism, increased tardiness, and decreased productivity (Carmeli, 2005). If left unmonitored, these behaviors may worsen into overt acts of disrespect of supervisors, interference with coworkers, and destruction of organizational property. Employees have a tendency to display these negative reactions when they experience feelings of procedural injustice, coupled with feelings of interpersonal and information injustices (Kickul, 2001).

General theory of planned behavior states that behavioral intention is a good antecedent of actual behavior. Since many previous studies proved that behavioral intention to leave is steadily correlated with turnover, usually actual turnover is substituted by the term turnover intention (Mobley et al., 1978). According to Mobley et al. (1978), a better explanation of turnover is presented by intentions because they encompass individual's perception and judgment. The harmful effects of the withdrawal behavior on organizations are evident from ongoing researches (Carmeli, 2005; Hart, 2005; Koslowsky, 2009; Ulrich et al., 2007) which show evidence stating that these withdrawal behaviors arise from avoidable causes resulting from perceived unjust situations, which reduce organizational effectiveness.



Employees exhibiting similar attitudes and behaviors have a tendency to directly or indirectly reduce their effort at work, which may reflect an unethical perspective in the organization (Shaw, Gupta & Delery, 2005).

### **2.5.9 Summary**

Therefore, it is crucial for organizations to understand the importance of employee withdrawal process. Even though literature is rife with conceptual and empirical studies on employees' withdrawal process, researchers should explore more into this concept to provide better understanding of various aspects of the constructs of withdrawal intentions. Many experts suggest that it can be achieved if we focus our efforts on investigating the multiple dimensions of withdrawal intentions; yet it has not been tested.

## **2.6 Conceptual focus of the study**

Having presented the existing and significant literature on the core and allied concepts that go into the making of the thematic content of the proposed research, an attempt is now channelized towards portraying a theoretical framework that affords the focus and structure to the pragmatic validation anticipated in the current study. From the observations made about the constructs, the conceptual model was developed as shown in the Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1. The dependant variable for the study was Employee Withdrawal Behaviors. High Involvement Work Processes are selected as the independent variable with Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment mediating its relationship with Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

**Table 2.3** The nature of variables of the study

SI No	Variables of the study	Descriptions
1	Socio – demographic	Background
2	High Involvement Work Processes	Independent
3	Job Satisfaction	Mediating
4	Organizational Commitment	Mediating
5	Employee Withdrawal Behaviors	Dependant

**Figure 2.6** Diagrammatic Representation of the Conceptual Model

Previous researches provide valuable Information to suggest and legitimize an integrated model to proposed linkages among High Involvement Work Processes, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

## 2.7 Research Hypothesis

Based on the theoretical focus and deducing from the conceptual focus adopted, the researcher formulated the following forty seven hypotheses on the anticipatory relationship among the variables in the

study. These hypotheses relates to employee population confined to IT firms in Kerala.

Hypotheses relating demographical variables and High Involvement Work Processes are given below. There are many rationales for opting these hypotheses.

A research done by NASSCOM in 2007 showed that most of the firms who participated in the study concentrated on building a gender inclusive atmosphere. After one year, the attention was switched to initiatives such as career enhancement opportunity, gender neutral strategies, grievance policies and compensation management. It is worthy to note that while the pace of embracing these initiatives has come down, all of them started in 2007 is still continued (NASSCOM Annual Report, 2010). This is the rationale behind considering gender for study.

H1 – There is a significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender.

H2 – There is a significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender.

H3 – There is a significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender.

H4 – There is a significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender.

Within India's software Industry, the larger companies offer excellent working environment with employees showered with various benefits. The rapid changes in the organizational structure has resulted in senior employees in the age group of 31-35 experiencing higher levels of Power

dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees. These are the reasons why age is considered for the study.

H5 – There is a significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Age.

H6 – There is a significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Age.

H7 – There is a significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Age.

H8 – There is a significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Age.

New recruits at graduate level tend to get a lot of similar programs to enhance their knowledge about the job and the organization. This might be the reason why employees with graduation perceived higher levels of Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to employees with post-graduation and doctorate (TCS Corporate Sustainability Report, 2008-09). These are the reason why researcher considered education for the study.

H9 – There is a significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification.

H10 – There is a significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification.

H11 – There is a significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification.

H12 – There is a significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification.

Large IT firms are well aware about the importance of retaining employees. For example, Infosys enjoys high financial growth rates, but at the same time faces the continuous need for skilled professionals. The reason behind this phenomenon is the high turnover rates experienced by the company with an Infosys employee's average tenure being only about two years which is slightly higher than the industry turnover rates (NASSCOM Annual Report, 2014). This is why tenure is considered for the study.

H13 – There is a significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure.

H14 – There is a significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure.

H15 – There is a significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure.

H16 – There is a significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure.

Research done by Drucker (1988) has already established evidence stating that intelligible data is vital to the effective functioning of organizations. This according to researches is critical for motivated employees who make decisions matching organizational strategies, gives vertical operational intelligence and participate in decision making in meaningful ways (Miller & Monge, 1986; Scully, et al., 1995). Employees can see the big picture only when they know their jobs and the operation of the organization. That

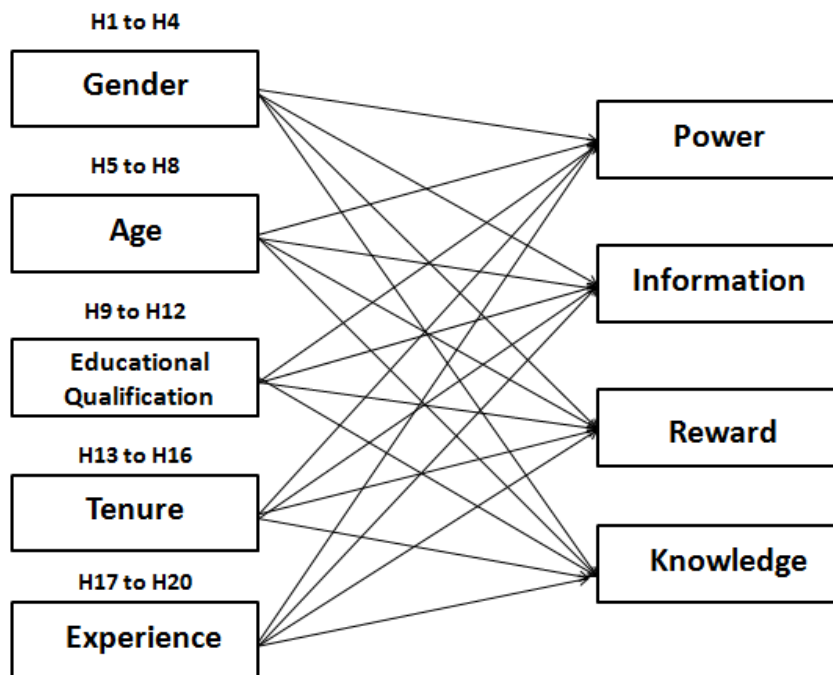
is the reason why experience of an employee is considered to be crucial and the same is considered for the study.

H17 – There is a significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience.

H18 – There is a significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience.

H19 – There is a significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience.

H20 – There is a significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience.



**Figure 2.7.** Diagrammatic representation of hypotheses relating demographical variables and High Involvement Work Processes

The rationale for selecting hypotheses relating High Involvement Work Processes and Job Satisfaction are as follows.

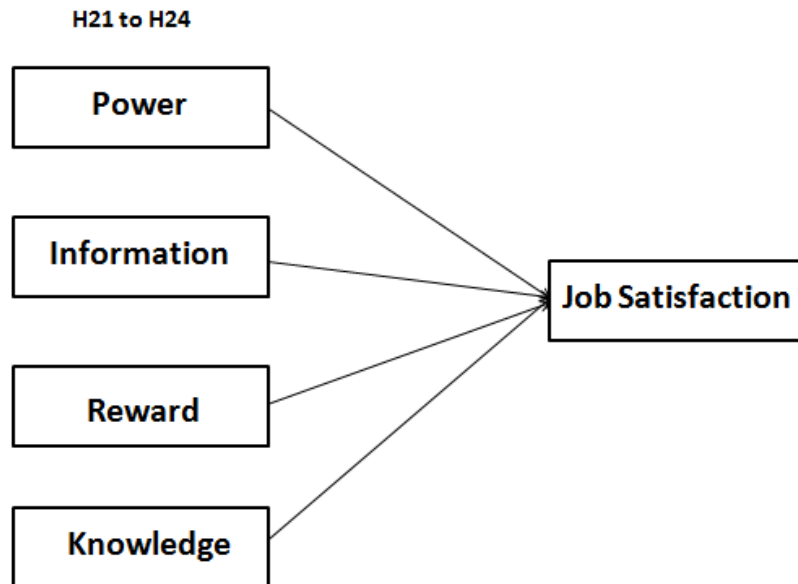
There is enough literature support for the positive relationship between High Involvement Work Processes and Job Satisfaction. According to Riordan and Vandenberg (1999), involving work can be beneficial to the individual and the organization. In the previous discussion of the cognitive evaluation theory, it was explained that HIWP produces the purported benefits to the individual and the organization through the creation of work situations that are both intrinsically motivating and are also providing appropriate extrinsic rewards.

H21– Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction.

H22 – Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction.

H23 – Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction.

H24 – Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction.



**Figure 2.8.** Diagrammatic representation of hypotheses relating High Involvement Work Processes and Job Satisfaction

The rationale for selecting hypotheses relating High Involvement Work Processes and Organizational Commitment are given below.

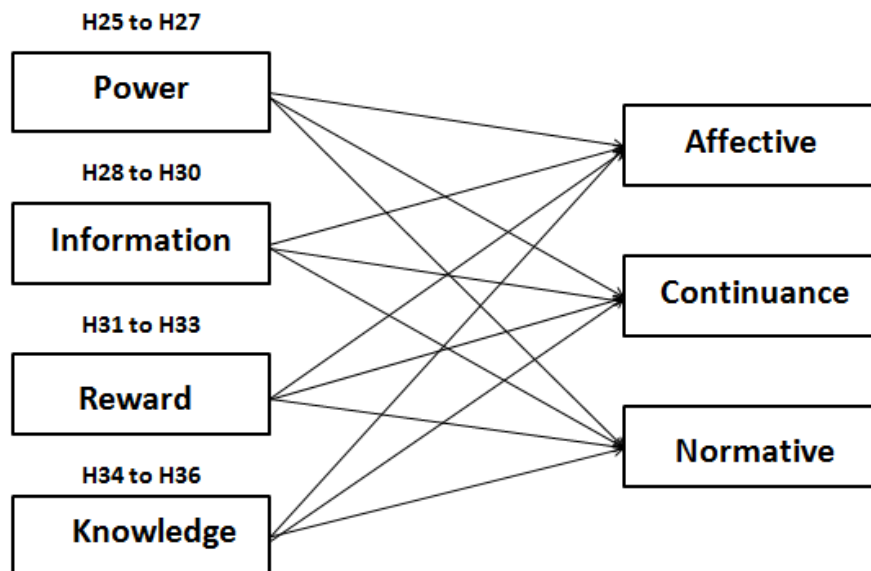
According to Meyer & Allen (1997), the antecedent research on Affective commitment states that there is possible universal appeal for those work circumstances where employees are justly treated and their contributions are well appreciated. Continuance Commitment can result from any action or event that enhances the costs of quitting, provided the employee recognizes that these costs have been incurred. The level of Continuance Commitment of IT employees tends to be low since they have ample opportunities available. According to Wiener (1982), development of Normative Commitment to the organization happens as a result of the pressures that individuals feel during their early socialization and during their socialization as newcomers to the organization.



- H25 – Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment.
- H26 – Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment.
- H27 – Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment.
- H28 – Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment.
- H29 – Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment.
- H30 – Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment.
- H31 – Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment.
- H32 – Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment.
- H33 – Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment.
- H34 – Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment.

H35 – Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment.

H36 – Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment.



**Figure 2.9.** Diagrammatic representation of hypotheses relating High Involvement Work Processes and Organizational Commitment

The rationale for selecting hypotheses relating Job Satisfaction and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors are given below.

Previous studies have found a strong inverse association between overall Job Satisfaction and withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism (Oldham et al., 1986). Research done by Waters & Roach showed that there is a

significant relationship between the frequency of absence and overall Job Satisfaction (Waters & Roach, 1971). Hrebiniak & Roteman (1973) noted a considerable correlation between job dissatisfaction and the number of days absent from the job.

H37 – Job satisfaction has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.



**Figure 2.10.** Diagrammatic Representation of hypotheses relating Job Satisfaction and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

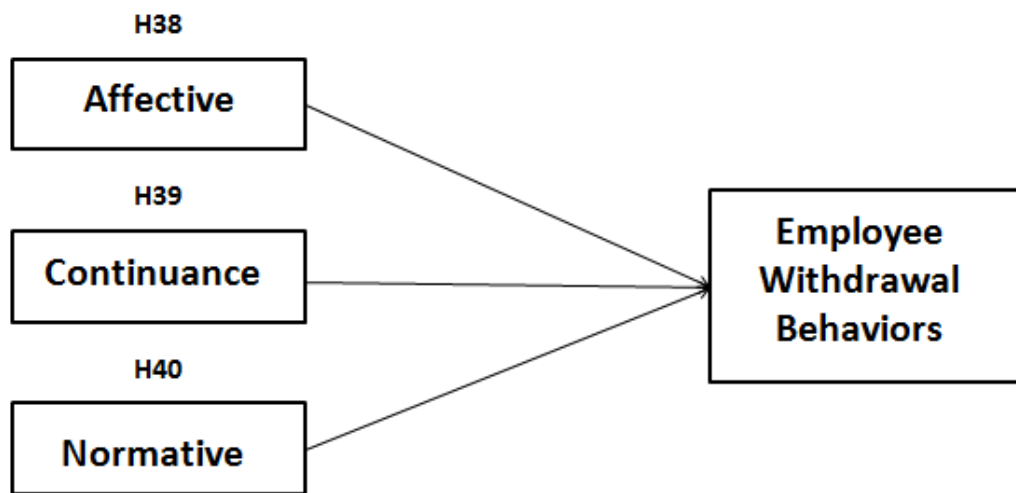
The rationale for selecting hypotheses relating Organizational Commitment and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors are given below.

It is a common notion that committed employees have a strong desire to stay with their organizations. They will be more willing to put the effort in order to achieve organizational goals and values, and more likely to avoid the option of withdrawal or exit. As a result, employees who are really committed to the organization contribute to its overall effectiveness by bringing down the costs incurred from high turnovers (Ivancevich et al., 1997), and increasing job performance and productivity (Mottaz, 1988; Naumann, 1993).

H38 – Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

H39 – Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

H40 – Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.



**Figure 2.11.**Diagrammatic representation of hypotheses relating Organizational Commitment and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

The rationale for selecting hypotheses relating Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment are given below.

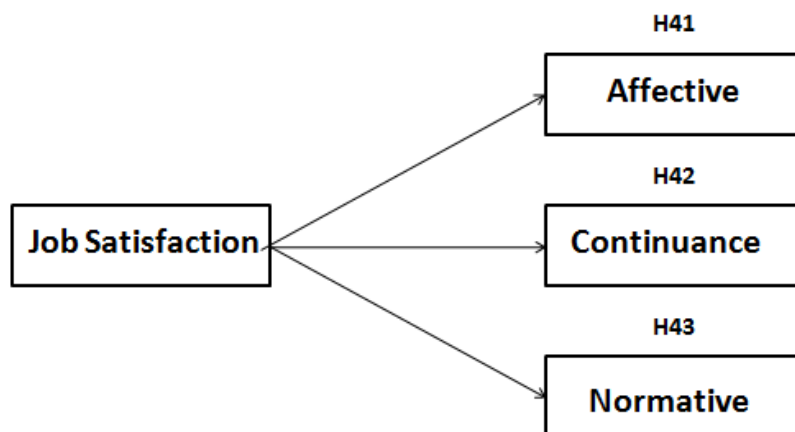
Job Satisfaction has a strong positive effect on the creation of Organizational Commitment among the employees. Job satisfaction creates a positive state of mind in employees (Smith, 1983) which in turn motivates them to give back to their organization through Organizational Commitment. According to Mottazz (1988), the important determinants of Organizational Commitment are job autonomy, job involvement, wage, and promotional opportunities. Literature has

enough proof of the positive relationship between Job Satisfaction and commitment (Glisson & Durick, 1988).

H41 – Job satisfaction has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment.

H42– Job satisfaction has a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment.

H43 – Job satisfaction has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment.



**Figure 2.12.** Diagrammatic representation of hypotheses relating Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

The rationale for selecting hypotheses relating High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors is given below.

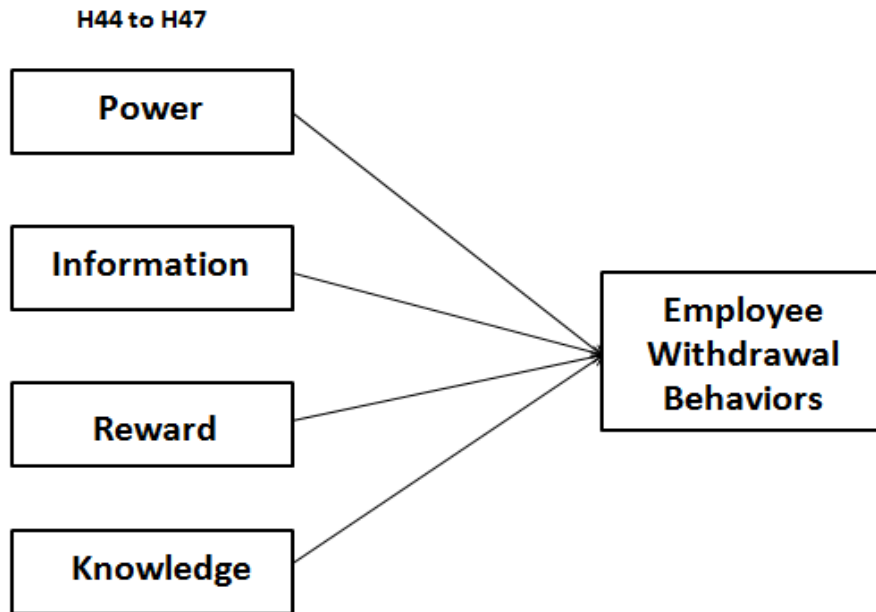
Research done by Shaw et al. (1998) stated that low job control and high demand in turn influence withdrawal cognitions and resignations which results in the inverse relationship between power and turnover intention (Magner, Welker & Johnson, 1996). Apart from that, power allows greater influence over work scheduling and it has a negative relationship with absenteeism. When the employees are kept in the dark, they feel less happy in their work and are more likely to create false equity comparisons in the absence of objective data, and thus absenteeism and the relationship between absenteeism and turnover intentions with information tend to be negative (Price, 1977).

H44 – Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

H45 – Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

H46 – Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

H47 – Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.



**Figure 2.13.** Diagrammatic representation of hypotheses relating High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors





## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

<i>Contents</i>	3.1	Definitions.
	3.2	Basic Research Design.
	3.3	Tools of data collection.
	3.4	Validity Analysis.
	3.5	Reliability Analysis.
	3.6	Scope of the study.
	3.7	Data Collection.
	3.8	Population of the study.
	3.9	Selection of Unit of observation.
	3.10	Sample size and sampling method.
	3.11	Statistical Analysis and Validation.

*This chapter tries to give a detailed explanation regarding the terms and variables, which go into the formulation of the basic conceptual framework of the study. This section also deals with basic research design, tools of data collection and validity and reliability tests. Apart from this, this part consists of scope of the study, data collection, population, selection of units of observation, sample size and sampling method and statistical analysis and validation.*

### 3.1 Definitions of variables used in the study

#### 3.1.1 High Involvement Work Processes

**Theoretical definition** – Researchers have defined High Involvement Work Processes as an organization-wide system of mutually reinforcing

processes that tries to enhance organizational effectiveness by leveraging on an organization's human resources through the extensive, culturally driven involvement of employees in top level institutional activities and decisions (Richardson & Vandenberg, 2001).

**Operational definition** - It is the perceived extent to which the High Involvement Work Processes elements of Power, Information, Reward and Knowledge (PIRK) are experienced by the employees of IT firms obtained by using the 32 item questionnaire by Vandenberg et al. (1999).

### 3.1.2 Job Satisfaction

**Theoretical definition** – Edwin A Locke's Range of Affect Theory is the most widely accepted model for job satisfaction. The fundamental hypothesis of this theory is that satisfaction can be determined by an incongruity between what one desires and what one has in a job. The basic assumption of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by an incongruity between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job.

**Operational definition** – Job satisfaction is a multidimensional construct that consists of overall satisfaction as well as a variety of job satisfaction facets. It describes a person's general emotional reaction to a group of work and work related factors which are measured by the six item questionnaire of Brayfield&Rothe (1951).

### **3.1.3 Organizational Commitment**

**Theoretical definition** – Organizational Commitment can be theoretically defined as a psychological association between the employee and his or her organization that reduces the probability of employee voluntarily leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Literature classifies organizational commitment into three categories termed as affective, continuance and normative. According to Kanter (1968), affective commitment can be defined as the attachment of an individual's fund of affectivity and emotion to the group. Hrebiniak&Alutto (1972) defines continuance commitment as a structural phenomenon, which occurs as a result of employee - institution transactions and alterations in side bets or investments over time. Normative commitment is the commitment employees consider ethically right to stay in the organization, regardless of how much status improvement or satisfaction the firm gives him or her over the years. (Marsh & Mannari, 1977).

**Operational definition** – Operationally, Organizational Commitment is defined as the sense of belongingness that an individual has to the organization, his loyalty and his obligation to remain with the organization. The affective, continuance and normative commitment experienced by employees were measured using the 18 item scale developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993).

### **3.1.4 Employee Withdrawal Behaviors**

**Theoretical definition** - Many conventional theories including equity theory, inducements– contributions theory and social exchange theory

acknowledge the role of withdrawal behaviours as a way by which employees can withhold inputs from an organization. Withdrawal behaviours can be defined as a group of attitudes and behaviours deployed by employees when they stay on the job but for some reason decide to be less participative.

**Operational definition** – In the present study, the withdrawal behaviours are broadly classified into job and work withdrawals. Job withdrawal consists of a group of behaviours exhibited by dissatisfied individuals to avoid the work environments; they are behaviours designed to allow avoidance of participation in dissatisfying work environments (Hulin, 1991). Work withdrawal consists of a group of behaviours exhibited by dissatisfied individuals to avoid aspects of their specific work role or minimizing the time spent on their specific work tasks while being a member of the organization (Hanisch&Hulin, 1991). Employee withdrawal behaviours were measured using the 18 item scale developed by Hanisch&Hulin (1991).

### 3.2 Basic Research Design

The present research has employed both descriptive and explanatory methodologies in the study. The study tries to describe the distribution of employees who have different levels of perception regarding High Involvement Work Processes in their respective firms and the distributions in terms of the criterion factors of HR outcome variables. The study intends to explain the precedent outcome linkages among the factors of both High Involvement Work Processes and HR outcome variables. Further, the data

were employed to strike a balance among the factors of the independent and dependent variables with the help of Structural Equation Modeling and it is thus explanatory in nature.

### **3.3 Tools of data collection**

#### **3.3.1 Questionnaire on High Involvement Work Processes**

This tool was designed by Riordan and Vandenberg (1999) to assess the perception of employees on the High Involvement Work Processes of selected three organizations along the four dimensions of Power, Information, Reward and Knowledge. The final version of the scale consisted of a total number of 32 items with 7 items for Power, 10 items for Information, 7 items for Reward and 8 items for Knowledge. Each part of the questionnaire used a 5 – point Likert rating scale for each dimension of HIWP. The range of the total score possible on the scale was 32 to 128. The split – half reliability coefficient for the four HIWP dimensions Power, Information, Reward and Knowledge, using the Spearman – Brown formula, was found to be 0.764, 0.803, 0.683 and 0.852.

#### **3.3.2 Questionnaire on Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction was measured using the 6 item scale developed by Brayfield&Rothe (1951). Even though the original version consists of 18 items, an abridged version which employs six items to calculate the global job satisfaction has been used effectively by a number of researchers including Agho et al. (1992). Indeed, he cites the studies of Price & Mueller (1981), Sorenson (1985) and Wakefield (1982) who have found the six item scale both reliable and valid: In their study, Agho, Price & Mueller (1992) reported a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of 0.090. The respondents were

asked to specify their response with each of the items listed in the questionnaire using a 4 point scale. The split – half reliability coefficient for job satisfaction using the Spearman – Brown formula, was found to be 0.80.

### **3.3.3 Questionnaire on Organizational Commitment**

Organizational Commitment was measured using the original Organizational Commitment Scale developed by Meyer & Allen (1991). It consisted of 18 items with three subscales each of which measure different dimensions of organizational commitment. Respondents were asked to specify their response to each of the items listed in the questionnaire using a 7-point scale. The split – half reliability coefficient for the affective, continuance and normative dimensions of commitment using the Spearman – Brown formula, was found to be 0.783, 0.639 and 0.770.

### **3.3.4 Questionnaire on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors**

Employee withdrawal behaviours were measured using the 18 item scale developed by Hanisch & Hulin (1990). It consisted of 18 items with 2 subscales each of which measures the two different dimensions of employee withdrawal behaviors (i.e., job and work withdrawal behaviours). For the job withdrawal behaviors scale, respondents were asked to specify their appropriate response to the 6 items listed in the questionnaire. For the work withdrawal behavior scale, respondents were asked to indicate their incidence of involving in withdrawal behaviors denoted by 12 items in the questionnaire using an 8 point scale ranging from 1 denoting “Never” and 8 denoting “More than once per week”. The split – half reliability coefficient for employee withdrawal behaviors using the Spearman – Brown formula, was found to be .656.

### **3.4 Validity Analysis**

Validity indicates that conclusions drawn and propositions claimed are truthful (Zarit, Stephens & Femia, 2003). Different validity terms are used to illustrate the various aspects of validity. Any research instrument should be tested for validity so that it could be used for meaningful analysis. The initial validity tests namely content validity and face validity were performed for the draft questionnaire as explained below.

#### **3.4.1 Content validity**

Content validity of an instrument depicts the extent to which it gives an adequate illustration of the conceptual domain that it is designed to cover. In the case of content validity, the evidence is biased and rational, rather than statistical. Content validity can be achieved if the items representing the different constructs of the tool are supported by a detailed review of the pertinent literature. The instrument had been developed on the basis of a detailed review and analysis of the pragmatic literature, so as to ensure the content validity.

#### **3.4.2 Face validity**

Generally, a measure is considered to have ‘face validity’ if the items are logically related to the purported purpose of the measure. The draft questionnaire was given to five industry experts and five academic experts. They were briefed about the purpose of the study and its scope. The experts were requested to scrutinize the questionnaire and to give their impressions regarding the relevance of the contents of the questionnaire. They were requested to critically assess the questionnaire and give unbiased feedback and suggestions with regard to the comprehensiveness/coverage, redundancy

level, consistency and number of items in each variable. They had to suggest necessary changes by simplifying, rewording, removing, replacing and supplementing the items. Based on the feedback from experts, the researcher modified the draft questionnaire. This resulted in a new questionnaire, referred to as 'pilot questionnaire'.

The validity of a scale can be assessed in several ways. There are several categorization systems used (e.g., face, content, predictive, concurrent, criterion, construct, convergent, discriminant, and nomological), however most researchers assess validity of their scale through subjective (i.e., face and content), criterion, or construct validation procedures (Singh and Rhoads, 1991). Ultimately no one of them alone is entirely satisfactory; however, it is possible to have a fair idea of the validity of a scale through an assessment of it using two or more different means.

In establishing the factorial validity of the measurement model in PLS, convergent and discriminant validities were employed (Gefen & Straub, 2005). For capturing the convergent validity of the scale by PLS, the average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct is measured. It indicates the construct's variance as explained by all its indicators together. For establishing the discriminant validity of scales used in a model, checking is done to find out whether the square root of AVE of a construct is greater than the inter-construct correlation between the construct concerned and other constructs present in the model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

### **3.4.3 Pilot test**

The pilot test was carried out among a convenient sample of 45 IT employees from TCS, Infosys and Wipro with at least one year of



experience in the firm. The goal of this exercise was to obtain a general assessment of the questionnaire's appearance, to further remove items that did not contribute significantly to the value of the instrument, and to understand the underlying dimensions of the constructs under study.

The data collected from the pilot group were first scrutinized to find out the no response questions. If more than 80 % of the respondents did not respond to a question, it was identified as a candidate to be removed or reworded. None of the questions were identified in this category and all the questions were qualified for the final questionnaire.

### **3.5 Reliability Analysis**

High degrees of instrument reliability point out that instrument's score is stable and consistent (Creswell, 2005). High degrees of instrument reliability suggest the occurrence of similar results under rater situations that are comparable, related, or nearly identical (Neuman, 2006). Reliability measures the degree a test produces identical results given similar test conditions (Obayashi, Bianchi & Song, 2003).

Out of the several methods to establish the reliability of a measuring instrument, the internal consistency method is supposed to be the most effective one. In this method, reliability is defined as internal consistency, which is the extent of inter – correlation among the items that constitute a scale (Nunnally, 1978). A reliability coefficient called Cronbach's alpha is used to calculate internal consistency (Cronbach, 1951). It depicts the extent to which a tool gives consistent results (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Posner

(1980) reported that Cronbach's alpha above .60 represent satisfactory reliability levels.

In the current study, the reliability was tested by computing Cronbach's alpha for all the factors as well as for the entire set. The values of Cronbach's alpha for various factors are given in the Table 3.2. As seen from the table, all the factors had the Cronbach's alpha value above .70, which testified the reliability of the entire set.

**Table 3.1.** Reliability analysis of different variables of the study

SI No	Factors	No. of items	Cronbach's alpha
1.	High Involvement Work Processes	32	.936
2.	Job Satisfaction	6	.857
3.	Organizational Commitment	18	.888
4.	Employee Withdrawal Behaviours	18	.780
	Overall	74	.830

### 3.6 Scope of the study

The scope of the study defines the boundaries of the research. The four elements characterizing the scope of the study are defined as below:

**Population:** Primary data were collected from IT professionals and the population is defined as the IT professionals working in large IT firms with more than one year of work experience in that organization.

**Place of study:** The study was conducted in Info park, Cochin and Techno park, Trivandrum, both cities belonging to the state of Kerala in South India.

**Period of the study:** The research interest was to analyze the present scenario regarding the objectives. The period of data collection was from June 2014 to October 2014.

**Data Sources:** Major source of data was primary data collected from the IT professionals and secondary data were collected from the NASSCOM Directory. For review of literature, secondary data related to the variables of study (High Involvement Work Processes, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Employee Withdrawal Behaviours) were considered.

### **3.7 Data collection**

- a) Cochin and Trivandrum were taken as representative Tech parks of IT sector in Kerala.
- b) HR managers of the firms in the selected Tech parks were contacted with a request to take part in the study.
- c) Data collection was coordinated by the researcher with the help internal coordinators identified in each team.

The objective of the study was to explore the extent of High Involvement Work Processes in IT firms in Kerala and HR outcomes based on an empirical analysis. The extent of High Involvement Work Processes in IT firms is captured by measuring the perception of members in the selected organizations of High Involvement Work Processes. For measuring the perceptions of individuals or organizations on a particular subject, questionnaire survey has been generally recognized by researchers as an efficient tool. When it is desired to collect data from a large

number of firms, survey research is found to be cost and time effective method. Therefore, the present study adopted questionnaire survey for data collection.

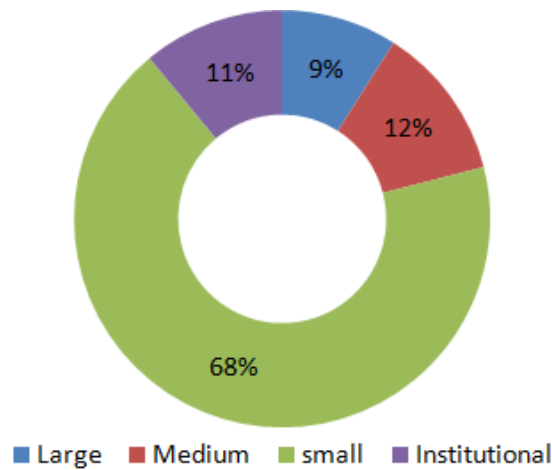
### **3.8 Population**

Focus of the researcher was on entry level employees. This was based on the rationale that all dimensions of high involvement work processes will be evident in the lowest level of the organizational structure if properly implemented. HIWP literature stresses a lot on whether the attributes are the exclusive privilege of only a few individuals in the firm or broadly distributed across all members of the organization (Lawler, 1996). According to Galbraith (1973), the four attributes of involvement such as power, information, reward, and knowledge (PIRK) is present in all organizations but are conventionally restricted to the individuals in the top of management and asserts that the mere existence of the attributes doesn't serve the purpose. For involvement to be high, the four attributes must be evenly distributed at all levels of the organization (Lawler, 1996) and employees must regard the PIRK attributes as operational characteristics of their jobs.

The population for the present study was specified through the progressive sequence as follows:

**Step 1** National Association of Software Companies (NASSCOM) is the most valued and acknowledged body of Indian IT industry. NASSCOM Database was used to create a list of IT firms from the respective selected Techparks (Technopark, Trivandrum and Infopark, Cochin).

**Step 2** From the NASSCOM database, all the large IT Firms were shortlisted based on the annual revenue of the company and years of existence. The segmentation of IT industry was obtained from the NASSCOM annual report for the year 2013-14. See Figure 3.2 for member’s distribution of IT firms by size as at the end of FY 2013-14. Table 3.3 gives the segmentation of IT Firms into large, medium and small.



Source: NASSCOM Annual Report 2013-14.

**Figure 3.1.** Member distributions of IT firms by size

**Table 3.2** Segmentation criteria of IT Firms

Category	Criteria
Large	Companies with more than 30 years of existence and with a gross revenue of over INR 200 crores.
Medium	Companies with more than 15 years of existence and with a gross revenue of between INR 50 – 200 crores.
Small	Companies with less than 15 years of experience and with a gross revenue of less than INR 50 crores.

Source: NASSCOM Annual Report 2013-14.

**Step 3** TCS, Infosys and Wipro were selected from the list of large IT firms based on the firm's market share. TCS is the market leader commanding about 10.1 percent of the total Indian IT sector's revenue. Top three firm shares around 24.8 % of total industry revenue. Details are given in Table 3.4.

**Table 3.3.** Market share of large IT Firms in India as on FY 2013-14

Sl No	Company	Market Share
1	TCS	10.1%
2	INFOSYS	7.7%
3	WIPRO	7.0%
4	COGNIZANT	6.1%
5	HCL TECH	4.3%
6	TECH MAHINDRA	1.1%

Source: NASSCOM Annual Report 2013-14.

**Step 4** 12 project teams with a team size of more than 25 were selected at random from the total number of employees in each company. The HR managers who facilitated the study in respective organizations helped the researcher to select the teams in random from the list of all the teams operating in the firms.

**Step 5** 10 members from each team were randomly selected by the researcher which constituted the sample for the study.

#### **Exclusion criteria**

- Small and medium IT firms were excluded because of literature support which revealed that it takes time for an organization to implement, improve and standardize High Involvement Work

Processes. For grass root level employees to experience High Involvement Work Processes, the organization has to be in existence for more than 25 years.

- Software professionals with experience of less than one year with the firm were excluded because of their limited exposure to organizational setting that influences their perception towards HIWP.

### 3.9 Selection of units of observation

- Multi stage simple random sampling was adopted to select the sample from the population.
- In all, 352 responses were collected from 3 firms. Detailed examination of the data based on incomplete or improper values resulted in the deletion of 40 records. Thus, the final data set had 312 usable records that comprise the total sample. A breakup of the sample units is given in Table 3.5.

**Table 3.4.** Details of sample collection

SI No	Name of companies participated	Number of questionnaires given	Number of responses received	Number of invalid responses	Final number of valid responses	Response rate
1	TCS	130	118	12	106	81.53
2	INFOSYS	130	112	12	100	76.92
3	WIPRO	130	122	16	106	81.53
	TOTAL	390	352	40	312	80.00

### **3.10 Sample size and Sampling method**

- Sample size was finalized by referring to Power analysis employed by Krishnan and Singh (2010) where by forming an explanatory Power of .80 and the  $f^2$  value of 0.02, it was observed that the sample size should be 287 but to avoid the problem of data inadequacy, researcher decided to go for the sample size of 300 samples.
- The sample adequacy was again confirmed by referring to Hoelter Index as part of the fit measures of the final Structural equation model of HIWP and HR outcomes. The Hoelter Index at 0.05 significance level showed 173 samples as sufficient whereas Hoelter Index at .01 significance level showed 197 samples as sufficient for the study. Hence the sample of 300 was found to be adequate.

### **3.11 Statistical analysis and validation**

The statistical package SPSS 20.0 was used for data editing, coding and basic analysis. ANOVA Test using SPSS and Structural Equation Modeling using WARP PLS software were employed for statistical analysis of the data and validation of various models. The researcher tried to test the integrative model for High Involvement Work Processes using Structural Equation Modeling with WARP PLS. In this thesis, PLS-SEM is adopted because the investigated phenomenon is comparatively new and measurement models needed to be newly developed.



**TEST OF HYPOTHESIS AND ANALYSIS OF  
CONCEPTUAL MODEL**

<i>Contents</i>	4.1 Data Records.
	4.2 Profile of the respondents.
	4.3 Classification of IT employees based on Gender.
	4.4 Classification of IT employees based on Age.
	4.5 Classification of IT employees based on Educational Qualification.
	4.6 Classification of IT employees based on Tenure.
	4.7 Classification of IT employees based on Experience.
	4.8 Influence of background variables on High Involvement Work Processes
	4.9 Impact of High Involvement Work Processes on Job Satisfaction
	4.10 Impact of High Involvement Work Processes on Organizational Commitment
	4.11 Impact of Job Satisfaction on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors
	4.12 Impact of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors
	4.13 Impact of Job Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment
	4.14 Impact of High Involvement Work Processes on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors
	4.15 Conclusion

*This chapter presents the empirical validation of the present research work and looks at the result of analysis using the data collected. The chapter begins with the sample profile, proceeds to provide insights into the perception of High Involvement Work Processes and consequences of these on selected HR outcome constructs and concludes with the result of testing of a series of hypotheses.*

## 4.1 Data Records

The researcher distributed 390 questionnaires to the employees of chosen three companies that had agreed to participate in the study. 352 filled questionnaires were collected and detailed examination of data resulted in deletion of 40 data records that were found invalid. Thus the final data had 312 usable records from the three companies. Table 4.1 gives the details.

**Table 4.1.** Details of Sample collection

SI No	Name of companies	Number of questionnaires given	Number of responses received	Number of invalid responses	Final number of valid responses	Response rate
1	TCS	130	118	12	106	81.53
2	INFOSYS	130	112	12	100	76.92
3	WIPRO	130	122	16	106	81.53
	TOTAL	390	352	40	312	

The table above shows that there is a good rate of response which varied from 77% to 82% range. The researcher had taken data from IT firms in Thiruvananthapuram and Kochi in the state of Kerala, India. Out of the three companies selected, Wipro and TCS were from Kochi and Infosys was from Thiruvananthapuram.

Out of the 352 records, 40 filled in questionnaires did not give the demographic Information and such data records were rejected as incomplete data, thus reducing the number of data records to 312. For deciding the data record size, Power analysis recommended by Krishnan and Singh (2010) was used. In this method, an explanatory Power of .80 and the  $f^2$  value of 0.02 warranted a sample size of 287. In order to satisfy the principle of sample sufficiency, the researcher decided to retain all the usable 312 data records.

## 4.2 Profile of the respondents

The number of IT professionals who took part in the research is given in the following table and it gives a detailed explanation of the profile of the respondents.

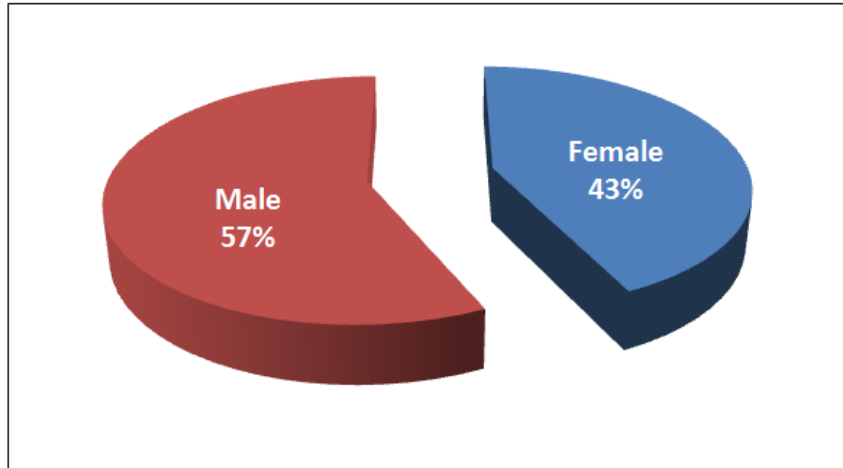
**Table 4.2.** Details of the respondents

IT Firm	Number of IT professionals	Percent
TCS	106	33.97
Infosys	100	32.05
Wipro	106	33.97
Total	312	100%

Table 4.2 shows that employees from all the three firms have a good representation of the total number of IT employees. While 206 of the respondents were employees of TCS and Wipro working in Infopark, Kochi, 106 of them were working for Infosys in Technopark, Thiruvananthapuram.

## 4.3 Classification of IT employees based on Gender

The IT industry in India has evolved as the largest employer in the private sector giving about 2.23 million direct employments. There has been a steady increase in the number of female employees working in the IT industry with 35% in 2006 to 36% in 2008 at the junior level (NASSCOM Annual report, 2009). The major factors that attract women workforce to the IT sector are a white-collar job with reasonably high salary, easy global mobility, flexible work routine and less physically demanding work environment. Out of the 312 respondents, 178 were men (57%) and the remaining 134 were women (43%). The details are given in the figure given below:



**Figure 4.1.** Classification of details based on the Gender of IT employees

A study done by Sylvia &Ripa (2010) stated that an unprecedented number of young women professionals are moving into IT industry. In recent years, IT industry in India has become a major source of employment for young Indian professionals. Since an unprecedented amount of young professionals moving into IT industry are women (women made up 42% of India's college graduates in 2010, and that figure was expected to continue to rise), IT companies are poised to be a leader in being women-friendly employers (Sylvia &Ripa, 2010). However, based on Data Quest's Best Employer Survey 2012, there is a gradual dip in the percentAge of women working in the IT industry in India from 26% in 2010 to 22% in 2012 even though there is an annual rise in the number of jobs created in this sector. These statistics point to a larger number of males available for employment than females and the comparatively static number of women employed in the IT sector. This trend can be elucidated using the concept of eco feminism, which argues that technology represents a way for

men to exercise their dominance over women (Van Zoonen, 1992). In this study, the women IT professionals formed 43% of the total employee population.

#### **4.4 Classification of IT Employees based on Age**

India has more working population within the age group of 15-59 years than dependent population and is poised to reap the demographic dividends. Since the median age of IT-BPO employee in India is 24 in 2011, IT industry is a major source of employment for young Indian professionals (Business Standard, 2011). Age is classified into four categories and data collection was done on the basis of these categories. The majority of the respondents came under 26-30 age category and the remaining were under the other three categories namely less than 26, 31-35 years and above 36. The classification details are given in the table 4.3.

**Table 4.3.** Age Group Classification of IT Employees

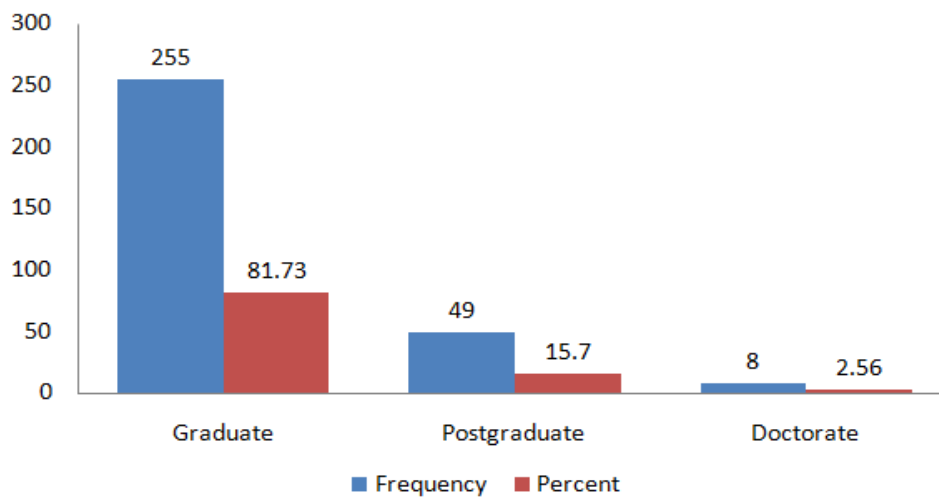
	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Less than 26</b>	125	40.06
<b>26-30</b>	151	48.39
<b>31-35</b>	34	11.21
<b>36 and above</b>	2	0.32

This table shows that more than 88 percent of the total sample falls into the two categories of less than 26 and 26-30 years. In other words, more than 88 percent of the respondents were below the age of 31. Based on the research done by Abraham (2007), the age of an employee can be considered as a proxy of his/her learning and professional network. It can be assumed that as the age of the employee increases, his experience and skill set enhances

accordingly, and this facilitates upgradation and acquisition of new skill sets also. It is difficult to retain employees in the age group of less than 30 years who form majority of the work force because of the manifold opportunities available to them and the shortage of Knowledge workers faced by IT industry.

#### 4.5 Classification of IT employees based on Educational Qualification

According to the NASSCOM report, it was estimated that the direct employment created in the IT-BPM sector in India has reached 3.1 million mark. The median Age of employees working in IT industry was 28.4 years with most of them having an engineering or computer science degree (NASSCOM annual report, 2014). The data collection for the present study was conducted among the employees who came from varied educational backgrounds. They were divided into three groups on the basis of their qualifications and it was found that most of the respondents (81.73%) were graduates.



**Figure 4.2** Classification of IT employees based on Educational Qualification

Figure 4.2 shows that there is a comparatively large representation of graduate employees (81.73%) as compared to the post graduate employees (15.7%) and employees with doctorate (2.56%).

Because of the shortage of engineering doctorates being awarded in India, there is a serious constraint on the ability to rapidly increase the output of trained software and computer engineers. The annual number of engineering PhDs is less than 1000. The overall growth rate from 1954 to 2005 has been at 8% per year. However in the mid-80s the number of PhDs was around 600 (Rai& Kumar, 2004). Since then there has been a reduction in the growth rate. Simultaneously, there is a slow rise in the number of engineers with postgraduate training from an approximate 12,000 in 1987-89 to an approximate 17,000 in 1990-92. Studies done in IITs show that there is a very large section of postgraduates entering the IT sector and in some cases as it was as many as 90% (Rai& Kumar, 2004).

#### **4.6 Classification of IT employees based on Tenure**

Organizational tenure of employees is commonly used as predictors or moderators in the field of turnover research (Van Breukelen et.al, 2004). A large number of studies state that there is a negative correlation between tenure and voluntary turnover. It can be deduced from the literature that employees with a long length of service are less prone to voluntary turnover than employees with a short length of service. Many researches focusing on the issue of elevated turnover among new employees have suggested that the first year of employment is critical in retaining them (Van Breukelen et.al, 2004). Therefore, it is important for organizations to make sure that new recruits are satisfied with work-related aspects.

Employees were categorized into four sets on the basis of the number of years of service and it was found that almost 87 percent of respondents had a tenure ranging from 1 to 6 years. It has to be noted that the largest majority belonged to the 1-3 years group which is an indication of the low retention rates in IT firms. Classification based on Tenure of IT employees is shown in Table 4.4.

**Table 4.4.** Classification based on Tenure of IT employees

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>1– 3 years</b>	143	45.83
<b>3 – 6 years</b>	129	41.34
<b>6 – 9 years</b>	32	10.25
<b>Above 9 years</b>	8	2.56

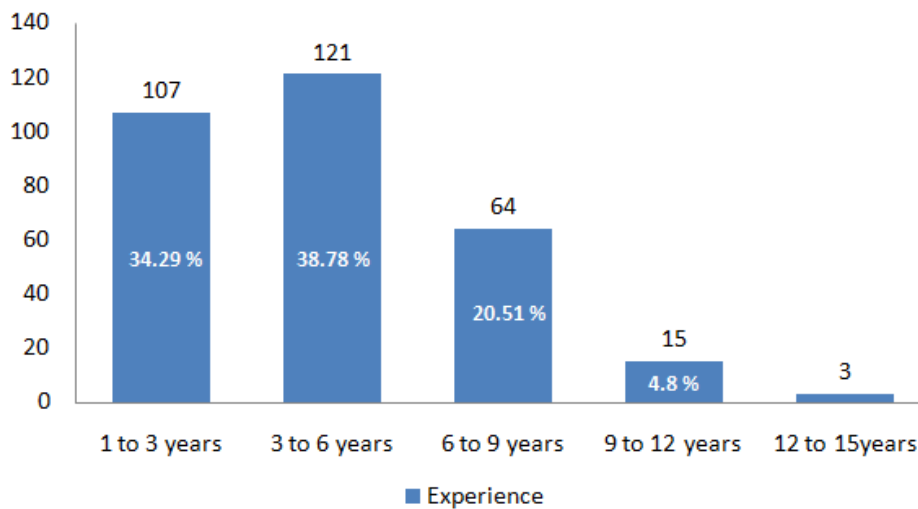
Based on existing statistics within the technology industry as a whole, the average length of employment is 2.7 to 3 years. Apart from that, annual turnover rates of 30-40% are not uncommon in IT sector (Kinsey-Goman, 2000). In addition, IT professionals who are already employed feel no qualms about leaving the job for a better offer (Joinson, 1999) and taking their Knowledge with them. Due to high Organizational competition for scare human resources, firms are facing the constant threat of employee poaching which leads to low employee tenure in IT industry.

#### **4.7 Classification of IT employees based on Experience**

The data collected also covered the total years of Experience of the respondents. They were classified into five sets on the basis of their experience in number of years. The data revealed that more than half of the



respondents (73%) had experience below six years. Only less than five percent had more than nine years of experience. Classification of IT employees based on Experience is shown in figure 4.3.



**Figure 4.3.** Classification of IT employees based on Experience

Employees having the right kind of Knowledge, skills and abilities become competent Organizational performers and therefore have a wide range of opportunities. In this sense, employees with more years of experience are an invaluable asset and therefore to be retained. Aggressive competition between organizations for skilled talent has resulted in escalated salary and benefits package for skilled professionals. It is also natural that skilled employees expect superior Organizational retention policies to be in place since they are aware about their leverage in the labor market.

To sum up, the above demographic analyses show that population of male employees were slightly more than the female employees and also graduates made the major portion of the human resource in IT firms. Majority of the IT employees were below 30 years of Age and had tenure of less than 6 years in these IT companies. Most of them had a total professional experience of less than six years in their respective organization.

### **Explanation of ANOVA**

ANOVA is used to compare differences of means among more than 2 groups. It does this by looking at variation in the data and where that variation is found (hence its name). Specifically, ANOVA compares the amount of variation between groups with the amount of variation within groups. It can be used for both observational and experimental studies. The type of ANOVA run depends on a number of factors. It is applied when data needs to be experimental. In an ANOVA, a researcher first sets up the null and alternative hypothesis. The null hypothesis assumes that there is no significant difference among the groups. The alternative hypothesis assumes that there is a significant difference among the groups. After cleaning the data, the researcher must test the above assumptions and examine if the data meets or violates the assumptions. With the help of ANOVA, a proper analysis was conducted to find out the relationship between dichotomous independent variables such as gender and multi-chotomous independent variables such as tenure, educational qualification and experience.

## **4.8 Influence of background variables on High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

### **4.8.1 Influence of Gender on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

#### **4.8.1.1 Influence of Gender on Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H1 which was about the significant difference in Power dimension of HIWP across Gender. H1 was stated as:

H1 - There is a significant difference in the Power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender.

**Table 4.5.** ANOVA-test results for Gender and Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>
<b>HIWP-Power</b>	Between groups	1.213	1	1.213	2.569	.110
	Within groups	146.396	310	.472		
	Total	147.609	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

The one way ANOVA results done on Power dimension of the High Involvement Work Processes with Gender showed that the values are not significant at 5% level. Hence, there is no difference in the Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Gender of the employees. H1 is therefore rejected.

#### 4.8.1.2 Influence of Gender on Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H2 which was about the significant difference in Information dimension of HIWP across Gender. H2 was stated as:

H2 - There is a significant difference in the Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender.

**Table 4.6.** ANOVA-test results for Gender and Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig
<b>HIWP- Information</b>	Between groups	3.668	1	3.668	7.361	<b>.007*</b>
	Within groups	154.490	310	.498		
	Total	158.158	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

Table 4.6 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Gender. The results showed that the values are significant at 5% level. Thus, there is a difference in the Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Gender of the employees. Hence H2 is accepted. The mean value of male employees was found to be 3.29 and that of female employees was found to be 3.51. So it can be inferred that female employees perceived higher levels of Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to that of male employees.

### **4.8.1.3 Influence of Gender on Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

Using one way ANOVA, hypothesis H3 which was about the significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender was tested. H3 was stated as:

H3 - There is a significant difference in the Reward dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender.

**Table 4.7.** ANOVA-test results for Gender and Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>
<b>HIWP-Reward</b>	Between groups	.299	1	.299	.350	.555
	Within groups	264.945	310	.855		
	Total	265.244	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

The one way ANOVA results done on Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Gender are given in Table 4.7. Analysis gave an f value of 0.350 and a p value of 0.555 which are not supporting the hypothesis. The results showed that the values obtained by carrying out one way ANOVA test are not significant at 5% level. Thus, there is no difference in the Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Gender of the employees. H3 is therefore rejected.

#### 4.8.1.4 Influence of Gender on Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)

Using one way ANOVA, H4 which was about significant difference in the Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender was tested. H4 was stated as:

H4 - There is a significant difference in the Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender.

**Table 4.8.** ANOVA-test results for Gender and Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig
<b>HIWP- Knowledge</b>	Between groups	6.402	1	6.402	8.751	<b>.003*</b>
	Within groups	226.784	310	.732		
	Total	233.186	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

Table 4.8 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Gender. The results showed that the values are significant at 5% level. Thus, there is a difference in the Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Gender of the employees. H4 is therefore accepted. The mean value of male employees was found to be 3.34 and that of female employees was found to be 3.63. So it can be inferred that female employees perceived higher levels of Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to that of male employees.

#### 4.8.2 Influence of Age on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)

##### 4.8.2.1 Influence of Age on Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H5 which was about the significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Age. H5 was stated as:

H5 - There is a significant difference in the Power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Age.

**Table 4.9.** ANOVA-test results for Age and Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig
<b>HIWP-Power</b>	Between groups	5.957	1	1.986	4.317	<b>.005*</b>
	Within groups	141.652	308	.460		
	Total	147.609	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

**Table 4.10.** Post Hoc test results for Age and Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

	N	Subset for Alpha	
		1	2
<b>Tukey B</b>			
4.00	2	2.5000	
1.00	125		3.595
2.00	151		3.656
3.00	34		3.852
<b>Duncan</b>			
4.00	2	2.5000	
1.00	125		3.595
2.00	151		3.656
3.00	34		3.852

The one way ANOVA results done on Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Age are shown in Table 4.9. The results showed that the values are significant at 5% level. Thus, there is a difference in the Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Age of the employees. Hence H5 is accepted. The mean value of employees in the Age group of 31-35 was found to be 3.852 and is higher than all other groups. So it can be inferred that senior employees in the Age group of 31-35 perceived higher levels of Power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees.

#### 4.8.2.2 Influence of Age on Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H6 which was about the significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Age. H6 was stated as:

H6 - There is a significant difference in the Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Age.

**Table 4.11.** ANOVA-test results for Age and Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig
<b>HIWP- Information</b>	Between groups	.322	1	.107	.209	.890
	Within groups	157.837	308	.512		
	Total	158.158	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

Table 4.11 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Age. The results



showed that the values are not significant at 5% level. Thus, there is no difference in the Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Age of the employees. H6 is therefore rejected.

#### **4.8.2.3 Influence of Age on Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H7 which was about the significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Age. H7 was stated as:

H7 - There is a significant difference in the Reward dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Age.

**Table 4.12.** ANOVA-test results for Age and Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>
<b>HIWP- Reward</b>	Between groups	1.834	1	.611	.715	.544
	Within groups	263.410	308	.855		
	Total	265.244	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

Table 4.12 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Age. The results showed that the values are not significant at 5% level. Thus, there is no difference in the Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Age of the employees. Hence H7 is rejected.

#### 4.8.2.4 Influence of Age on Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H8 which was about the significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Age. H8 was stated as:

H8 - There is a significant difference in the Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Age.

**Table 4.13.** ANOVA-test results for Age and Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig
<b>HIWP- Knowledge</b>	Between groups	2.683	1	.894	1.195	.312
	Within groups	230.503	310	.748		
	Total	233.186	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

The one way ANOVA results done on Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Age are shown in Table 4.13. The results showed that the values are not significant at 5% level. Thus, there is no difference in the Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Age of the employees. H8 is therefore rejected.

### **4.8.3 Influence of Educational Qualification on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

#### **4.8.3.1 Influence of Educational Qualification on Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H9 which was about the significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification. H9 was stated as:

H9 - There is a significant difference in the Power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification.

**Table 4.14.** ANOVA-test results for Educational Qualification and Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>
<b>HIWP-Power</b>	Between groups	1.859	1	.930	1.971	.141
	Within groups	145.750	309	.472		
	Total	147.609	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

Table 4.14 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Educational Qualification. The results showed that the values are not significant at 5% level. Thus, there is no difference in the Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Educational Qualification of the employees. Hence H9 is rejected.

#### **4.8.3.2 Influence of Educational Qualification on Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H10 which was about the significant difference in Information dimension of High

Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification. H10 was stated as:

H10 - There is a significant difference in the Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification.

**Table 4.15.** ANOVA-test results for Educational Qualification and Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig
<b>HIWP- Information</b>	Between groups	1.349	1	.675	1.329	.266
	Within groups	156.809	309	.507		
	Total	158.158	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

Table 4.15 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Educational Qualification. The results showed that the values are not significant at 5% level. Thus, there is no difference in the Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Educational Qualification of the employees. H10 was therefore rejected.

#### **4.8.3.3 Influence of Educational Qualification on Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H11 which was about the significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification. H11 was stated as:

H11 - There is a significant difference in the Reward dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification.

**Table 4.16.** ANOVA-test results for Educational Qualification and Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>
<b>HIWP-Reward</b>	Between groups	4.395	1	2.197	2.603	.076
	Within groups	260.850	309	.844		
	Total	265.244	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

The one way ANOVA results done on Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Educational Qualification are shown in the Table 4.16. The results showed that the values are not significant at 5% level. Thus, there is no difference in the Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Educational Qualification of the employees. Hence H11 is rejected.

**4.8.3.4 Influence of Educational Qualification on Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H12 which were about the significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification. H12 was stated as:

H12 - There is a significant difference in the Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification.

**Table 4.17.** ANOVA-test results for Educational Qualification and Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>
<b>HIWP-Knowledge</b>	Between groups	6.820	1	3.410	4.655	<b>.010*</b>
	Within groups	226.366	309	.733		
	Total	233.186	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

**Table 4.18.** Post Hoc test results for Educational Qualification and Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

	N	Subset for Alpha	
		1	2
<b>Tukey B</b>			
2.00	49	3.245	
1.00	255	3.484	
3.00	8		4.2037
<b>Duncan</b>			
2.00	49	3.245	
1.00	255	3.484	
3.00	8		4.2037

Table 4.17 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Educational Qualification. The results showed that the values are significant at 5% level. Thus, there is a difference in the Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Educational Qualification of the employees. H12 is therefore accepted. The mean value of employees with graduation was found to be 3.484 which is higher than all other groups. So it can be inferred that employees with graduation perceived higher levels of Knowledge dimensions of high involvement work process compared to other employees.

#### **4.8.4 Influence of Tenure on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

##### **4.8.4.1 Influence of Tenure on Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H13 which was about the significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure. H13 was stated as:

H13 - There is a significant difference in the Power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure.

**Table 4.19.** ANOVA-test results for Tenure and Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>
<b>HIWP- Power</b>	Between groups	3.059	3	.1.020	2.172	.091
	Within groups	144.551	308	.469		
	Total	147.609	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

Table 4.19 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Tenure. The results showed that the values are not significant at 5% level. Thus, there is no difference in the Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Tenure of the employees. H13 is therefore rejected.

##### **4.8.4.2 Influence of Tenure on Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H14 which was about the significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure. H14 was stated as:

H14 - There is a significant difference in the Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure.

**Table 4.20.** ANOVA-test results for Tenure and Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig
<b>HIWP-Information</b>	Between groups	3.936	3	1.312	2.620	<b>.049*</b>
	Within groups	154.222	308	.501		
	Total	158.158	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

**Table 4.21.** Post Hoc test results for Tenure and Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

	N	Subset for Alpha	
		1	2
<b>Tukey B</b>			
3.00	32	3.194	
2.00	129	3.334	
1.00	143	3.455	3.455
4.00	8		3.850
<b>Duncan</b>			
3.00	32	3.194	
2.00	129	3.334	
1.00	143	3.455	3.455
4.00	8		3.850

The one way ANOVA results done on Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Tenure are shown in Table 4.20. The results showed that the values are significant at 5% level. Thus, there is a difference in the Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Tenure of the employees. Hence H 14 is accepted. The mean value of employees with more than nine years of tenure with the organization was found to be 3.850 which are higher than all other groups. So it can be inferred that employees with than nine years



of Tenure with the organization perceived higher levels of Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees.

#### **4.8.4.3 Influence of Tenure on Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)**

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H15 which was about the significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure. H15 was stated as:

H15 - There is a significant difference in the Reward dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure.

**Table 4.22.** ANOVA-test results for Tenure and Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>
<b>HIWP- Reward</b>	Between groups	4.137	3	1.379	1.627	.183
	Within groups	261.108	308	.848		
	Total	265.244	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

Table 4.22 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Tenure. The results showed that the values are not significant at 5% level. Thus, there is no difference in the Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Tenure of the employees. H15 is therefore rejected.

#### 4.8.4.4 Influence of Tenure on Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H16 which was about the significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure. H16 was stated as:

H16 - There is a significant difference in the Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure.

**Table 4.23.** ANOVA-test results for Tenure and Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig
<b>HIWP- Knowledge</b>	Between groups	4.716	3	1.572	2.119	.098
	Within groups	228.470	308	.742		
	Total	233.186	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

Table 4.23 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Tenure. The results showed that the values are not significant at 5% level. Thus, there is no difference in the Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Tenure of the employees. H 16 is therefore rejected.

#### 4.8.5 Influence of Experience on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)

##### 4.8.5.1 Influence of Experience on Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H17 which was about the significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience. H17 was stated as:

H17 - There is a significant difference in the Power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience.

**Table 4.24** ANOVA-test results for Experience and Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>
<b>HIWP-Power</b>	Between groups	4.482	4	1.120	2.403	<b>.049*</b>
	Within groups	143.128	307	.466		
	Total	147.609	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

**Table 4.25.** Post Hoc test results for Experience and Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

	<b>N</b>	<b>Subset for Alpha 1</b>
<b>Tukey B</b>		
5.00	3	3.570
2.00	121	3.571
1.00	107	3.578
3.00	66	3.788
4.00	15	4.008
<b>Duncan</b>		
5.00	3	3.570
2.00	121	3.571

1.00	107	3.578
3.00	66	3.788
4.00	15	4.008

The one way ANOVA results done on Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Experience are shown in Table 4.24. The results showed that the values are significant at 5% level. Thus, there is a difference in the Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Experience of the employees. H 17 is therefore accepted. The mean value of employees with 9-12 years of experience was found to be 4.008 which was higher than all other groups. So it can be inferred that employees with nine to twelve years of Experience perceived higher levels of power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees.

#### 4.8.5.2 Influence of Experience on Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H18 which were about the significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience. H18 was stated as:

H18 - There is a significant difference in the Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience.

**Table 4.26.** ANOVA-test results for Experience and Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig
<b>HIWP- Information</b>	Between groups	5.496	4	1.374	2.763	<b>.028*</b>
	Within groups	152.663	307	.497		
	Total	158.158	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

**Table 4.27.** Post Hoc test results for Experience and Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

	N	Subset for Alpha	
		1	2
<b>Tukey B</b>			
3.00	66	3.254	
2.00	121	3.350	
1.00	107	3.442	
4.00	15	3.740	3.740
5.00	3		4.200
<b>Duncan</b>			
3.00	66	3.254	
2.00	121	3.350	
1.00	107	3.442	
4.00	15	3.740	3.740
5.00	3		4.200

Table 4.26 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Experience. The results showed that the values are significant at 5% level. Thus, there is a difference in the Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Experience of the employees. H 18 is therefore accepted. The mean value of employees with 9-12 and 12-15 years of experience was found to be 3.740 and 4.240 respectively which were higher than all other groups. So it can be inferred that employees more than nine years of Experience perceived higher levels of Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees.

#### 4.8.5.3 Influence of Experience on Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H19 which was about the significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience. H19 was stated as:

H19 - There is a significant difference in the Reward dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience.

**Table 4.28.** ANOVA-test results for Experience and Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig
<b>HIWP-Reward</b>	Between groups	7.558	4	1.889	2.251	.064
	Within groups	257.687	307	.839		
	Total	265.244	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

Table 4.28 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Experience. The results showed that the values are not significant at 5% level. Thus, there is no difference in the Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Experience of the employees. H 19 is therefore rejected.

#### 4.8.5.4 Influence of Experience on Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)

One way ANOVA was used for testing hypothesis H20 which was about the significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience. H20 was stated as:

H20 - There is a significant difference in the Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience.

**Table 4.29.** ANOVA-test results for Experience and Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

		<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>
<b>HIWP-Knowledge</b>	Between groups	7.222	4	1.805	2.453	<b>.046*</b>
	Within groups	225.965	307	.736		
	Total	233.186	311			

(\* indicates items significant at 5% significance level)

**Table 4.30.** Post Hoc test results for Experience and knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes

	<b>N</b>	<b>Subset for Alpha</b>
		<b>1</b>
<b>Tukey B</b>		
3.00	66	3.356
2.00	121	3.445
1.00	107	3.461
5.00	3	3.503
4.00	15	4.118
<b>Duncan</b>		
3.00	66	3.356
2.00	121	3.445
1.00	107	3.461
5.00	3	3.503
4.00	15	4.118

The values given in Table 4.29 shows the one way ANOVA results done on Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with Experience. The results showed that the values are t significant at 5% level. Thus, there is a difference in the Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes with regards to Experience of the employees. H 20 is therefore

accepted. The mean value of employees with 9-12 and 12-15 years of experience was found to be 3.503 and 4.118 respectively which were higher than all other groups. So it can be inferred that employees more than 9 years of experience perceived higher levels of Knowledge dimensions of high involvement work process compared to other employees.

### **Rationale for using SEM**

This thesis has adopted Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) which is a second generation technique adopted to explain the relationships between multiple variables. While first generation techniques such as PROCESS examine only single relationships, SEM can simultaneously test and find out causal association among manifold independent and dependent variables.

SEM gives the researcher the freedom to build unnoticeable Latent Variables (LVs) which is difficult to be directly measured. Nevertheless, LVs are responsible to establish the correlation among the manifest variables. In the proposed model, observable and empirically measurable indicator variables known as Manifest Variables (MVs) were used to estimate LVs. Generally, indicators are classified into two groups: (a) reflective indicators which rely on the construct and (b) formative indicators which result in the formation of or changes in an unobservable variable. Various studies have employed the SEM method to study their hypothesized model. Anderson & Gerbing (1982) argue that SEM provides a comprehensive means for evaluating and modifying theoretical models. Even though SEM is more of a confirmatory method, it can also be used for investigative purposes.



## 4.9 Impact of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Job Satisfaction

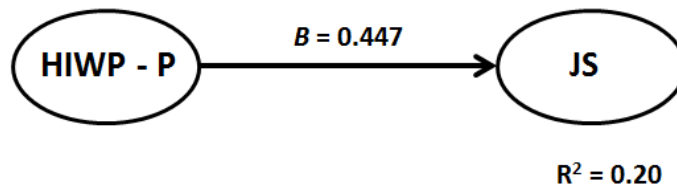
### 4.9.1 Impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Job Satisfaction

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H21 which was about the impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Job Satisfaction. H21 was stated as:

H21 - Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction.

**Table 4.31.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Job Satisfaction

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
HIWP - Power	0.447	0.053	0.001	1.249	0.20



**Figure 4.4** Structural path between Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) and Job Satisfaction

Analyses clearly convey that the Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of the employee with a beta value of 0.447 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.20. From table 4.31, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5,

suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, all the values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes have a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of employees in IT industry. H21 is therefore accepted.

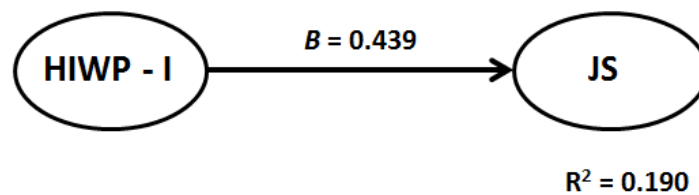
#### 4.9.2 Impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Job Satisfaction

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H22 which was about the impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Job Satisfaction. H22 was stated as:

H22 - Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction.

**Table 4.32.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Job Satisfaction

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
HIWP – Information	0.439	0.053	0.001	1.234	0.190



**Figure 4.5** Structural path between Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) and Job Satisfaction

Analyses clearly convey that the Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of the employee with a beta value of 0.439 and  $R^2$  value of 0.19. From table 4.32, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, all the values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of employees in IT industry. Hence H 22 is accepted.

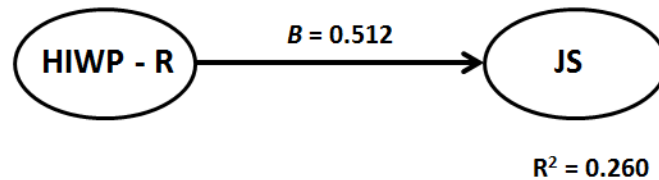
#### **4.9.3 Impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Job Satisfaction**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H23 which was about the impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Job Satisfaction. H23 was stated as:

H23 - Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction.

**Table 4.33.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Job Satisfaction

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Beta value</b>	<b>Std Error</b>	<b>P value</b>	<b>Average Full Collinearity VIF</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
<b>HIWP - Reward</b>	0.512	0.052	0.001	1.346	0.260



**Figure 4.6** Structural path between Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) and Job Satisfaction

It is evident from the analysis that the Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of the employee with a beta value of 0.512 and  $R^2$  value of 0.26. From table 4.33, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, all the values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of employees in IT industry. H23 is therefore accepted.

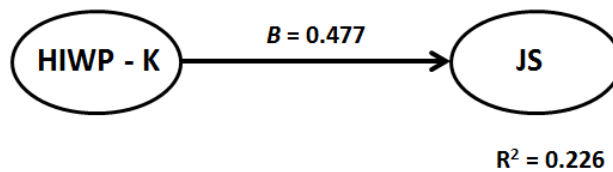
#### **4.9.4 Impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Job Satisfaction**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H24 which was about the impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Job Satisfaction. H24 was stated as:

H24 - Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction.

**Table 4.34.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Job Satisfaction

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
HIWP - Knowledge	0.477	0.053	0.001	1.283	0.226



**Figure 4.7** Structural path between Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) and Job Satisfaction

Analyses clearly convey that the Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of the employee with a beta value of 0.477 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.226. From table 4.34, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, all the values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of employees in IT industry. Hence H24 is accepted.

## 4.10 Impact of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Organizational Commitment

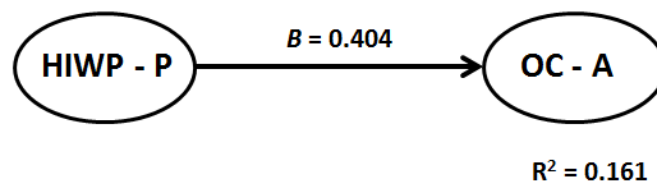
### 4.10.1 Impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H25 which was about the impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment. H25 was stated as:

H25 - Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.35.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
HIWP - Power	0.404	0.053	0.001	1.188	0.161



**Figure 4.8** Structural path between Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) and Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

It is evident from the analysis that the Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of the employee with a beta value of 0.404 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.161. From table 4.35, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, all the values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. H25 is therefore accepted.

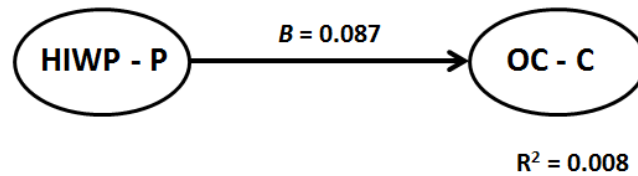
#### **4.10.2 Impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H26 which was about the impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment. H26 was stated as:

H26 - Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.36.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Beta value</b>	<b>Std Error</b>	<b>P value</b>	<b>Average Full Collinearity VIF</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
<b>HIWP - Power</b>	0.087	0.056	0.06	1.033	0.008



**Figure 4.9** Structural path between Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) and Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment

Analysis clearly conveys that the Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes does not have positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment of the employee with a beta value of 0.087 and  $R^2$  value of 0.008. From table 4.36, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis do not support the hypothesis that Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes have a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. H 26 is therefore rejected.

#### **4.10.3 Impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment**

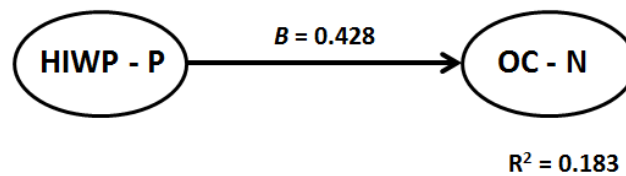
Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H27 which was about the impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment. H27 was stated as:



H27 - Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.37.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
HIWP - Power	0.428	0.053	0.001	1.206	0.183



**Figure 4.10** Structural path between Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) and Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment

It is evident from the analysis that the Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of the employee with a beta value of 0.428 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.183. From table 4.37, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of

Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. Hence H27 is accepted.

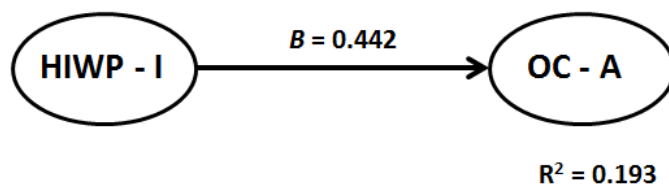
#### 4.10.4 Impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H28 which was about the impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment. H28 was stated as:

H28 - Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.38.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
<b>HIWP - Information</b>	0.442	0.053	0.001	1.237	0.193



**Figure 4.11** Structural path between Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes and Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

Analysis clearly conveys that the Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of the employee with a beta value of 0.442 and  $R^2$  value of 0.193. From table 4.38, it is also noted that value of Average full collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, all the values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. Hence H 28 is accepted.

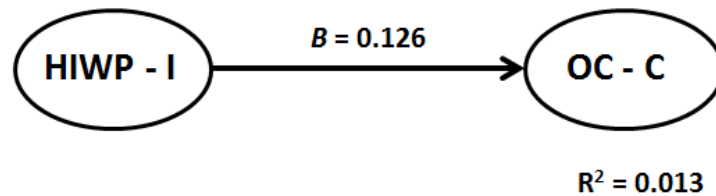
#### **4.10.5 Impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H29 which was about the impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment. H29 was stated as:

H29 - Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.39.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Beta value</b>	<b>Std Error</b>	<b>P value</b>	<b>Average Full Collinearity VIF</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
<b>HIWP – Information</b>	0.126	0.056	0.01	1.014	0.013



**Figure 4.12** Structural path between Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes and Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment

It is evident from the analysis that the Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes does not have positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment of the employee with a beta value of 0.126 and  $R^2$  value of 0.013. From table 4.39, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis do not support the hypothesis that Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes have a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. Hence H 29 is rejected.

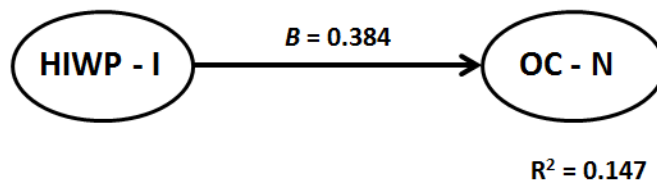
#### **4.10.6 Impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H30 which was about the impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment. H30 was stated as:

H30 - Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.40.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
<b>HIWP - Information</b>	0.384	0.053	0.001	1.157	0.147



**Figure 4.13** Structural path between Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes and Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment

Analysis clearly conveys that the Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of the employee with a beta value of 0.384 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.147. From table 4.40, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Information dimension of High

Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. H30 is therefore accepted.

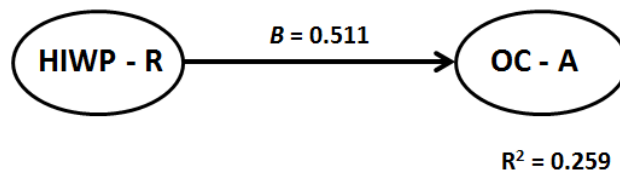
**4.10.7 Impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H31 which was about the impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment. H31 was stated as:

H31 - Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.41.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
HIWP - Reward	0.511	0.052	0.001	1.326	0.259



**Figure 4.14** Structural path between Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes and Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

It is evident from the analysis that the Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of the employee with a beta value of 0.511 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.259. From table 4.41, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, all the values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry.

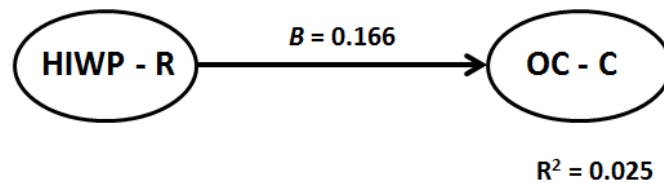
#### **4.10.8 Impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H32 which was about the impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment. H32 was stated as:

H32 - Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.42.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Beta value</b>	<b>Std Error</b>	<b>P value</b>	<b>Average Full Collinearity VIF</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
<b>HIWP – Reward</b>	0.166	0.055	0.01	1.016	0.025



**Figure 4.15** Structural path between Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes and Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment

Analysis clearly conveys that the Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes does not have positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment of the employee with a beta value of 0.126 and  $R^2$  value of 0.013. From table 4.42, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis do not support the hypothesis that Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes have a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. Hence H32 is rejected.

#### **4.10.9 Impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment**

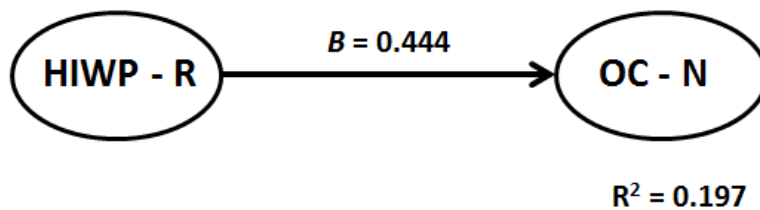
Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H33 which was about the impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment. H33 was stated as:



H33 - Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.43.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
HIWP - Reward	0.444	0.053	0.001	1.236	0.197



**Figure 4.16** Structural path between Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes and Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment

It is evident from the analysis that the Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of the employee with a beta value of 0.444 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.197. From table 4.43, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of

Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. H33 is therefore accepted.

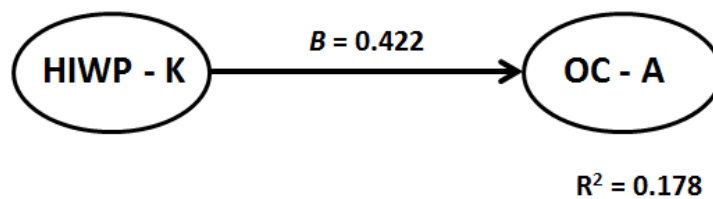
**4.10.10 Impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H34 which was about the impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment. H34 was stated as:

H34 - Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.44.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
HIWP - Knowledge	0.422	0.053	0.001	1.209	0.178



**Figure 4.17** Structural path between Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes and Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

Analysis clearly conveys that the Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of the employee with a beta value of 0.422 and  $R^2$  value of 0.178. From table 4.44, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, all the values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. H 34 is therefore accepted.

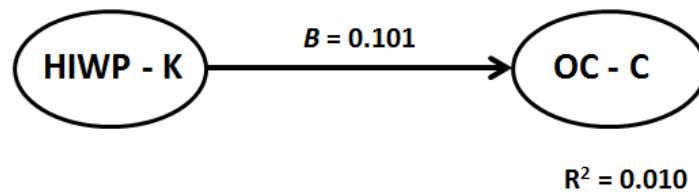
#### **4.10.11 Impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H35 which was about the impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment. H35 was stated as:

H35 - Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.45.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Beta value</b>	<b>Std Error</b>	<b>P value</b>	<b>Average Full Collinearity VIF</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
<b>HIWP - Knowledge</b>	0.101	0.056	0.018	1.009	0.010



**Figure 4.18** Structural path between Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes and Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment

It is evident from the analysis that the Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes does not have positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment of the employee with a beta value of 0.101 and  $R^2$  value of 0.010. From table 4.45, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis do not support the hypothesis that Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes have a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. Hence H 35 is rejected.

#### **4.10.12 Impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment**

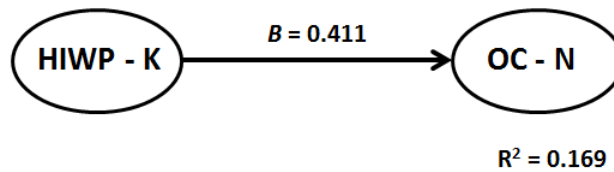
Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H36 which was about the impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement

Work Processes on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment. H36 was stated as:

H36 - Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.46.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
HIWP – Knowledge	0.411	0.053	0.001	1.201	0.169



**Figure 4.19** Structural path between Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes and Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment

Analysis clearly conveys that the Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of the employee with a beta value of 0.411 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.169. From table 4.46, it is also noted that value of Average full collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. H 36 is therefore accepted.

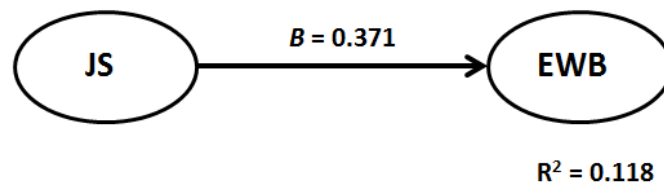
### 4.11 Impact of Job Satisfaction on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB)

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H37 which was about the impact of Job Satisfaction on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees working in IT industry. H37 was stated as:

H37 - Job Satisfaction has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

**Table 4.47** SEM analysis results of the impact of Job Satisfaction on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
Job Satisfaction	0.371	0.053	0.001	1.149	0.118



**Figure 4.20** Structural path between Job Satisfaction and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

It is evident from the analysis that Job Satisfaction has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of the employee working in IT industry with a beta value of 0.371 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.118. From table 4.47, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, all the values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Job Satisfaction has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees working in IT industry. Hence H 37 is accepted.

## 4.12 Impact of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB)

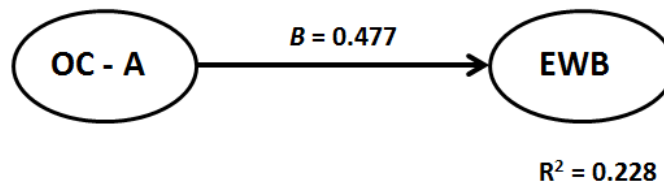
### 4.12.1 Impact of Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB)

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H38 which was about the impact of Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors. H38 was stated as:

H38 - Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

**Table 4.48.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
OC - Affective	0.477	0.053	0.001	1.281	0.228



**Figure 4.21** Structural path between Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

Analysis clearly conveys that the Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of the employee with a beta value of 0.477 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.228. From table 4.48, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high

multicollinearity. Therefore, all the values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry. Therefore, H 38 is accepted.

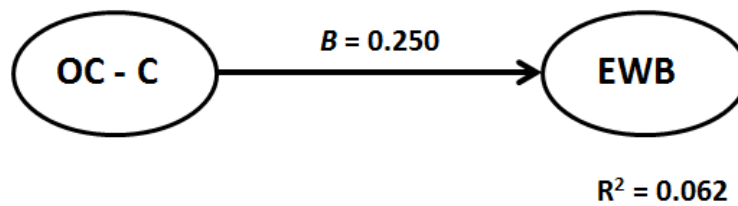
**4.12.2 Impact of Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behavior (EWB)**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H39 which was about the impact of Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors. H39 was stated as:

H39 - Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

**Table 4.49.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment on Employee withdrawal behaviors

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
OC - Continuance	0.250	0.054	0.067	1.048	0.062



**Figure 4.22** Structural path between Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors



Analysis evidently proves that the Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment does not have negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of the employee with a beta value of 0.250 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.062. From table 4.49, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis do not support the hypothesis that Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment have a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry. Hence, H 39 is rejected.

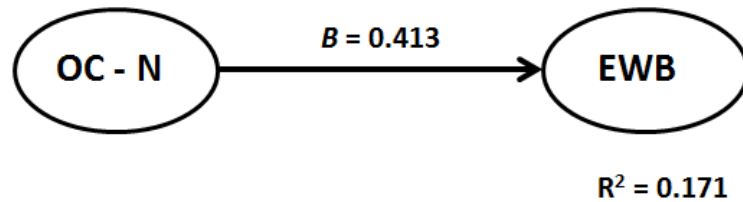
#### **4.12.3 Impact of Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB)**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H40 which was about the impact of Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors. H40 was stated as:

H40 - Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

**Table 4.50.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Beta value</b>	<b>Std Error</b>	<b>P value</b>	<b>Average Full Collinearity VIF</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
<b>OC - Normative</b>	0.413	0.054	0.067	1.203	0.171



**Figure 4.23** Structural path between Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

Analysis clearly conveys that the Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment has negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of the employee with a beta value of 0.413 and  $R^2$  value of 0.171. From table 4.50, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry. H 40 is therefore accepted.

### 4.13 Impact of Job Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment

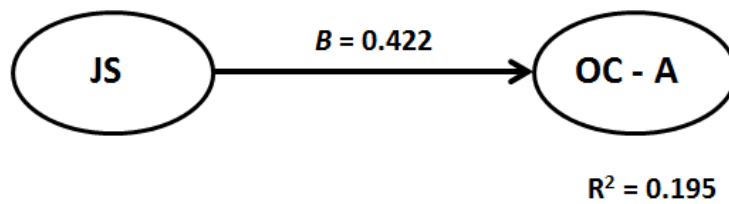
#### 4.13.1 Impact of Job Satisfaction on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H41 which was about the impact of Job Satisfaction on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment. H41 was stated as:

H41 – Job Satisfaction has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.51.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Job Satisfaction on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
Job Satisfaction	0.422	0.054	0.001	1.228	0.195



**Figure 4.24** Structural path between Job Satisfaction and Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment

It is evident from the analysis that Job satisfaction has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment with a beta value of 0.422 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.195. From table 4.51, it is also noted that

value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Job satisfaction has a positive impact on the Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. H 41 is accepted.

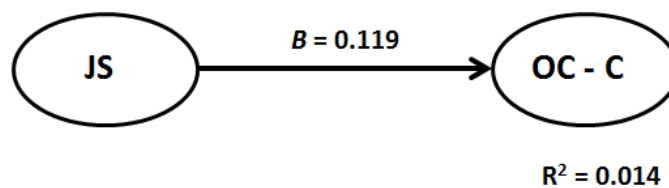
#### 4.13.2 Impact of Job Satisfaction on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H42 which was about the impact of Job Satisfaction on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment. H42 was stated as:

H42 – Job Satisfaction has a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.52** SEM analysis results of the impact of Job Satisfaction on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
Job Satisfaction	0.119	0.056	0.20	1.014	0.014



**Figure 4.25** Structural path between Job Satisfaction and Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment

Analysis clearly conveys that Job Satisfaction does not have a positive impact on Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment with a beta value of 0.119 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.014. From table 4.52, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis do not support the hypothesis that Job Satisfaction has a positive impact on the Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. Hence, H 42 is rejected.

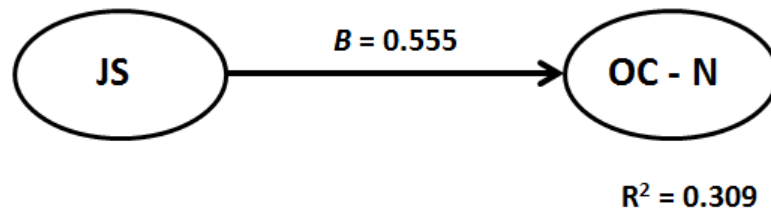
#### **4.13.3 Impact of Job Satisfaction on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H43 which was about the impact of Job Satisfaction on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment. H43 was stated as:

H43 – Job Satisfaction has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment.

**Table 4.53.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Job Satisfaction on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Beta value</b>	<b>Std Error</b>	<b>P value</b>	<b>Average Full Collinearity VIF</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
<b>Job Satisfaction</b>	0.555	0.052	0.001	1.437	0.309



**Figure 4.26** Structural path between Job Satisfaction and Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment

Analysis clearly conveys that Job satisfaction has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment with a beta value of 0.555 and  $R^2$  value of 0.309. From table 4.53, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Job satisfaction has a positive impact on the Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. H 43 is therefore accepted.

#### **4.14 Impact of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB)**

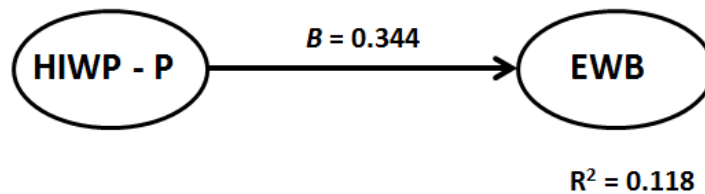
##### **4.14.1 Impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes(HIWP) on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB)**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H44 which was about the impact of Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors. H44 was stated as:

H44 – Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

**Table 4.54.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
HIWP – Power	0.344	0.054	0.001	1.132	0.118



**Figure 4.27** Structural path between Power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

It is evident from the analysis that Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors with a beta value of 0.344 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.118. From table 4.54, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF

(Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry. H 44 is therefore accepted.

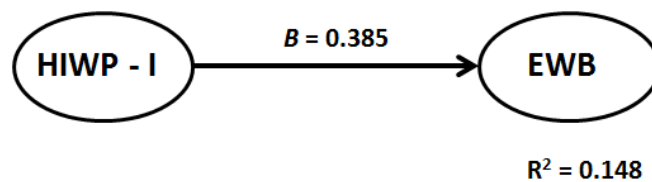
**4.14.2 Impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB)**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H45 which was about the impact of Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors. H45 was stated as:

H45 – Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

**Table 4.55.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
<b>HIWP – Information</b>	0.385	0.053	0.001	1.173	0.148



**Figure 4.28** Structural path between Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors



Analysis clearly conveys that Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors with a beta value of 0.385 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.148. From table 4.55, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry. Hence, H 45 is accepted.

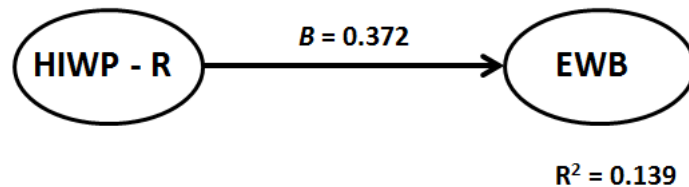
#### **4.14.3 Impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes(HIWP) on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB)**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H46 which was about the impact of Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors. H46 was stated as:

H46 – Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

**Table 4.56.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Reward dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Beta value</b>	<b>Std Error</b>	<b>P value</b>	<b>Average Full Collinearity VIF</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
<b>HIWP – Reward</b>	0.372	0.053	0.001	1.144	0.139



**Figure 4.29** Structural path between Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

It is evident from the analysis that Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors with a beta value of 0.372 and  $R^2$  value of 0.139. From table 4.56, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry. H 46 is therefore accepted.

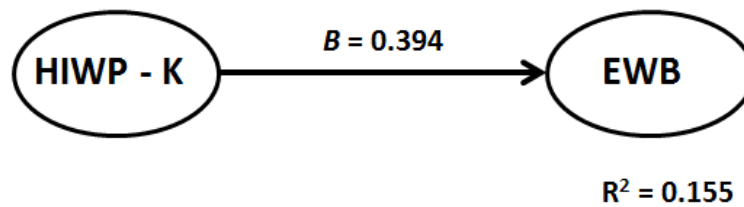
#### **4.14.4 Impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB)**

Structural Equation Modeling was used for testing hypothesis H47 which was about the impact of Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors. H47 was stated as:

H47 – Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

**Table 4.57.** SEM analysis results of the impact of Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

Variable	Beta value	Std Error	P value	Average Full Collinearity VIF	R <sup>2</sup>
HIWP – Knowledge	0.394	0.053	0.001	1.171	0.155



**Figure 4.30** Structural path between Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

Analysis clearly conveys that Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors with a beta value of 0.394 and R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.155. From table 4.57, it is also noted that value of Average Full Collinearity VIF (Variance Inflation factor) is less than 5, suggesting the absence of high multicollinearity. Therefore, values obtained from the analysis support the hypothesis that Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry. H 47 is therefore accepted.

**Table 4.58.**Summary of tested hypotheses

SL No	Hypothesis	Status
<b>Influence of Gender on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)</b>		
1	H1 There is a significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender.	<b>Rejected</b>
2	H2 There is a significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender.	<b>Accepted</b>
3	H3 There is a significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender.	<b>Rejected</b>
4	H4 There is a significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Gender.	<b>Accepted</b>
<b>Influence of Age on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)</b>		
5	H5 There is a significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Age.	<b>Accepted</b>
6	H6 There is a significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Age.	<b>Rejected</b>
7	H7 There is a significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Age.	<b>Rejected</b>
8	H8 There is a significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Age.	<b>Rejected</b>
<b>Influence of Educational Qualification on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)</b>		
9	H9 There is a significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification.	<b>Rejected</b>

10	H10	There is a significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification.	<b>Rejected</b>
11	H11	There is a significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification.	<b>Rejected</b>
12	H12	There is a significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Educational Qualification.	<b>Accepted</b>
<b>Influence of Tenure on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)</b>			
13	H13	There is a significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure.	<b>Rejected</b>
14	H14	There is a significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure.	<b>Accepted</b>
15	H15	There is a significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure.	<b>Rejected</b>
16	H16	There is a significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Tenure.	<b>Rejected</b>
<b>Influence of experience on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP)</b>			
17	H17	There is a significant difference in Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience.	<b>Accepted</b>
18	H18	There is a significant difference in Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience.	<b>Accepted</b>
19	H19	There is a significant difference in Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience.	<b>Rejected</b>
20	H20	There is a significant difference in Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes across Experience.	<b>Accepted</b>

<b>Impact of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Job Satisfaction</b>			
21	H21	Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction.	<b>Accepted</b>
22	H22	Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction.	<b>Accepted</b>
23	H23	Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction.	<b>Accepted</b>
24	H24	Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction.	<b>Accepted</b>
<b>Impact of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Organizational Commitment</b>			
25	H25	Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on affective dimension of organizational commitment.	<b>Accepted</b>
26	H26	Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on continuance dimension of organizational commitment,	<b>Rejected</b>
27	H27	Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on normative dimension of organizational commitment.	<b>Accepted</b>
28	H28	Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on affective dimension of organizational commitment.	<b>Accepted</b>
29	H29	Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on continuance dimension of organizational commitment.	<b>Rejected</b>
30	H30	Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on normative dimension of organizational commitment.	<b>Accepted</b>
31	H31	Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on affective dimension of organizational commitment.	<b>Accepted</b>
32	H32	Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on continuance dimension of organizational commitment.	<b>Rejected</b>

33	H33	Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on normative dimension of organizational commitment.	<b>Accepted</b>
34	H34	Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on affective dimension of organizational commitment.	<b>Accepted</b>
35	H35	Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on continuance dimension of organizational commitment.	<b>Rejected</b>
36	H36	Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on normative dimension of organizational commitment.	<b>Accepted</b>
<b>Impact of Job Satisfaction on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB)</b>			
37	H37	Job satisfaction has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.	<b>Accepted</b>
<b>Impact of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB)</b>			
38	H38	Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee withdrawal Behaviors.	<b>Accepted</b>
39	H39	Continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee withdrawal Behaviors.	<b>Rejected</b>
40	H40	Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee withdrawal Behaviors.	<b>Accepted</b>
<b>Impact of Job Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment</b>			
41	H41	Job satisfaction has a positive impact on affective dimension of Organizational Commitment.	<b>Accepted</b>
42	H42	Job satisfaction has a positive impact on continuance dimension of Organizational Commitment.	<b>Rejected</b>
43	H43	Job satisfaction has a positive impact on normative dimension of Organizational Commitment.	<b>Accepted</b>

<b>Impact of High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB)</b>			
44	H44	Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.	<b>Accepted</b>
45	H45	Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.	<b>Accepted</b>
46	H46	Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.	<b>Accepted</b>
47	H47	Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.	<b>Accepted</b>

#### **4.15 Conclusion**

The chapter presented the analysis and interpretation of data. The hypotheses related to high involvement work processes, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and employee withdrawal behaviors were analyzed using appropriate tests and the interpretations of results were presented. The major focus of the study, the relationship between high involvement work processes and employee withdrawal behaviors was analyzed by structural equation modeling technique using PLS method. PLS- SEM analysis showed that the conceptual model was supported by data. A summary of tested hypotheses is given and status of each hypothesis is depicted.



# Chapter 5

## INTEGRATED MODEL ON HIWP AND OUTCOMES

Contents	5.1	Structural Equation Modeling.
	5.2	Partial Least Square Approach.
	5.3	The choice of PLS as a method of analysis.
	5.4	Analysis of the measurement model of the study.
	5.5	Analysis of structural model.
	5.6	Analysis of common method of variance.
	5.7	Conclusion.

*This chapter tests variants of the proposed model linking High Involvement Work Processes and outcomes. Structural Equation Modeling is used to compare and identify the best fitting model. Sections 5.1 and 5.2 explain about SEM and PLS approach. Section 5.3 describes about the reasons for selecting PLS as a method of analysis. Analysis of measurement model of the study is done in section 5.4 and analysis of structural model of the study is done in section 5.5.*

### 5.1 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

The different methods for analyzing the relationship between a set of variables includes the following:

- Discriminant Analysis (DA)
- Path Analysis (PA)
- Factor Analysis (FA)
- Multiple Regression Analysis (MRA)
- Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

This thesis has adopted Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) which is a second generation technique adopted to explain the relationships between multiple variables. While first generation techniques examine only single relationships, SEM can simultaneously test and find out causal association among manifold independent and dependent variables.

SEM gives the researcher the freedom to build unnoticeable Latent Variables (LVs) which is difficult to be directly measured. Nevertheless, LVs are responsible to establish the correlation among the manifest variables. In the proposed model, observable and empirically measurable indicator variables known as Manifest Variables (MVs) were used to estimate LVs. Generally, indicators are classified into two groups: (a) reflective indicators which rely on the construct and (b) formative indicators which result in the formation of or changes in an unobservable variable. Various studies have employed the SEM method to study their hypothesized model.

Anderson & Gerbing (1982) argue that SEM provides a comprehensive means for evaluating and modifying theoretical models. Even though SEM is more of a confirmatory method, it can also be used for investigative purposes. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is commonly used to specify which variables are associated with each construct and involves potential confirmation of a theory. CFA is a technique which helps the researcher to either verify or decline pre-conceived theory.

The covariance based approach and variance-based approach are the two normally adopted approaches to estimate the parameters of a SEM. Covariance-based SEM tries to bring down the differences in the sample

covariance and those predicted by the conceptual model whereby the parameter estimation processes try to replicate the covariance matrix of the observed measures. On the other hand, variance based approach concentrates on maximizing the variance of the dependent variables explained by the independent ones. The Partial Least Squares (PLS) approach adopted in this thesis is a variance-based SEM, described further in the next section.

## **5.2 Partial Least Square (PLS) Approach**

Partial Least squares (PLS) also known as component-based approach is a variance – based approach used for verifying structural equation models. Since it does not require a normal distribution assumption, it is also known as soft modeling technique. H. Wold introduced PLS in 1975 under the name NIPALS (Nonlinear Iterative Partial Least Squares) which concentrated on maximizing the variance of the dependent variable explained by the independent ones. PLS is different from covariance – based SEM since it starts by measuring case values. Therefore, in PLS, the unobservable variables which are Latent Variables (LVs) are measured as exact linear combinations of their empirical indicators.

Similar to SEM, PLS models also consist of two parts: a structural part, which represents the associations between the latent variables, and a measurement part which represents the associations between latent variables and their indicators. PLS has an additional feature of weighing relations which are used to find out case values for the latent variables. Urbach & Ahlemann (2010) have suggested that PLS can be used either for theory confirmation or theory development.

The following are the features of PLS:

- PLS avoids distributional assumption. PLS makes no assumptions that observations follows a particular distributional pattern and that they have to be independently distributed.
- Comparatively small sample size. Performance of Monte Carlo simulation has proved that it is fine to perform PLS with a low sample size.
- Variance-based SEM, unlike covariance-based SEM, produces robust results even in the absence of large samples and multivariate deviations from normality.

### **5.3 The Choice of PLS as a Method of Analysis**

PLS is a substitute to Component Based SEM (CBSEM). In this thesis, PLS-SEM is adopted for the following reasons:

- Investigated phenomenon is comparatively new and measurement models need to be newly developed – In this study, the proposed model integrates current models to give one integrated model which is newly reviewed. Till date, there is no study that tested these integrated models as a single model. Therefore, it is a newly developed measurement model.
- Estimation Assumption - PLS-SEM, which is comparable to the principal component analysis, does not assume any form of distribution for the measured variables. Since PLS is distribution free, it is favorable for data from non-normal or unknown distributions. In this study, the majority of the measurement items

are perception based and measured on a Likert scale. They are of unknown distribution, and since normality cannot be established, PLS-SEM was adopted over covariance-based SEM.

For the analysis of this study, a component based Partial Least Square (PLS) approach was adopted. This study has used Warp PLS 2.0 (current version) to analyze the relationships among latent variables.

Measurement and structural model constitute the two parts of PLS-SEM model. In the measurement model or outer model, there are latent constructs and their indicators/measured variables. A block consists of a latent construct and all its measurement indicators and a measurement model has different blocks. In the structural model or inner model, there are hypothesized structural paths between the latent constructs. Analysis of the model begins with the assessment of measurement model and when acceptable results on the validity and reliability of the model are obtained, it proceeds to the next stage of structural model evaluation. Measurement model evaluation is carried out in terms of unidimensionality, discriminant validity and convergent validity (Tenenhaus, et al., 2005). Path coefficients and weights of the constructs are used to evaluate structural model. The same method for understanding beta coefficients and  $R^2$  of regression analysis is used here for the interpretation of path coefficients and weights.

#### **5.4 Analysis of the Measurement Model of the Study**

In this research, four latent constructs are studied which are measured in reflective mode where the construct is assumed to cause the indicators to differ. High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP) has 32 indicators and Job

Satisfaction (JS) is measured by 6 indicators. Organizational Commitment is measured by 18 items and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors has 18 items. In this model, PLS requires manifest variables for all latent constructs. As a result, it is difficult to include higher order constructs in the model. For modeling higher order constructs in PLS, there are two approaches mentioned in the PLS literature which are repeated indicators approach and two stage approach.

#### **5.4.1 Repeated Indicators Approach**

First order dimensions of a construct are measured using their manifest indicators in the repeated indicators approach. Later, these indicators of all first order dimensions are repeated as indicators of the second order construct (Chin et. al., 2003). Therefore, the indicators of first order dimensions are repeated twice in the model. This approach can be adopted when the number of indicators is equal for all the first order dimensions (Chin, Marcolin & Newsted, 2003).

#### **5.4.2 Two-Stage Approach**

Measurement happens in two stages in the two stage approach. The first stage of the model is carried out with only first order constructs with their manifest indicators. Second stage introduces second order constructs in the model with the latent variable scores computed from first order dimensions in the first stage as their manifest variables. The drawback of this method is that the second order construct appears only in the second stage and is not incorporated in the first stage when the latent variable scores are calculated for the latent dimensions (Ciavolino & Nitti, 2013).

This study has adopted a two-stage approach for modeling High Involvement Work Processes. An important reason for adopting this approach was the unequal number of indicators for the first order dimensions. Also, literature has employed two stage approaches for reflective higher order constructs (Agarwal & Karahanna, 2000). In this study, High Involvement Work Processes construct is modeled as a second order construct consisting of four first order latent dimensions – Power, Information, Reward and Knowledge. The model is specified as reflective at both first order and second order levels. Models adopting reflective measurement at both first order and second order levels are termed as Type-I models (Jarvis, Mackenzie & Podsakoff, 2003) and total disaggregation second-order factor models (Bagozzi & Hearthertons, 1994).

The First stage and second stage measurement models of the current study are discussed in detail in the following section:

#### **5.4.3 First Stage Measurement Model of the Study**

As elaborated in the previous paragraphs, the first-order dimensions and their measured indicators are used for creating first stage model. Therefore the first stage measurement model of the present study includes Power, Information, Reward and Knowledge (PIRK) dimensions of HIWP, Affective, Continuance and Normative dimensions of Organizational Commitment, Job and work dimensions of Employee Withdrawal Behaviors and the other latent variable namely Job Satisfaction. The first stage model is very similar to the conceptual model of the study in all aspects except for the fact that all the latent variables are replaced by their first order dimensions.

#### **5.4.4 The Second Stage Measurement Model**

Here the second order constructs – High Involvement Work Processes (HIWP), Job Satisfaction (JS), Organizational Commitment (OC) and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors (EWB) are modeled as measured by their first order latent dimensions as the reflective indicators. Latent variable scores obtained in the first stage are used as the observed values for the first order dimensions.

#### **5.4.5 Reliability and unidimensionality at first stage measurement level**

Analysis of the measurement model is carried out in this section. The table presents the reliability measures of variables at the first stage. In the first stage of the measurement model of the study, there are ten measurement blocks corresponding to the ten latent variables of the model. Establishing unidimensionality of each measurement block in the model is the first requirement for measurement-validity, followed by discriminant validity and convergent validity.

Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability are the two different methods commonly recommended by literature for calculating the unidimensionality of measurement blocks in a PLS model (Tenenhaus Vinzi, Chatelin & Lauro, 2005; Vinzi, Trinchera & Amato, 2010). Threshold values suggested for Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability is 0.7 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Nunnally, 1978; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).



**Table 5.1.** Cronbach’s alpha and composite reliability values of the latent constructs at first stage level.

<b>Construct</b>	<b>HIWPP</b>	<b>HIWPI</b>	<b>HIWPR</b>	<b>HIWPK</b>	<b>JS</b>	<b>OCA</b>	<b>OCC</b>	<b>OCN</b>	<b>EWB</b>
Cronbach’s Alpha	.869	.873	.905	.938	.858	.752	.490	.804	.603
Composite reliability	.899	.898	.925	.949	.895	.828	.693	.864	.749

Literature suggests that the minimum value of Cronbach’s alpha and composite reliability should be above 0.7. According to Chin (1998), Composite reliability is a better measure of unidimensionality than Cronbach’s alpha. It was observed that the composite reliability measures for all constructs are found to be higher than 0.8 even though Bagozzi and Yi (1988) suggested a minimum acceptable value of 0.6. Therefore, from the figures given in the above Table 5.1, it is evident that all measurement blocks in the first order measurement model except for the Cronbach’s alpha value of continuance commitment can be considered unidimensional.

#### **5.4.6 Reliability of Constructs in the 2<sup>nd</sup> Stage Measurement Model**

Second order constructs had acceptable reliability measures when these were modeled in the 2<sup>nd</sup> stage model, as demonstrated by the following table. (Table 5.2)

**Table 5.2.** Reliability Measures (2<sup>nd</sup> stage Measurement Level)

<b>Construct</b>	<b>HIWP</b>	<b>JS</b>	<b>OC</b>	<b>EWB</b>
Cronbach’s Alpha	.881	.989	.788	.755
Composite reliability	.919	1.000	.601	.349

All the variables at the second stage level have Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability above 0.6 except for composite reliability values of employee withdrawal behaviors which establishes the reliability of constructs.

#### 5.4.7 Convergent validity at 1<sup>st</sup> Stage model

In establishing the factorial validity of the measurement model in PLS, convergent and discriminant validities were employed (Gefen & Straub, 2005). For capturing the convergent validity of the scale by PLS, the average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct is measured. It indicates the construct's variance as explained by all its indicators together. If this measure is higher than 0.5 (i.e., 50 % of the variance explained), one can be sure about the presence of convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). An AVE of 0.5 suggests that 50% of the construct's variation is explained by its measurement block consisting of all indicators. AVE values of all constructs in this study were found to be higher than 0.5 except for continuance commitment and employee withdrawal behaviors, thus confirming the convergent validity of the constructs (See Table 5.3). A different check for convergent validity is at the indicator level where all indicators should load on their respective latent constructs with significant t values (Gefen & Straub, 2005). This is shown in Table 5.4 below.

**Table 5.3** AVE (1<sup>st</sup> order) of all the variables.

Construct	HIWPP	HIWPI	HIWPR	HIWPK	JS	OCA	OCC	OCN	EWB
AVE (1 <sup>st</sup> order)	.561	.511	.639	.700	.589	.501	.426	.533	.338

**Table 5.4.** Outer Loadings – P - Values – 1<sup>st</sup> Order Level (Convergent Validity Check at Indicator Level)

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Values</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>P - value</b>
HIWPP1<HIWPP	.718	.051	<.001
HIWPP2<HIWPP	.734	.051	<.001
HIWPP3<HIWPP	.760	.050	<.001
HIWPP4<HIWPP	.807	.050	<.001
HIWPP5<HIWPP	.677	.051	<.001
HIWPP6<HIWPP	.751	.050	<.001
HIWPP7<HIWPP	.789	.050	<.001
HIWPI1<HIWPI	.622	.051	<.001
HIWPI2<HIWPI	.606	.052	<.001
HIWPI3<HIWPI	.685	.051	<.001
HIWPI4<HIWPI	.659	.051	<.001
HIWPI5<HIWPI	.695	.051	<.001
HIWPI6<HIWPI	.775	.050	<.001
HIWPI7<HIWPI	.788	.050	<.001
HIWPI8<HIWPI	.617	.051	<.001
HIWPI9<HIWPI	.721	.051	<.001
HIWPI10<HIWPI	.655	.051	<.001
HIWPR1<HIWPR	.738	.051	<.001
HIWPR2<HIWPR	.884	.049	<.001
HIWPR3<HIWPR	.801	.050	<.001
HIWPR4<HIWPR	.847	.050	<.001
HIWPR5<HIWPR	.773	.050	<.001
HIWPR6<HIWPR	.778	.050	<.001
HIWPR7<HIWPR	.765	.050	<.001
HIWPK1<HIWPK	.748	.050	<.001
HIWPK2<HIWPK	.853	.050	<.001
HIWPK3<HIWPK	.816	.050	<.001
HIWPK4<HIWPK	.854	.050	<.001
HIWPK5<HIWPK	.861	.050	<.001
HIWPK6<HIWPK	.858	.050	<.001
HIWPK7<HIWPK	.843	.050	<.001
HIWPK8<HIWPK	.854	.050	<.001
JS1<JS	.822	.050	<.001
JS2<JS	.789	.050	<.001
JS3<JS	.643	.050	<.001
JS4<JS	.673	.051	<.001

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Values</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>P - value</b>
JS5<JS	.843	.050	<.001
JS6<JS	.813	.050	<.001
OCA1<OCA	.603	.052	<.001
OCA2<OCA	.627	.051	<.001
OCA3<OCA	.658	.051	<.001
OCA4<OCA	.786	.050	<.001
OCA5<OCA	.739	.051	<.001
OCA6<OCA	.584	.052	<.001
OCC1<OCC	.492	.052	<.001
OCC2<OCC	.697	.051	<.001
OCC3<OCC	.795	.050	<.001
OCC4<OCC	.717	.051	<.001
OCC5<OCC	-.539	.052	<.001
OCC6<OCC	.627	.051	<.001
OCN1<OCN	.271	.054	<.001
OCN2<OCN	.711	.051	<.001
OCN3<OCN	.766	.050	<.001
OCN4<OCN	.802	.050	<.001
OCN5<OCN	.822	.050	<.001
OCN6<OCN	.844	.050	<.001
EWB1<EWB	.625	.051	<.001
EWB2<EWB	.689	.051	<.001
EWB3<EWB	.508	.052	<.001
EWB4<EWB	.542	.052	<.001
EWB5<EWB	.484	.053	<.001
EWJ6<EWB	.597	.052	<.001
EWB7<EWB	.586	.052	<.001
EWB8<EWB	.644	.051	<.001
EWB9<EWB	.474	.053	<.001
EWB10<EWB	.629	.051	<.001
EWB11<EWB	.553	.052	<.001
EWB12<EWB	.657	.051	<.001
EWB13<EWB	.538	.052	<.001
EWB14<EWB	.533	.052	<.001
EWB15<EWB	.644	.051	<.001
EWB16<EWB	.548	.052	<.001
EWB17<EWB	.566	.052	<.001
EWB18<EWB	.577	.052	<.001

The outer indicator loadings and their p values given in the table are all significant at .01 levels. This confirms convergent validity at indicator level for the first order constructs.

#### **5.4.8 Convergent validity (2<sup>nd</sup> order level)**

Convergent validity at the second order level is evidenced by AVE values of the constructs as given in Table 5.5. AVE values of all constructs were found to be higher than 0.5 thus confirming the convergent validity of the constructs.

**Table 5.5.** Convergent Validity – AVE Values of Constructs (2<sup>nd</sup> Order Level)

<b>Construct</b>	<b>HIWP</b>	<b>JS</b>	<b>OC</b>	<b>EWB</b>
AVE (2 <sup>nd</sup> order)	.742	.989	.565	.606

For the second order level, outer loadings and their significance are reported in Table 5.6. All loadings are significant at .01 level and thus convergent validity is found satisfactory at the indicator level for the second order model too.

**Table 5.6.** Outer Loadings – P - Values – 2<sup>nd</sup> Order Level (Convergent Validity Check at Indicator Level)

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Values</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>P - value</b>
HIWPP<HIWP	.942	.049	<.001
HIWPI<HIWP	.942	.049	<.001
HIWPR<HIWP	.798	.050	<.001
HIWPK<HIWP	.746	.050	<.001
JS<JS	1.000	.049	<.001
OCA<OC	.790	.050	<.001
OCC<OC	.520	.052	<.001
OCN<OC	.895	.049	<.001
EWB<EWB	.778	.050	<.001

All outer loadings are significant at .01 level.

Hence we can conclude that convergent validity for the measurement models at first order and second order levels are established by acceptable AVE Criteria and the significant indicator loadings on latent constructs.

#### 5.4.9 Discriminant validity at 1<sup>st</sup> order level

For establishing the discriminant validity of scales used in a model, checking is done to find out whether the square root of AVE of a construct is greater than the inter-construct correlation between the construct concerned and other constructs present in the model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Discriminant validity can also be checked at the indicator level. Here, absence of cross loadings of indicators shows discriminant validity, i.e., indicators should indeed load on their respective latent constructs only. Discriminant validity of the measurement model is evaluated at both construct-level and indicator-level. First order level discriminant validity is presented first in Table 5.7 followed by the analysis for the second order level model in Table 5.8.

**Table 5.7.** Comparison of AVE and Inter – construct Correlations (Discriminant Validity check)

	CR	AVE	HIWPP	HIWPI	HIWPR	HIWPK	JS	OCA	OCC	OCN	EWB
HIWPP	.889	.561	<b>.749</b>								
HIWPI	.898	.511	.566	<b>.685</b>							
HIWPR	.925	.639	.508	.625	<b>.800</b>						
HIWPK	.949	.700	.516	.556	.528	<b>.837</b>					
JS	.895	.589	.456	.456	.518	.477	<b>.768</b>				
OCA	.828	.501	.386	.434	.474	.405	.425	<b>.670</b>			
OCC	.693	.426	.004	.067	.041	.053	.064	.080	<b>.653</b>		
OCN	.864	.533	.415	.390	.436	.422	.562	.568	.333	<b>.730</b>	
EWB	.749	.335	-.200	-.212	-.297	-.193	-.294	-.384	-.308	-.422	<b>.579</b>

The table depicts discriminant validity analysis at the construct level for the first stage model. Square root of AVE values of each construct is compared with inter-construct correlations of all constructs. The diagonal entries in the above table are the square root of AVE values of the constructs. These are greater than any inter-construct correlations as shown. Therefore, it is concluded that the measurement model at the first order level possesses discriminant validity.

Another check for discriminant validity is provided by cross loadings of indicators. Discriminant validity of a model can be assumed if all indicators in a measurement model load heavily on their respective latent factor without any substantial loading on any other factor (Chin, 1998).

Table 5.8 gives the cross loadings of the latent variables in the 1<sup>st</sup> stage measurement model. All indicators except nine show loadings higher than 0.6 on their respective latent constructs. In the case of these nine indicators, the cross loadings are substantially lower than the loadings on the respective construct.

**Table 5.8.** Cross Loadings of Latent Variables in First Stage (Discriminant Validity at Indicator Level)

	<b>HIWPP</b>	<b>HIWPI</b>	<b>HIWPR</b>	<b>HIWPK</b>	<b>JS</b>	<b>OCA</b>	<b>OCC</b>	<b>OCN</b>	<b>EWB</b>
HIWPP1	<b>.718</b>	-0.083	0.102	0.023	-0.171	-0.102	-0.017	0.033	-0.098
HIWPP2	<b>.734</b>	-0.073	0.045	0.113	-0.016	-0.052	0.097	-0.055	-0.033
HIWPP3	<b>.760</b>	0.021	0.043	0.008	-0.004	-0.006	-0.043	0.018	-0.069
HIWPP4	<b>.807</b>	-0.071	-0.009	-0.045	0.014	0.042	-0.034	-0.114	-0.043
HIWPP5	<b>.677</b>	0.109	-0.153	-0.132	0.081	0.060	0.075	0.112	0.063
HIWPP6	<b>.751</b>	0.044	0.039	0.037	-0.071	-0.038	-0.008	0.041	0.090
HIWPP7	<b>.789</b>	0.061	-0.072	-0.008	0.029	0.141	-0.055	-0.014	0.035
HIWPI1	0.048	<b>.622</b>	-0.119	0.221	-0.195	-0.071	0.095	-0.174	-0.080

	HIWPP	HIWPI	HIWPR	HIWPK	JS	OCA	OCC	OCN	EWB
HIWPI2	-0.121	<b>.606</b>	-0.034	0.034	-0.217	-0.228	-0.049	0.062	-0.049
HIWPI3	0.087	<b>.685</b>	-0.115	0.088	-0.081	-0.052	0.027	-0.055	-0.028
HIWPI4	-0.079	<b>.659</b>	0.128	-0.172	-0.074	-0.073	-0.152	0.249	-0.052
HIWPI5	-0.003	<b>.695</b>	-0.089	0.047	-0.013	-0.109	-0.030	0.274	-0.039
HIWPI6	-0.107	<b>.775</b>	0.109	-0.069	0.226	0.120	0.082	-0.029	-0.033
HIWPI7	-0.112	<b>.788</b>	0.132	-0.071	0.177	0.005	0.023	-0.017	-0.051
HIWPI8	0.208	<b>.617</b>	0.165	-0.123	0.069	0.098	0.089	-0.205	0.084
HIWPI9	-0.071	<b>.721</b>	-0.099	0.031	0.091	0.115	-0.077	-0.029	-0.031
HIWPI10	0.202	<b>.655</b>	-0.104	0.031	-0.086	0.154	-0.013	0.117	-0.062
HIWPR1	0.133	0.000	<b>.738</b>	0.100	0.087	0.054	0.008	-0.192	-0.065
HIWPR2	0.002	0.000	<b>.884</b>	-0.036	-0.083	-0.016	0.017	-0.036	-0.024
HIWPR3	-0.038	0.009	<b>.801</b>	-0.144	-0.092	-0.145	0.033	0.102	-0.017
HIWPR4	0.070	-0.077	<b>.847</b>	-0.080	-0.067	-0.090	-0.089	0.095	-0.017
HIWPR5	-0.054	-0.009	<b>.773</b>	0.093	-0.010	0.046	0.022	-0.042	-0.043
HIWPR6	-0.099	-0.036	<b>.778</b>	0.116	0.196	0.142	0.054	-0.094	-0.013
HIWPR7	-0.012	0.122	<b>.765</b>	-0.028	-0.007	0.028	-0.117	0.153	-0.078
HIWPK1	0.113	-0.078	0.144	<b>.748</b>	-0.084	-0.060	-0.098	0.018	-0.099
HIWPK2	0.014	0.008	0.011	<b>.853</b>	0.016	0.021	-0.028	-0.021	-0.042
HIWPK3	0.027	-0.061	0.161	<b>.816</b>	0.037	0.008	-0.003	-0.073	-0.022
HIWPK4	-0.010	-0.056	0.025	<b>.854</b>	-0.005	0.082	0.038	0.013	0.034
HIWPK5	-0.033	-0.011	-0.107	<b>.861</b>	-0.018	0.069	0.039	-0.029	-0.016
HIWPK6	-0.033	0.095	-0.139	<b>.858</b>	0.046	-0.067	-0.045	0.053	-0.048
HIWPK7	-0.016	0.041	-0.043	<b>.843</b>	0.037	-0.002	0.081	-0.080	-0.014
HIWPK8	-0.046	0.049	-0.026	<b>.854</b>	-0.037	-0.059	0.005	0.117	0.029
JS1	-0.007	-0.007	0.073	-0.004	<b>.822</b>	0.106	0.007	-0.037	-0.033
JS2	-0.042	-0.113	0.082	0.029	<b>.789</b>	0.036	-0.019	0.038	-0.036
JS3	-0.061	-0.004	-0.120	0.019	<b>.643</b>	-0.175	-0.084	0.066	0.073
JS4	-0.020	-0.013	-0.099	0.032	<b>.673</b>	0.050	0.138	-0.122	0.058
JS5	0.040	0.011	0.100	-0.088	<b>.843</b>	-0.007	0.024	-0.013	-0.044
JS6	-0.009	0.118	-0.080	0.026	<b>.813</b>	-0.036	-0.061	0.063	-0.089
OCA1	-0.098	0.031	0.206	0.018	0.377	<b>.603</b>	0.062	0.184	-0.117
OCA2	0.021	0.128	0.180	-0.110	0.169	<b>.627</b>	0.104	0.381	0.038
OCA3	0.020	-0.089	-0.141	0.086	-0.212	<b>.658</b>	-0.056	-0.288	-0.008



	<b>HIWPP</b>	<b>HIWPI</b>	<b>HIWPR</b>	<b>HIWPK</b>	<b>JS</b>	<b>OCA</b>	<b>OCC</b>	<b>OCN</b>	<b>EWB</b>
OCA4	-0.047	0.055	-0.223	0.034	-0.136	<b>.786</b>	-0.076	-0.221	0.029
OCA5	-0.005	-0.064	-0.196	0.086	-0.081	<b>.739</b>	-0.116	-0.212	-0.017
OCA6	0.127	-0.062	0.300	-0.151	-0.046	<b>.603</b>	0.137	0.290	0.038
OCC1	0.055	-0.016	0.006	0.080	0.163	-0.153	<b>.492</b>	-0.193	-0.075
OCC2	0.139	-0.183	0.048	-0.029	0.073	0.193	<b>.697</b>	0.108	-0.060
OCC3	-0.034	-0.072	0.013	0.013	-0.022	0.144	<b>.795</b>	-0.002	-0.066
OCC4	-0.012	0.091	-0.125	-0.101	-0.028	0.183	<b>.717</b>	-0.042	-0.019
OCC5	-0.043	-0.033	0.035	-0.039	0.020	0.338	<b>-.539</b>	-0.161	-0.064
OCC6	-0.178	0.175	0.098	0.035	-0.132	-0.195	<b>.627</b>	-0.058	-0.021
OCN1	0.067	-0.182	-0.016	-0.105	0.110	0.505	-0.213	<b>.271</b>	-0.305
OCN2	-0.039	0.042	-0.129	0.009	0.063	-0.093	0.074	<b>.711</b>	-0.072
OCN3	-0.033	-0.014	0.131	-0.025	-0.157	-0.144	-0.012	<b>.766</b>	-0.017
OCN4	-0.005	-0.039	0.085	0.058	0.005	0.044	-0.046	<b>.802</b>	-0.101
OCN5	0.014	0.069	-0.112	-0.028	0.021	-0.102	0.062	<b>.822</b>	-0.024
OCN6	0.033	0.005	0.023	0.020	0.029	0.104	0.000	<b>.844</b>	-0.124
EWBJ1	0.043	0.067	-0.247	0.081	-0.247	-0.104	0.081	-0.081	<b>.625</b>
EWBJ2	0.075	-0.201	0.044	0.103	-0.069	-0.165	0.055	-0.131	<b>.689</b>
EBWJ3	0.096	-0.023	0.024	-0.006	0.009	-0.439	0.100	-0.051	<b>.508</b>
EWBJ4	-0.123	0.143	0.041	-0.032	0.111	0.164	-0.053	0.163	<b>.542</b>
EWBJ5	0.007	-0.068	0.007	-0.044	0.145	0.325	-0.127	0.042	<b>.484</b>
EWBJ6	-0.087	0.107	0.144	-0.132	0.112	0.258	-0.081	0.096	<b>.612</b>
EWBW1	-0.135	0.208	-0.040	-0.029	0.004	0.037	-0.012	0.101	<b>.603</b>
EWBW2	-0.228	0.077	0.036	0.005	0.166	0.180	-0.106	0.027	<b>.644</b>
EWBW3	0.008	-0.139	-0.050	0.253	0.269	0.264	0.150	-0.461	<b>.474</b>
EWBW4	-0.042	-0.037	-0.037	-0.111	0.159	0.146	-0.124	0.081	<b>.629</b>
EWBW5	0.146	-0.109	0.049	-0.137	0.138	0.182	-0.090	-0.147	<b>.553</b>
EWBW6	-0.046	-0.070	0.161	-0.022	0.115	0.088	0.035	0.042	<b>.657</b>
EWBW7	0.147	0.003	0.029	0.011	0.078	0.115	-0.013	-0.198	<b>.538</b>
EWBW8	0.074	0.052	0.111	-0.014	-0.292	-0.220	-0.010	0.144	<b>.533</b>
EWBW9	-0.095	-0.035	0.118	0.009	-0.012	-0.019	-0.137	0.110	<b>.644</b>
EWBW10	0.042	0.029	-0.336	0.037	-0.225	-0.134	0.129	0.075	<b>.548</b>
EWBW11	0.099	0.026	-0.024	0.015	-0.211	-0.332	0.065	0.070	<b>.607</b>
EWBW12	0.107	-0.024	-0.067	0.038	-0.216	-0.320	0.177	0.040	<b>.617</b>

Therefore, considering the loadings and cross loadings of the indicators, it can be concluded that discriminant validity is established at the indicator level. The above analysis provides ample evidence of the discriminant validity of the measurement model at the first stage. The analysis now proceeds to examine the validity at the second stage measurement model.

#### **5.4.10 Discriminant Validity at 2<sup>nd</sup> order level**

Discriminant validity check at the construct level is carried out next. The analysis is reported in Table 5.9.

**Table 5.9.** Comparison of AVE and inter – construct correlations at 2<sup>nd</sup> stage (Discriminant validity check)

<b>Construct</b>	<b>CR</b>	<b>AVE</b>	<b>HIWP</b>	<b>JS</b>	<b>OC</b>	<b>EWB</b>
HIWP	.919	.742	<b>.862</b>			
JS	1.000	1.000	.548	<b>.989</b>		
OC	.788	.565	.504	.514	<b>.752</b>	
EWB	.755	.606	-.419	-.378	-.550	<b>.778</b>

It is evident from the table that the square root of Average Variance Extracted is higher than the inter construct correlations. Hence discriminant validity of the variable was established. The cross loading matrix also confirms the discriminant validity of the measurement model at second level. Cross loadings are given below in Table 5.10.

**Table 5.10.** Cross loading of indicators at 2<sup>nd</sup> order level (Discriminant validity at indicator level).

	<b>HIWP</b>	<b>JS</b>	<b>OC</b>	<b>EWB</b>
HIWPP	<b>.942</b>	0.000	0.000	0.000
HIWPI	<b>.942</b>	0.000	0.000	0.000
HIWPR	<b>.798</b>	0.000	0.000	0.000
HIWPK	<b>.742</b>	0.000	0.000	0.000
JS	0.000	<b>1.000</b>	0.000	0.000
OCA	0.000	0.000	<b>.790</b>	0.000
OCC	0.000	0.000	<b>.520</b>	0.000
OCN	0.000	0.000	<b>.895</b>	0.000
EWB	0.000	0.000	0.000	<b>.778</b>

The table depicts the cross loadings of all indicators in the model and they have cleanly loaded their own latent variables. Cross loadings are not substantial in any case and are substantially lower than the indicator loading. Therefore, the cross loading analysis can be taken as a further evidence for the discriminate validity model.

#### **5.4.11 Conclusion on Reliability and Validity of measurement model**

As suggested in literature, measurement/ operational model was evaluated before the analysis of the structural/inner model. The analysis has exhibited good results for validity (Construct and discriminant), reliability and unidimensionality. This shows the soundness of the measurement model. Hence analysis can be taken to the next stage of structural model evaluation.

### **5.5 Analysis of the Structural Model**

This section deals with the comprehensive analysis of the structural model which demonstrates the hypothesized associations among the variables

under study. A PLS model is mainly evaluated by the weights of the latent constructs and the path coefficients on similar lines of a regression analysis (Chin, 1998).

### 5.5.1 Path Coefficients in the Structural Model

The main objective of path coefficients is to indicate whether the hypothesized relationships among the constructs exist or not and if they do, whether they are in the predicted directions. Lohmoller (1989) had suggested that a path will be meaningful and theoretically interesting when it is above 0.1 and 0.2 (Chin, 1998). As represented in the Table 5.11, all paths in the model except for that between EWB – JS showed values above 0.1 indicating the hypothesized paths are meaningful. The path between EWB – JS showed that the path was significant at 0.05 level. The path between job satisfaction and high involvement work processes is 0.552 which means the relationship is very strong. So is the case with employee withdrawal behavior and organizational commitment (Coefficient - 0.434). The table represents the path significance results.

**Table 5.11.** Path Significance

Indicators	Values	P - value	Significance
JS - HIWP	.552	.001	**
OC - HIWP	.328	.001	**
OC - JS	.339	.001	**
EWB - HIWP	-.162	.001	**
EWB – JS	-.075	.009	*
EWB - OC	-.434	.001	**

\*\*significant at .01 level \* significant at .05 level

As the figure 5.1 indicates, all the structural paths of the model are significant at 5% level and five paths are significant even at .01.

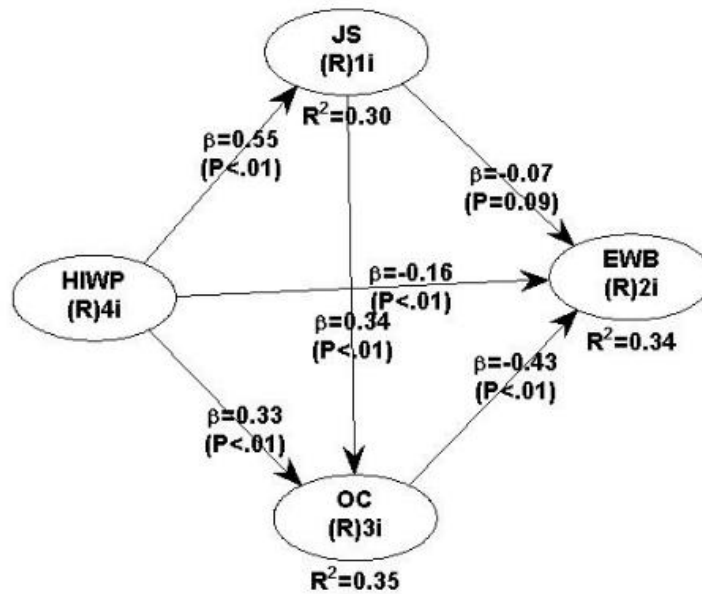


Figure 5.1. Structural paths of the model

R square or the weight of the endogenous construct employee withdrawal behaviors is 0.34 and this indicates that the High Involvement Work Processes accounts for 34% of the variation in Employee Withdrawal Behaviors. Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment have explained to 30 % and 35% variation by the model. Therefore the highest explanatory power of the model is for the construct organizational commitment. (See Table 5.12)

Table 5.12. R<sup>2</sup> values for the constructs

Endogenous Constructs	Job Satisfaction	Organizational Commitment	Employee Withdrawal Behaviors
R - square	.30	.35	.34

Based on studies done by Chin (1998),  $R^2$  of 0.67 is termed as substantial, 0.33 as moderate and 0.19 as weak. In the model of the present study, employee withdrawal behavior is the most important dependent construct. Here the present model which can account for .34% of the variations in employee withdrawal behavior can be considered to have good predictive relevance. In addition, one has to consider the number of predictor variables in the model also for evaluating the effect of the model on the outcome variable. According to Hensler, Ringle & Sinkovics (2009), if the number of exogenous variables for an endogenous construct is only one or two, even a ‘moderate’ effect should be considered substantial. Therefore, High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behavior should also be considered as adequately explained by the model considering the number of exogenous variables and their  $R^2$  values. A model summary is given in Table 5.13 which shows that all the values are significant.

**Table 5.13.** Model Summary

<b>Average Path Coefficient (APC)</b>	0.315 , $P < 0.001$
<b>Average R – Squared (ARS)</b>	0.329, $P < 0.001$
<b>Average Adjusted R – Squared (AARS)</b>	0.325, $P < 0.001$
<b>Average Block VIF (AVIF)</b>	1.519, ideally $\leq 3.3$
<b>Tenenhaus GoF (GoF)</b>	0.433, Large $\geq 0.36$
<b>Sympson’s Paradox ratio (SPR)</b>	1.000, ideally =1
<b>R – Squared contribution ratio (RSCR)</b>	1.000, ideally =1
<b>Statistical Suppression ratio (SSR)</b>	1.000, acceptable if $\geq 0.7$
<b>Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)</b>	1.000, acceptable if $\geq 0.7$

## **5.7 Conclusion**

The chapter presented the analysis and interpretation of data collected for the study. The hypotheses related to market orientation and its variations based on certain organizational characteristics were analyzed using appropriate nonparametric tests and the interpretations of the results were presented. The major focus of the study, the relationship between market orientation and the different dimensions of organizational performance was analyzed by Structural Equation Modeling technique using the PLS method. PLS- SEM analysis showed that the conceptual model was supported by data.





## FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

<i>Contents</i>	6.1 Findings.
	6.2 Discussions.
	6.3 Limitations of the study.
	6.4 Implications of study to management theory.
	6.5 Implications of study to managerial practice.
	6.6 Scope of further research.
	6.7 Conclusions

*This chapter deals with findings, discussion and conclusion of the study. A summary of the findings of the study are presented in section 6.1. Section 6.2 discusses and critically examines the findings of the present study in the light of research objectives and also contains a discussion of the findings in the light of the existing literature on the subject. Limitations of the study are discussed in section 6.3. Sections 6.4 and 6.5 contain implications of the study to management theory and for managerial practice. Scope for further research is included in section 6.6. Section 6.7 contains the conclusion drawn from the study.*

### 6.1 Findings

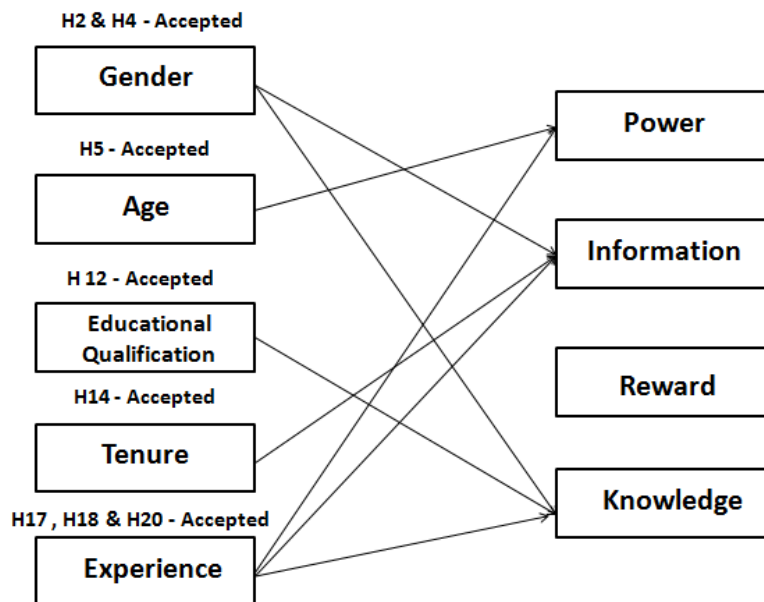
The major purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors in IT industry. The study was based on primary data collected through a questionnaire survey conducted among employees working in

large IT companies who have more than one year of experience in that firm. From the NASSCOM database, all the large IT firms operating in Kerala were shortlisted based on the annual revenue of the company and years of existence. TCS, Infosys and Wipro were selected from the list of large IT firms based on the firm's market share. Twelve project teams with a team size of more than 25 were selected at random from each company. 10 members from each team were randomly selected which constituted the sample for the study. Data analysis was carried out by employing suitable statistical methods including Structural Equation Modeling. The summary of findings as per the data analysis and interpretation are presented below followed by the detailed discussion of these findings.

#### Influence of demographic variables on High Involvement Work Processes

- Female employees perceived higher levels of Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to that of male employees.
- Female employees perceived higher levels of Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to that of male employees.
- Employees in the age group of 31-35 perceived higher levels of Power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees.
- Employees with graduation perceived higher levels of Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees.

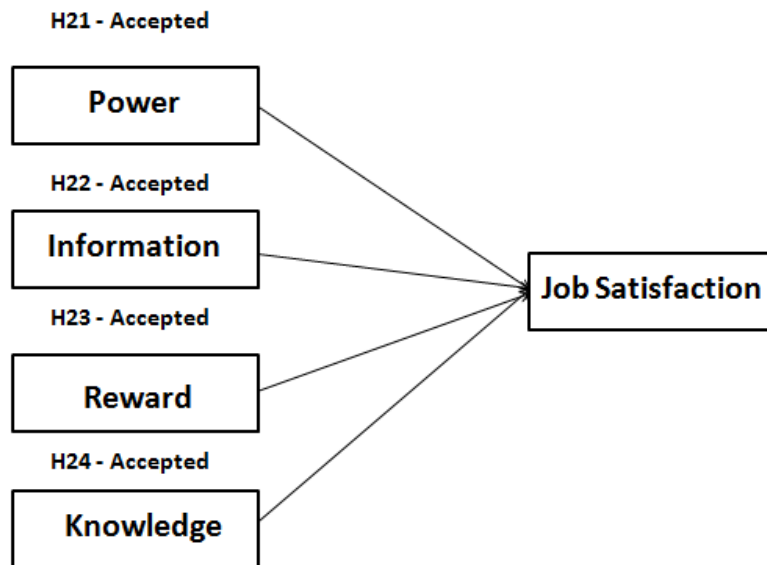
- Employees with more than 9 years of tenure with the organization perceived higher levels of Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees.
- Employees with more than 9 years of experience perceived higher levels of Power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees.
- Employees with more than 9 years of experience perceived higher levels of Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees.
- Employees more than 9 years of experience perceived higher levels of Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees.



**Figure 6.1.** Diagrammatic representation of findings on influence of demographic variables on High Involvement Work Processes

### Impact of High Involvement Work Processes on Job Satisfaction

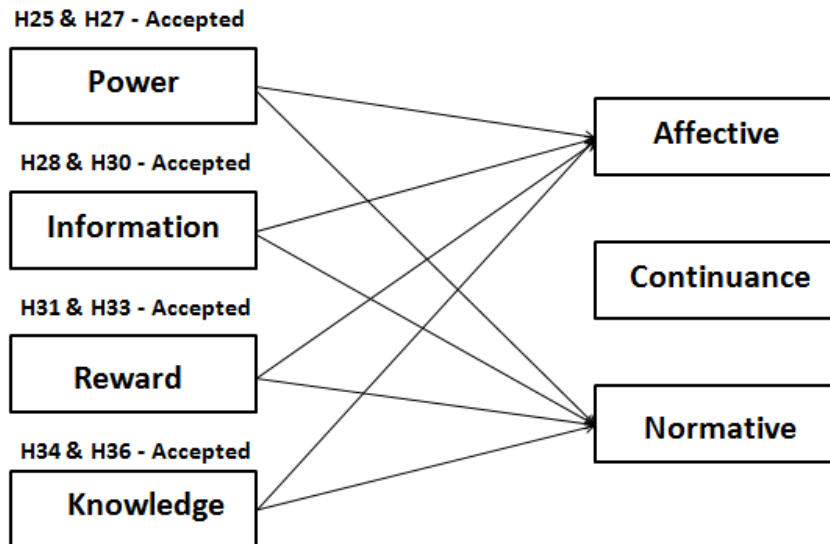
- Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes have a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of employees in IT industry.
- Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of employees in IT industry.
- Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of employees in IT industry.
- Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of employees in IT industry.



**Figure 6.2.** Diagrammatic representation of findings on impact of High Involvement Work Processes on Job Satisfaction.

### Impact of High Involvement Work Processes on Organizational Commitment

- Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry.
- Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry.
- Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry.
- Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry.
- Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry.
- Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry.
- Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry.
- Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a positive impact on Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry.



**Figure 6.3.** Diagrammatic representation of findings on impact of High Involvement Work Processes on Organizational Commitment.

#### Impact of Job Satisfaction on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

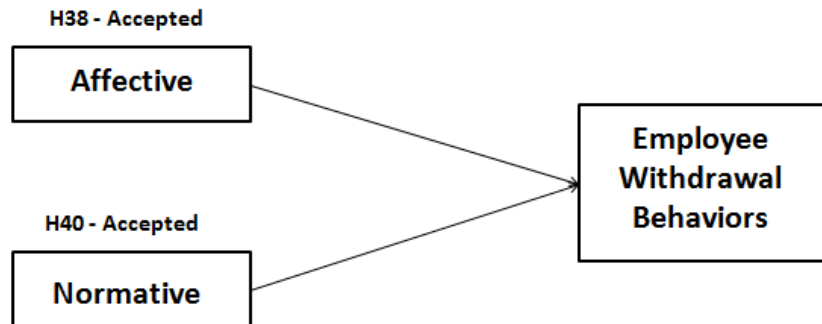
- Job Satisfaction has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees working in IT industry.



**Figure 6.4.** Diagrammatic representation of findings on impact of Job Satisfaction on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

### Impact of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

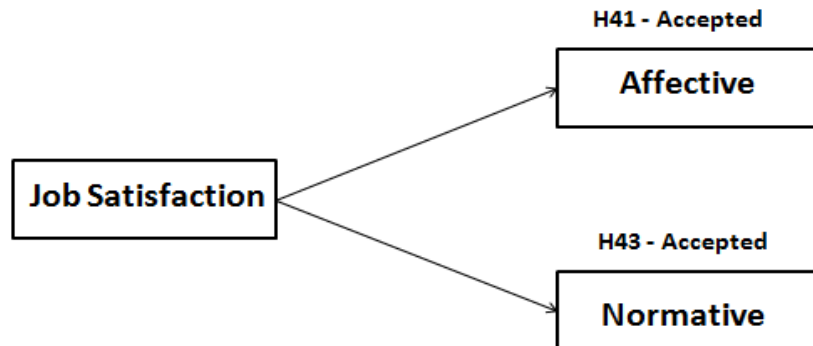
- Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry.
- Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry.



**Figure 6.5.** Diagrammatic representation of findings on impact of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

### Impact of Job Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment

- Job Satisfaction has a positive impact on the Affective dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry.
- Job Satisfaction has a positive impact on the Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry.

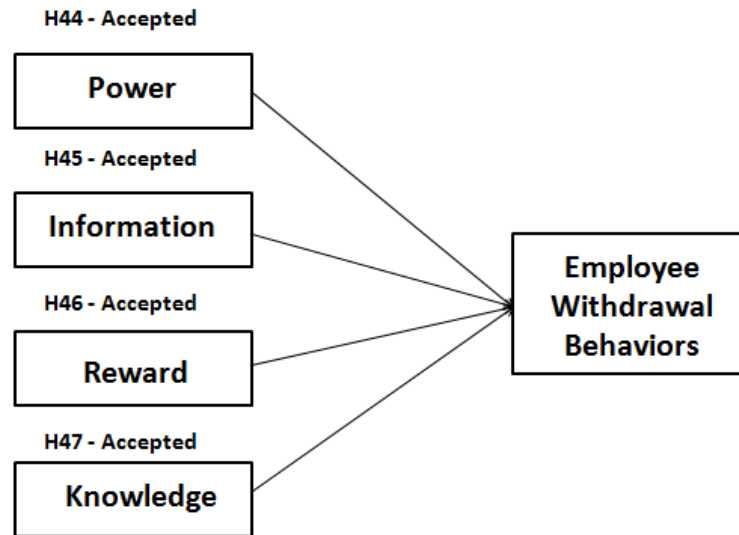


**Figure 6.6.** Diagrammatic representation of findings on impact of Job Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment

#### Impact of High Involvement Work Processes on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors

- Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry.
- Information dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry.
- Reward dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry.
- Knowledge dimension of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry.
- There is a statistically valid model that exists between High Involvement Work Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.





**Figure 6.7.** Diagrammatic representation of findings on impact of High Involvement Work Processes on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

## 6.2 Discussions

### 6.2.1 Influence of background variables on High Involvement Work Processes

#### 6.2.1.1 Influence of Gender on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes

Analysis of data showed that women experienced elevated levels of Information and Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to that of men employed in IT industry. This is the result of gender inclusive practices implemented by IT firms. A research done by NASSCOM in 2007 showed that most of the firms who participated in the study concentrated on building a gender inclusive atmosphere. After one year, the attention was switched to initiatives such as career enhancement opportunity, gender neutral strategies, grievance policies and compensation

management. It is worthy to note that while the pace of embracing these initiatives has come down, all of them started in 2007 is still continued (NASSCOM Annual Report, 2010).

The main benefits attained from gender inclusivity practices include a stronger employer brand, enhanced levels of efficiency and decreased attrition within the workforce. The fact that women make dominant brand ambassadors has to be acknowledged and given that women represent a large share of all retail and consumer purchasing power. Therefore, the addition of women in leadership roles in the organization can help move buying decisions to the advantage of their product or service (NASSCOM & Mercer Report, 2009). This is evident from the conscious effort taken by Microsoft to include women into their engineering design teams with a view of creating products appealing to women consumers. As a part of their inclusivity movement, Infosys regularly conducts women oriented workshops to create female portals. The board of directors has communicated that these programs should have visibility and has to be continued. For developing and retaining women in their workforce, the women leader's council spearheaded by IBM focuses on attracting female employees (NASSCOM & Mercer Report, 2009). For empowering women, multinationals adopt networking groups and mentorship programmes apart from giving them visibility in conferences as speakers or participants. These initiatives have resulted in women experiencing higher levels of Information and Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to that of men working in IT industry.

### **6.2.1.2 Influence of Age on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes**

The analysis showed that employees in the age group of 31-35 perceived higher levels of Power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees. According to the Power dimension of High Involvement Work Processes, authority facilitates employees in influencing important organizational decisions. The focal area of involvement research on power revolves around power sharing practices such as quality circles, union-management, quality work life committees, survey feedback, suggestion systems, and other participative groups; as well as more direct forms which consist of job enrichment or redesign, self-managing work teams, task forces and policy/strategy committees, and mini business units (Lawler et al., 1995).

L&T, one of the leading infrastructure, engineering and construction groups in India realized that its framework of large and diverse businesses was restricting growth as important decisions were delayed or not taken at all. Based on this, L&T decided to restructure its organization by dividing into a business group of nine separate companies, allotting them with more autonomous status, with each having a separate board of directors (Tata Review, 2011). According to L&T chairman AM Naik, this reconstruction would help to make the decision-making closer to the business rather than of the parent company deliberating at its board meetings and thereby ensuring growth and increased competitiveness. This trend of restructuring and decentralization of power has led to senior managers experiencing more autonomy in their respective organization.

Within India's software Industry, the larger companies offer excellent working environment with employees showered with various benefits. Indian software firms are inclined to be flatter with more employee participative decision making practices in place. Wipro Technologies have restructured its business lines into a concept termed as One Wipro (Tata Review, 2011). The plan is to have a process where the different parts of its business are organized to generate single decision. A minor group of verticals is being standardized to get rid of redundancies and maintain lean, responsive businesses. The rapid changes in the organizational structure has resulted in senior employees in the age group of 31-35 experiencing higher levels of Power dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees

### **6.2.1.3 Influence of Educational Qualification on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes**

The analysis showed that employees with graduation perceived higher levels of Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees. The idea of knowledge rests on the assumption that employees need the right knowledge and skills to be productive at work and efficiently participate in influencing the outcomes of their organizations (Lawler et al., 1995). Employees who have knowledge are competent enough in performing at the level that the organization requires. Training and development programs are a unique way for developing knowledge in the organizations seeking to implement high involvement. Majority of the leading players employ either engineers or students with other degrees. Only few of the firms hire graduates from private training institutes.

For example, the Initial Learning Programme (ILP) is a grooming platform introduced by TCS for all new recruits. The main objective of ILP is to change fresh engineering graduates from different disciplines into software professionals and to mould them into the TCS way of life. Apart from inculcating the importance of learning and sharing, the ILP model has incessantly evolved along with the shifting needs of the business. Apart from being introduced to different technologies, trainees are also trained in skills related to project management and business. Supervisors will regularly review the log of daily learning maintained by individual trainees and this is done to ensure that trainees reach a pre-determined readiness level before they are directed to specific projects. Special remedial programs are also in place to cater to the learning needs of slow learners so that they will be able to catch up with expectations. New recruits at graduate level tend to get a lot of similar programs to enhance their knowledge about the job and the organization. This might be the reason why employees with graduation perceived higher levels of Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to employees with post-graduation and doctorate (TCS Corporate Sustainability Report, 2008-09)

#### **6.2.1.4 Influence of Tenure on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes**

The analysis shows that employees with more than nine years of tenure with the organization perceived higher levels of Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees. Employees understand business when information is disseminated throughout an organization and will have a better understanding about firm strategy (Lawler, 1996). The important aspect of the information attribute lies in the

fact that the absence of significant unit and organizational information makes the employees handicapped in understanding the business and consequently will not be in a position to contribute to its success. To reap better business results, sharing of key business information to employees and top management is necessary so that they could make sound organizational decisions (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996).

Large IT firms are well aware about the importance of retaining employees. For example, Infosys enjoys high financial growth rates, but at the same time faces the continuous need for skilled professionals. The reason behind this phenomenon is the high turnover rates experienced by the company with an Infosys employee's average tenure being only about two years which is slightly higher than the industry turnover rates (NASSCOM Annual Report, 2014). So for bringing down turnover and developing a bond between employees and organization, similar to many IT firms, Infosys is attempting to engage their employees in loyalty programmes and to cultivate a strong corporate culture. Since senior employees have more access to such initiatives in the organization, employees with more than nine years of tenure with the organization perceived higher levels of Information dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees.

#### **6.2.1.5 Influence of Experience on dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes**

Employees with more than nine years of experience perceived higher levels of Power, Information and Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other employees. The focus of Lawler (1992) was on a bottom up approach to management which is

achieved by shifting decision making to grass root levels of the organization and requires a management philosophy that emphasizes sharing and accountability (Lawler, 1992). Research done by Drucker (1988) has already established evidence stating that intelligible data is vital to the effective functioning of organizations. This according to researches is critical for motivated employees who make decisions matching organizational strategies, gives vertical operational intelligence and participate in decision making in meaningful ways (Miller & Monge, 1986; Scully, et al., 1995). Employees can see the big picture only when they know their jobs and the operation of the organization. They can effectively participate in decision-making when technical knowledge is integrated with a broader firm perspective. Since all these three dimensions are directly linked with experience of an employee, employees with more than nine years of experience perceived higher levels of Power, Information and Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes compared to other categories of employees.

### **6.2.2 Impact of dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes on Job Satisfaction**

The analysis shows that Power, Information, Reward and Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes have a positive impact on Job Satisfaction of employees in IT industry. There is enough literature support for the positive relationship between High Involvement Work Processes and Job Satisfaction. According to Riordan and Vandenberg (1999), involving work can be beneficial to the individual and the organization. In the previous discussion of the cognitive evaluation theory, it was explained that HIWP produces the purported benefits to the individual

and the organization through the creation of work situations that are both intrinsically motivating and are also providing appropriate extrinsic rewards.

Employees will experience an increase in morale when these types of situations are created at work (Miller & Monge, 1986). Based on the motivational model or working harder model, the four attributes (Power, Information, Rewards and Knowledge) of HIWP will create this positive work situation to produce intrinsic motivation and thus increase morale. Riordan and Vandenberg (1999) had also suggested that when Power attribute fulfills the needs for responsibility feedback and independence, the Knowledge and Information attributes fulfill the need for facilitation and the Rewards attribute fulfills the needs for support and recognition. Thus the findings of the present study are supported well by the findings of earlier researches and existing literature.

### **6.2.3 Impact of dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes on Organizational Commitment**

The analysis shows that Power, Information, Reward and Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes have a positive impact on the Affective and Normative dimensions of Organizational Commitment. According to Meyer & Allen (1997), there is a variation of the attitude expressed by employees towards the organization across performance indicators and between jobs. The strongest associations between Affective commitment and behavior will be noted for behavior that is significant to the constituency to which the commitment is directed. According to Meyer & Allen (1997), the antecedent research on Affective commitment states that there is possible universal appeal for those work circumstances where employees are justly treated and their contributions are well appreciated.



Such experiences might satisfy a higher order need to improve perceptions of self worth. Origin of Continuance Commitment lies in the side bets tradition (Becker, 1960) and refers to employee's sacrifices associated with terminating employment and the awareness created in the employee about the costs involved in leaving the organization. Continuance Commitment can result from any action or event that enhances the costs of quitting, provided the employee recognizes that these costs have been incurred. The level of Continuance Commitment of IT employees tends to be low since they have ample opportunities available.

According to Wiener (1982), development of Normative Commitment to the organization happens as a result of the pressures that individuals feel during their early socialization and during their socialization as newcomers to the organisation. Meyer & Allen (1997) further state that development of Normative Commitment is based on the investment that the organisation makes that is difficult to the employee to give back in return to the firm. Apart from that, psychological contract between an employee and the organization plays a role in the development of Normative Commitment (Rousseau, 1989; Schein, 1980).

The most commonly recognized forms of psychological contracts are transactional and relational (Rousseau, 1989). While transactional contracts tend to be more objective in nature and are based on the principles of economic exchange, relational contracts are more abstract in nature and are based on principles of social exchange. Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni (1995) argued that relational contracts are more pertinent to Normative Commitment and transactional contract might be involved in the

development of Continuance Commitment. Thus, the finding of the present study is also supported well by the findings of past research and current literature.

#### **6.2.4 Impact of Job Satisfaction on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors**

Data analysis reveals that Job Satisfaction has a negative effect on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees working in IT industry. Previous studies have found a strong inverse association between overall Job Satisfaction and absenteeism (Oldham et al., 1986). Research done by Waters & Roach showed that there is a significant relationship between the frequency of absence and overall Job Satisfaction (Waters & Roach, 1971). Hrebiniak & Roteman (1973) noted a considerable correlation between job dissatisfaction and the number of days absent from the job.

Muchinsky (1977) was of the opinion that it is highly logical that withdrawal from work should be related to attitudes toward work. A study done by the Oldham, et al., (1986) on the correlation between job facet comparisons and employee reactions found out that those who felt under rewarded were less satisfied and demonstrated inferior performance and enhanced levels of absenteeism than employees who felt impartially treated or over rewarded (Oldham, et al.,1986). Nicholson, Toby & Lischeron (1977) also observed a negative association among work satisfaction and absence measures.

#### **6.2.5 Impact of Organizational Commitment on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors**

The analysis in this study shows that Affective and Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment has a negative impact on Employee

Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry. In the study of work attitudes and behaviors, Organizational Commitment has been a very important concept. This is due to the relationship that Organizational Commitment has with significant work consequences which affect organizational effectiveness, such as tardiness, absenteeism, turnover intentions and actual turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). It is a common notion that committed employees have a strong desire to stay with their organizations. They will be more willing to put the effort in order to achieve organizational goals and values, and more likely to avoid the option of withdrawal or exit. As a result, employees who are really committed to the organization contribute to its overall effectiveness by bringing down the costs incurred from high turnovers (Ivancevich et al., 1997), and increasing job performance and productivity (Mottaz, 1988; Naumann, 1993).

### **6.2.6 Impact of Job Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment**

The analysis shows that Job Satisfaction has a positive impact on the Affective and Normative dimension of Organizational Commitment of employees in IT industry. Job Satisfaction has a strong positive effect on the creation of Organizational Commitment among the employees. Job satisfaction creates a positive state of mind in employees (Smith, 1983) which in turn motivates them to give back to their organization through Organizational Commitment. According to Mottazz (1988), the important determinants of Organizational Commitment are job autonomy, job involvement, wage, and promotional opportunities. Literature has enough proof of the positive relationship between Job Satisfaction and commitment (Glisson & Durick, 1988). Mathieu & Zajac (1990) Meta – analyzed 124 studies on Organizational Commitment and found out a uniformly positive

correlation between Job Satisfaction and organizational commitment. A research done on the Organizational Commitment of Russian workers displayed positive correlations among job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment (Linz, 2002). So there is enough literature supporting the research findings that there is a positive relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment.

### **6.2.7 Impact of dimensions of High involvement work processes on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors**

The analysis shows that Power, Information, Reward and Knowledge dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes has a negative impact on Employee Withdrawal Behaviors of employees in IT industry. Literature has not stated a strong relationship between power and turnover intention. Research done by Shaw et al. (1998) stated that low job control and high demand in turn influence withdrawal cognitions and resignations which results in the inverse relationship between power and turnover intention (Magner, Welker & Johnson, 1996). Apart from that, power allows greater influence over work scheduling and it has a negative relationship with absenteeism. When the employees are kept in the dark, they feel less happy in their work and are more likely to create false equity comparisons in the absence of objective data, and thus absenteeism and the relationship between absenteeism and turnover intentions with information tend to be negative (Price, 1977).

The negative relationship between absenteeism and turnover intentions is deduced from the fact that withdrawal cognitions and behaviors are preceded by an evaluation of comparative benefits of withdrawing (Arthur, 1992; Batt, 2002; Farrell & Stamm, 1988; March & Simon, 1958;

Shaw et al., 1998). Since it is tough to assess the true level of understanding of employees regarding their jobs and the organization, researchers usually employ extensive training and development practices as evidence that an organization is seeking to provide employees with the necessary knowledge. Lawler et al., (1995) did a descriptive study which proved that cross-training and training in technical skills are positively associated with organizational performance, profitability, competitiveness, and employee satisfaction. These studies underline that High Involvement Work Processes help in reducing Employee Withdrawal Behaviors in organizations.

#### **6.2.8 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)**

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) procedures justify the model linking High Involvement Work Processes and the HR outcomes. By examining the reliability and unidimensionality at first and second stage measurement level using Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability, it was evident that all measurement blocks in the first order measurement model are reliable and unidimensional. Through the measure of the average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct, convergent validity of the scale was captured using PLS. Convergent validity of the constructs was confirmed since the AVE values of most of the constructs were found to be higher than 0.5. Since significance at .01 levels were established for all outer indicator loadings and their p values, the convergent validity at indicator level for the first and second order constructs was confirmed.

For establishing the discriminant validity of scales used in the model, check was done to find out whether the square root of AVE of a construct was greater than the inter-construct correlation between the construct

concerned and other constructs present in the model. A loading higher than 0.7 was exhibited by most indicators on their latent constructs in the first and the second stage measurement model. Establishment of discriminant validity at the both levels was confirmed after considering the loadings and cross loadings of the indicators.

As the literature suggests, the measurement/ operational model was evaluated before the analysis of the structural/inner model. Good results for reliability, unidimensionality, discriminant validity and convergent validity was obtained from the analysis which indicated soundness of the measurement model. Therefore analysis was taken to the next stage of structural model evaluation. Many researchers have recommended that for a path to be meaningful and theoretically interesting, the values should be above 0.1 and 0.2 (Lohmoller. 1989). All paths in the model are above 0.2 indicating that the hypothesized paths are meaningful. The path between Job Satisfaction and High Involvement Work Processes is 0.552 which means the relationship is very strong. So is the case with Employee Withdrawal Behaviors and Organizational Commitment.

$R^2$  or the weight of the dependant variable Employee Withdrawal Behaviors is 0.34 and this shows that the High Involvement Work Processes accounts for 34% of the variation in Employee Withdrawal Behaviors. The other endogenous variables, job satisfaction and Organizational Commitment are explained to 30 % and 35% variations by the model. Therefore the highest explanatory power of the model is for the construct Organizational Commitment followed by Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

Based on studies done by Chin (1998),  $R^2$  of 0.67 is termed as substantial, 0.33 as moderate and 0.19 as weak. In the model of the present study, employee withdrawal behavior is the most important dependent construct. Here the present model which can account for .34% of the variations in employee withdrawal behavior can be considered to have good predictive relevance. In addition, one has to consider the number of predictor variables in the model also for evaluating the effect of the model on the outcome variable. According to some researchers, if the number of exogenous variables for an endogenous construct is only one or two, even a 'moderate' effect should be considered substantial. Therefore, High Involvement Work Processes and employee withdrawal behaviors should be considered as adequately explained by the model considering the number of exogenous variables and their  $R^2$  values.

### **6.3 Limitations of the study**

- 1) Only large IT firms operating in Kerala were considered for the study. The medium and small IT firms are excluded because of literature support for the fact that it takes time for an organization to implement, improve and standardize High Involvement Work Processes.
- 2) Researchers suggest that studies relying only on self report may either blow up correlations or in a cross – sectional design, might introduce problems of volatility.
- 3) Perceptual difference about the High Involvement work processes among the employees could be attributed to their varied levels of awareness about the policies and practices even though these

remain the same for the organization. This aspect was not considered in the study.

- 4) The survey instrument and the interviews were limited in several ways such as the individuals' honest answers on the surveys and interview instruments as well as the time allowed during the survey.

#### **6.4 Implications to Management Theory**

In this study, the relationship between High Involvement Work Processes and selected HR outcomes is explored. The present study makes an effort to capture the effect of High Involvement Work Processes with Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors considered as the consequent variables. Results have established that these processes have significant impact on all the three HR outcomes. These insights may facilitate researchers in the HR arena to develop more concrete understanding of the positive effects of High Involvement Work Processes on HR outcomes. The present study provides the obvious contribution of weaving up yet another linkage between streams of Human resource management and organizational behavior.

The current research also contributes to the understanding of Employee Withdrawal Behaviors by exploring its antecedents and the role of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment in attaining employee retention. The findings indicate that high level of all dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes results in higher Job Satisfaction. Apart from that, study also proved that high level of all dimensions of High involvement work processes produced high levels of Organizational Commitment except for the dimension



of Continuance Commitment. Results showed negative correlation between all dimensions of High Involvement Work Processes and Employee withdrawal Behaviors. Positive relationship between Job Satisfaction and three dimensions of Organizational behavior was also established by the researcher.

The researcher drew upon the perception – attitude – behavior model to further realize the expected relationship among High involvement work processes, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors. Consequently, this study makes a contribution to the broader Employee Withdrawal Behaviors literature by manifesting the extended relationship path from High Involvement Work Processes to Employee Withdrawal Behaviors, and demonstrating that High Involvement Work Processes at the organizational level has an effect on employee attitudes and behaviors as well.

## **6.5 Implications for Managerial Practice**

This study offers practical implications for employers seeking to motivate employees, and provide insights into why employees are engaging in withdrawal behaviors. The HIWP –EWB model will enable the management to identify the paths that lead to Employee Withdrawal Behaviors and chalk out strategies to avoid the same.

Providing High Involvement Work Processes help organizations put across an impression of employee – orientation through introducing motivational practices that are closely linked to the immediate interest of employees and which are focused on influencing employee perceptions and attitudes. Moreover, the levels of perceived satisfaction with the High Involvement Work Processes by the employees also encourage employees to

stay in the organization and avoid indulging in Employee Withdrawal Behaviors.

## **6.6 Scope of future research**

- Future research may focus on identifying and comparing the perception of middle level managers, line managers and IT professionals on High Involvement Work Processes of IT companies.
- Apart from large IT companies, future researchers should study perception of High Involvement Work Processes among middle level and small IT firms.
- Studies can also focus on High Involvement Work Processes and HR outcomes with reference to life cycle stages of the organization.
- To increase the scope of future study, researchers can look for High Involvement Work Processes of IT firms based on classification in terms of product oriented and project or service oriented companies.
- Better insights into causal relationship can be obtained by conducting a longitudinal study. So researchers who venture into a study of High Involvement Work Processes can go for longitudinal study in the field where additive and interactive effects of High Involvement Work Processes on HR outcomes could be unearthed.
- The mediating effect of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment on the connection between High Involvement Work

Processes and Employee Withdrawal Behaviors can be further explored.

- Apart from Employee Withdrawal Behaviors which captures the negative implications of High Involvement Work Processes, Organizational Citizenship Behavior can be considered as the dependent variable to study its positive effects.
- By replacing self reporting data with secondary data collected from the organization, a different perspective of the issue can be obtained.

## **6.7 Conclusions**

The ever changing business environment has forced human resource function to demonstrate the value addition it can bring to the organization. Relevance of HR function to organizational effectiveness was frequently questioned based on the argument that the role played by HR is primarily reactive and administrative. Decreased turnover and absenteeism, better quality work, and enhanced financial performance have been proved to be the results of progressive HRM practices in training. Managers now believe that many HR practices have to be managed congruently to ensure retention management of employees. These HRM practices are widely used by organizations for achieving retention and commitment.

This study reinforces the wide scope of High Involvement Work Processes as well as its capacity to influence the unique cultural setting of the organization. High Involvement Work Processes have been considered by many researchers to be of prime importance in providing firms with

winning edge and the ability to operate efficiently within a competitive environment. As an inevitable part of the value chain, these processes affect the overall performance of the firm and are also acknowledged as one of the strongest antecedents of affective commitment when compared with varied organizational influences. The study ensures the shifting of ownership and accountability for High Involvement Work Processes which was traditional vested in top management to HR professionals.

This study confirms the influence of High Involvement Work Processes on HR outcomes. The impact of High Involvement Work Processes included better quality products and services, reduced absenteeism, fewer turnover, improved decision making, and better problem solving, in short superior organizational effectiveness. High Involvement Work Processes allows organizations to take better advantage of the skills and abilities their employees already possess and maximize organizational productivity.

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# Appendix

## Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am Manu Melwin Joy doing my research at School of Management studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology in the topic “A study on the impact of High Involvement Work Processes on Employee withdrawal behaviours in IT industry”. It will be great if you could go through the instructions and respond to the statements that follow. Response confidentiality is assured. The pages of the questionnaire are numbered, and are printed on both sides of the paper. Kindly do not leave any item unanswered.

### Section A

Kindly circle the appropriate column to indicate your response. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the items listed in the questionnaire using a 5 point scale ranging from **Completely true(5)** to **Not at all true (1)** with a midpoint labelled **Neither true nor untrue (3)**.

<b>Part 1</b>							
SI No	Code	Item	Scale				
1	HIWP-P1	I have sufficient authority to fulfil my job responsibilities	5	4	3	2	1
2	HIWP-P2	I have enough input in deciding how to accomplish my jobs	5	4	3	2	1
3	HIWP-P3	I am encouraged to participate in decisions that affect me	5	4	3	2	1
4	HIWP-P4	I have enough freedom over how I do my job	5	4	3	2	1
5	HIWP-P5	I have enough authority to make decisions necessary to provide quality customer service	5	4	3	2	1
6	HIWP-P6	For the most part, I am encouraged to participate in and make decision that affects my day to day work activities	5	4	3	2	1
7	HIWP-P7	All in all, I am given enough authority to act and make decisions about my work	5	4	3	2	1

<b>Part 2</b>							
1	<b>HIWP-I1</b>	I am clearly communicated about the Company policies and procedures.	5	4	3	2	1
2	<b>HIWP-I2</b>	I am given sufficient notice prior to making changes in policies and procedures by the management.	5	4	3	2	1
3	<b>HIWP-I3</b>	Most of the time, I receive sufficient notice of changes that affect my work group	5	4	3	2	1
4	<b>HIWP-I4</b>	Management takes time to explain to me the reasoning behind critical decisions that are made.	5	4	3	2	1
5	<b>HIWP-I5</b>	Management is adequately informed of the important issues in my department	5	4	3	2	1
6	<b>HIWP-I6</b>	Management makes sufficient effort to get my opinions and feelings.	5	4	3	2	1
7	<b>HIWP-I7</b>	Management tends to stay informed of my needs	5	4	3	2	1
8	<b>HIWP-I8</b>	I have effective channels of my communication with top management.	5	4	3	2	1
9	<b>HIWP-I9</b>	Top management communicates a clear organizational mission and how each division contributes to achieving that mission.	5	4	3	2	1
10	<b>HIWP-I10</b>	We, employees of this company work toward common organizational goals.	5	4	3	2	1
<b>Part 3</b>							
1	<b>HIWP-R1</b>	My performance evaluations within the past few years have been helpful to me in my professional development	5	4	3	2	1
2	<b>HIWP-R2</b>	There is a strong link between how well I perform my job and the likelihood of my receiving recognition and praise	5	4	3	2	1
3	<b>HIWP-R3</b>	There is a strong link between how well I perform my job and the likelihood of my receiving a raise in pay/salary.	5	4	3	2	1
4	<b>HIWP-R4</b>	There is a strong link between how well I perform my job and the likelihood of my receiving high performance appraisal ratings	5	4	3	2	1

5	HIWP-R5	Generally, I feel this company rewards employees who make an extra effort	5	4	3	2	1
6	HIWP-R6	I am satisfied with the amount of recognition I receive when I do a good job	5	4	3	2	1
7	HIWP-R7	If I perform my job well, I am likely to be promoted	5	4	3	2	1
<b>Part 4</b>							
1	HIWP-K1	I am given a real opportunity to improve my skills at this company through education and training programs	5	4	3	2	1
2	HIWP-K2	I have had sufficient job related training	5	4	3	2	1
3	HIWP-K3	My supervisor helped me acquire additional job related training when I have needed it	5	4	3	2	1
4	HIWP-K4	I receive ongoing training, which enables me to do my job better	5	4	3	2	1
5	HIWP-K5	I am satisfied with the number of training and development programs available to me	5	4	3	2	1
6	HIWP-K6	I am satisfied with the quality of training and development programs available to me	5	4	3	2	1
7	HIWP-K7	The training and educational activities I have received enabled me to perform my job more effectively	5	4	3	2	1
8	HIWP-K8	Overall, I am satisfied with my training opportunities	5	4	3	2	1

### Section B

This section seeks to measure your job satisfaction. Kindly circle the appropriate column to indicate your response. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the items listed in the questionnaire using a 4 point scale ranging from **Strongly agree (4)** to **Strongly disagree (1)**.

SI No	Code	Item	Scale			
1	JS - 1	I find real enjoyment in my job.	4	3	2	1
2	JS - 2	I like my job better than the average person	4	3	2	1
3	JS - 3	I am seldom bored with my job	4	3	2	1
4	JS - 4	I would not consider taking another kind of job	4	3	2	1
5	JS - 5	Most days, I am enthusiastic about my job	4	3	2	1
6	JS - 6	I feel fairly satisfied with my job	4	3	2	1

## Section C

This section seeks to measure your organizational commitment. Kindly circle the appropriate column to indicate your response. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the items listed in the questionnaire using a 7 point scale ranging from **Strongly agree (7)** to **Strongly disagree (1)** with a midpoint labelled **undecided (4)**.

SI No	Code	Item	Scale						
1	OC - 1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	OC - 2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	OC - 3	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	OC - 4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	OC - 5	I do not feel like "part of family" at my organization	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	OC - 6	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	OC - 7	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	OC - 8	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I want to	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	OC - 9	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave this organization now	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	OC - 10	I feel I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	OC - 11	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	OC - 12	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of availability of alternatives	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	OC - 13	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	OC - 14	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	OC - 15	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	OC - 16	This organization deserves my loyalty	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	OC - 17	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
18	OC - 18	I owe a great deal to my organization	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

**Section D**

This section seeks to measure your Employee Withdrawal behaviour. Please answer each of the following questions by circling the appropriate letter under each item.

1. How often do you think about quitting your job?
  - a) Never
  - b) Seldom
  - c) Sometimes
  - d) Often
  - e) Constantly
  
2. How likely is it that you will QUIT your job in the next several months?
  - a) Very Unlikely
  - b) Unlikely
  - c) Neither likely nor unlikely
  - d) Likely
  - e) Very likely
  
3. All things considered, how desirable is it for you to quit your job?
  - a) Very desirable
  - b) Desirable
  - c) Neutral; neither desirable nor undesirable
  - d) Undesirable
  - e) Very Undesirable
  
4. How easy or difficult would it be financially for you to quit your job?
  - a) Very difficult
  - b) Difficult
  - c) Neither easy nor difficult
  - d) Easy
  - e) Very easy
  
5. How easy or difficult would it be for you to get another job as good as this one?
  - a) Very difficult
  - b) Difficult
  - c) Neither easy nor difficult
  - d) Easy
  - e) Very easy

6. How easy or difficult would it be for you to quit your job in terms of your family and home life?
- a) Very difficult
  - b) Difficult
  - c) Neither easy nor difficult
  - d) Easy
  - e) Very easy

Please tell us how many times you have done the following things in the past year. Kindly circle appropriate column to indicate your response.

Questions	Never	May be once per year	2 or 3 times per year	Every other month	About once per month	More than once per month	Once per week	More than once per week
Messing with equipment so that you cannot get work done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Letting others do your work for you	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Taking frequent or long coffee or lunch breaks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Making excuses to go somewhere to get out of work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Being late for work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Doing poor work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Using equipment ( such as phone )for personal use without permission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Looking at your watch or clock a lot	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Ignoring those tasks that will not help your performance review or pay raise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Thinking about quitting your job because of work related issues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Looking for a different job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Asked people you know about jobs in other places or looked at job advertisements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

**Demographic Data**

Designation: \_\_\_\_\_

Total work experience (in years): \_\_\_\_\_

Years with the current Company: \_\_\_\_\_

Gender: \_\_\_\_\_

SI No	Qualification
1	Graduation
2	Post graduation
3	Doctorate
4	Others

Educational Background

Age

SI No	Age
1	Less than 25
2	26 - 30
3	31 - 35
4	36 - 40
5	40 and above

Thank you for your cooperation in filling the questionnaire.

Manu Melwin Joy.

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