Multi-foci commitments in the Chinese service context: evaluating commitment outcomes, interactions, and profiles

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Multi-foci commitments in the Chinese service context:
evaluating commitment outcomes, interactions, and profiles

A Dissertation
By
Lin Wan
Submitted to Durham University Business School
For the degree of
Doctor of Business Administration

September, 2017
Abstract

The objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between frontline service employees (FLSE)’s multiple commitment foci and work related outcomes to address the question of how commitment may result in Chinese FLSE’s staying and performing in service organizations.

A detailed literature review in the areas of organizational commitment, multiple foci of employees, and the interactive relationship between multiple commitment foci was conducted to provide the basis for the study, identifying key research gaps to be addressed.

The study applied a unidimensional and target-free commitment model (KUT) to examine the relationship between six multiple commitments and six related outcomes likely to be salient in the China service frontline context. FLSE’s boundary spanner role is taken into account, the effects and joint effects of multiple foci to FLSE’s work related behaviors (intention to quit, in-role performance and OCB) and wellbeing are examined, and the patterns of multiple commitment subgroups has been investigated.

The results of this study confirm the validity of the KUT model in the China FLSEs’ work context, and indicate a synergistic relationship between commitment to supervisor and organizational commitment, and a compensatory interaction between occupational commitment and commitment to customer to certain outcomes. Further, the qualitative and quantitative differences of commitment subgroups provide practical insights for management.
Dedication

To my mom,
Always believe in me,
to my father,
build my faith to knowledge,
and to my Batu,
my dream becomes his.
Acknowledgments

This dissertation has been in long making journey during those seven years. Words are empty, thanks are not enough for my appreciation, but this is an act of remembering those who have helped me and brought me pleasure in my study work.

The dream of my doctoral program study began with empathy to my service management team and a need to be a good leader for my service team, and I was sponsored by Mr. Iman Stratenus, who was CEO of TNT Greater China seven years ago. Without his encouragement, I wouldn’t have made the first step, and the purpose of my study never changed.

A big thank you has to go my dearest professor, Professor Edward Snape. He walked with me alone as a terrific supervisor and sometimes like a light for me. When I was in front of dark frustration in building my thesis, I was referred to meet Professor Edward Snape. I still recall that moment when I walked into his office with a very-pumping heart and blank mind, still remember he gave great patience to listen to my non-logic thesis construct talk, never forget he brought up a book to show me a PhD. and DBA student list of whoever graduated under his guidance, and said ‘yes’ with a serious face when I asked him whether possibly I can really graduate. In fact, it took me a long time to believe that Professor Snape was willing to guide me. During almost five years working with Professor Snape I have been influenced and encouraged by his high work ethic. In these years of part time study, I had to admit that I was always too busy to be a good student; it is fortunate to have a professor who always promptly replied and gave comments paragraph by paragraph, and even edited
my grammar. I also must confess that there were many times that I wished there were fewer comments to request rewriting, rechecking and restructuring work. Without Professor Snape's rigorous and precise academic attitude and work, my study would not have been completed and improved.

My small research team has been absolutely wonderful in supporting me in survey preparation, data input, and in advising me on data analysis. Many discussions happened at night time, and I could not ask for a more supportive team; they are PhD students in the School of Economics, Fudan University, Qianwen Wan, Yahui Sun and Jianjiong Wei.

Another thanks to my old friend Mr. Keith Morton, a consultant of management and teacher in the U.K. He acts as a mentor to my study and my life, always offers great encouragement and was full of empathy when I was down and shared my joy with great cheer. He gave me some proof-reading support even during his busy work time.

Last, but not least, a thank you has to go to Dr. Sarah Xiao, the director of Durham and Fudan DBA program, and my second supervisor. Without her support and as a referee, I would not have had an opportunity to meet Professor Snape, and she is the one who always pushed me up and encouraged me not to give up.
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Chapter I - Introduction

Employees can be committed to their organization, their supervisor, their co-workers, and their customers as well as to a range of different commitment “foci” in their work environment. This thesis addresses an issue of theoretical and practical significance: the nature of such multiple commitment foci and their implications for work attitudes and behaviour. The context of the study is that of frontline service employees in China. This first chapter introduces the thesis by laying out the study context, the problem statement and the research objectives for the study, as well as outlining the structure of the thesis.

Study Context China’s high rate of development in the last two decades and its increasingly important role in the 21st century global economy mean that it is important to provide to look at China’s management in relation to its external and internal challenges. According to Premier Li Keqiang’s China economy report (2015), China’s economy grew beyond 7% in 2015, and the service sector contributed to over half of the country’s GDP at 50.5%, the first time that the service sector has accounted for over half of GDP. Consequently, service-oriented solutions and products are being paid more and more attention.

On the other hand, as China’s economy has reformed over the past three decades, the pure command economy, in which central and local bureaucrats made all the decisions regarding production and distribution (Child, 1994) and distributed “quotas” to organizations, no longer exists. Hence, all kinds of business organizations, including state-owned enterprises, have encountered increasing competition in price
and quality based on legal and commercial ground rules (Farth, 2003), and more organizations are pursuing aggressive growth strategies and seeking to provide higher customer/client satisfaction in the market. Furthermore, in Chinese culture, business transactions between firms and individuals are rooted in not only price and quality but also in the trust inherent in personal relationships (Farth, 2003), so that reciprocated favours and behaviours are highly appreciated. Therefore, service connections are deemed as a key aspect of client satisfaction.

However, currently, service teams or organizations in China are encountering large attrition rates, especially for the service frontline employee teams, who are responsible for stressful daily interactions with various customers but remain at the bottom of the organizational hierarchy with non-attractive pay. On the other hand, those entry-level employees consist of millennials, those who grew up after China’s economic reform and who witnessed China’s high-speed economic development and modernization, and they are labelled as a “different generation” from those who grew up during the planning economic and “quota” period. Alibaba (Ali-Pay) President Mayun called up another revolution of the relationship between organizations and employees, since it is no longer possible to take organizational commitment for granted.

**Problem Statement.** Frontline service has been described as ‘customer service work’. Frontline service employees (FLSEs) often provide a designated service to customers, operating within service boundaries and delivering the service’s key aspects during their individual interactions with customers (Chung & Schneider,
Frontline service employees (FLSEs) represent the face and voice of the organization in their interactions with customers; thus, their attitudes and behaviours are deemed to be significantly influential to customers (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Schneider, Wheeler, & Cox, 1992). One of the greatest challenges facing service organizations is how to keep 'customer contact' employees motivated to successfully deliver services in accordance with organizational values and expectations. Most service executives perceive the retention of satisfied and committed employees, particularly FLSEs, as a critical aspect of customer retention and as a crucial factor to the organization’s success (Baldrige National Quality Program, 2005; Reichheld & Teal, 1996). However, in reality services, management often wonders where to invest, what to expect as the return on the “not cheap” investment and how to effectively initiate improvement actions for more committed employees.

The research literature has provided substantial evidence to indicate that employee attitudes significantly influence the service quality delivered in different contexts (Vandenberghe et al., 2007). Employee commitment has also been used to account for workers' psychological attachments to their workplaces (Allen & Meyer, 1990; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1989). As Reichers’ (1985) posits, employees stand at the core of the organization, and individuals are surrounded by a range of different commitment constituencies, which employees may become attached to. In other words, employees may commit not only to the organization itself but also to other elements within (and beyond) the organizational context, such as supervisors, co-
workers, customers and other individuals.

Commitment scholars have called for more attention regarding not only these individual foci themselves but also their interactions and joint effects in their associations with employee attitudes and behaviours. The literature review found redundancy to be a major problem in regards to commitment constructs, primarily because of the ‘inclusive’ approach in commitment development, as well as a lack of overall consensus on measurements across foci. The literature review suggests that few studies explore the interaction of overall foci commitments due to a lack of a theoretical frameworks or empirical assessment models and also proposes that it is worthwhile to explore the interdependencies and interactions between different commitment foci. In addition, the literature suggests that commitment research should do more to consider both cultural and work contexts in studying commitment’s influence.

**Research Objectives.** In a thorough literature review (chapter II), several major commitment research gaps have been highlighted. First, Klein (2014) argued his unidimensional and target-free model (KUT) as a general model of commitment, which has advantages over other commitment constructs due to its conceptual clarity, short length and target-free nature; however, the KUT model needs to be further assessed in terms of its generalizability, incorporating different commitment foci as well as culture and work contexts. Second, a wider set of outcomes needs to be examined in commitment research, not only from the employer but also from the employee-relevant perspective. Third, the interdependencies and interactions among
different foci need to be explored in future commitment research, based on both a variable-centred approach and a people-centered approach. This study has considered the aforementioned research gaps into its theoretical and methodological design to pursue theoretical and practical contributions accordingly.

Based on the above research gaps and service team management challenges, this study focuses on the organizational commitment of service frontline employees in service organizations. With this in mind, this study intends to address a major research question: how do commitments influence Chinese frontline service employees’ work-related outcomes in service organizations? To answer this research question, the thesis involves a study of frontline service workers in service-based organizations (a logistics firm and a telecommunications firm) in the People’s Republic of China. This involvement allows an evaluation of multiple commitment foci contributions to FLSEs work attitudes and service work behaviours.

Specifically, the study applies the new commitment construct, Klein et. al’s (2012, 2014) unidimensional and target-free model (KUT), to evaluate how the KUT model generalizes to the Chinese context and how the KUT multiple commitments relate to work outcomes in the Chinese service context, as well as assessing the salience of the multiple commitment foci in the Chinese service context, and whether there are joint effects of these commitments. Moreover, with the application of the KUT model, we investigate whether there are distinct subgroups of employees with particular combinations of commitment across the multiple foci and and whether these are related to specific patterns of outcomes.
**Potential Contribution.** The study aims to address the above research gaps, so as to provide meaningful insights into how commitments influence Chinese frontline service employees’ work related outcomes. On a practical level, this also addresses the service management challenge of “how to have FLSE perform better and stay longer”, and so seek outs applicable managerial suggestions with regard to favourable work behaviors (Chapter VI). More specifically, firstly, the study will test KUT construct’s validity in the Chinese culture and FLSE work context, testing hypotheses on content validity and Klein et al.’s claims on dimensionality and target sensitivity across multiple foci. Secondly, in terms of commitment and outcomes, this study will not only examine the independence of six foci commitments, but also test hypotheses based on social exchange theory (McNeely & Meglino, 1994) and the “compatibility principle” (Cheng, 2003) regarding the relationship between multiple foci commitments and work related outcomes. Thirdly, the study will evaluate possible interactions between commitments in predicting outcomes. This analysis will apply Johnson’s (2009) propositions, which suggest that multiple commitment may interact in different ways to influence outcomes, including compensatory (sufficient and superfluous), synergistic (together to more favourable outcomes) or competitive (one at other’s cost) models. Finally, the study will investigate whether there are distinct commitment subgroups, referred to as profiles, combining of distinctive pattern of focal commitments, examining the similarity and differences between individuals.

**Outline of the Thesis.** After this introductory chapter, chapter II provides a
thorough review of the commitment literature, including theoretical
development and the associated empirical findings. This review enables the
identification of several key research gaps for future research attention. The
third chapter presents the theoretical framework and hypothesis development
for this study, which proposes to evaluate the KUT model in a Chinese FLSE
context, investigating the interaction of multiple foci commitments and
outcomes. In the methodology chapter, we outline the sample data collection
process and the measurement of the constructs, including preliminary
interviews, back translations and pilot tests. The methodology chapter also
provides an overview of the analytical method. In the results chapter, we
present the detailed results of the preliminary interviews and pilot tests and
then present the results of the main study, including the measurement validity,
the association between multiple foci commitments and their outcomes, the
interaction of multiple foci commitments, and a sub-group profile analysis.
Finally, in the discussion and conclusion chapter, we summarize the findings
and discuss the study’s theoretical contributions and practical implications,
before discussing limitations and areas for future research.
Chapter II - Literature Review

Overview

A thorough review of commitment research literature is necessary to respond to a question critical for organisations: why do people stay in an organisation and perform well? This literature review summarises the theoretical development of commitment literature and reviews the associated empirical findings from the last three decades. It also highlights the major arguments and challenges in the development of this literature to identify areas of focus for future research.

The commitment concept in a theoretical development perspective starts from an organisational base and has been developed in multiple ways (Klein, Molloy, & Cooper, 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Further, Becker’s (1960) ‘side-bets’ theory is observed as the first attempt to define organisational commitment and understand the economic exchange behaviours between employees and organisations. Porter et al. (1974) suggest that commitment consistently has another ‘attitude-centred’ attribute, and employees’ psychological attachment to an organisation has been confirmed as a part of the commitment concept (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Accordingly, the literature review discusses the definition and development of commitment to explore the change in research direction. Commitment has been initially defined from a conventional view with the employee attachment perspective, or ‘the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation’ (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982, p. 27), to a more general explanation that focuses on psychological bonding as ‘a force that binds an individual to a target (social or
non-social) and to a course of action of relevance to that target’ (Meyer, Becker, & Van Dick, 2006, p. 666). Subsequently, commitment has evolved to a more distinct concept, as Klein (2009) defined commitment as a type of psychological bond, a purported ‘volitional psychological bond ’, rather than a binding force, and this reflects the employee’s ‘dedication to and responsibility for a particular target’ (Klein, 2012).

Further, the literature review reveals that researchers have recognised employees’ multiple commitments (e.g., Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Lawler, 1992; Wallace, 1993; 1995b), which include not only the three bases of commitment, as explained in three-component model (TCM), but also the multiple constituencies, or foci (Reichers, 1985), which involve the commitment to different such unions within the organisation as supervisors, co-workers, and occupations, among others (Mueller & Lawler, 1999). The relationship between these commitment foci and work-related outcomes has also been explored, and several theories have been discussed, including the ‘proximal principle’, ‘compatible principle’, and ‘social exchange’ theories, to explain the effects of different commitment foci on various outcomes. We follow ‘internal’ and ‘external’ foci approaches to review previous works regarding the different commitment foci. As the interactions of commitment foci have consistently drawn substantial scholarly attention, we discuss the different interaction frameworks and models developed in the last decade. For example, Meyer (2002) developed a commitment profile framework to investigate the contextual effects between different commitment bases, and Johnson et al. (2009) proposed three interaction models to
study the joint effects among overall bases and commitment foci. Finally, the literature review also extends Klein’s (2012) latest overwhelming reconceptualisation, in which his argument raised noteworthy questions regarding whether the commitments to different targets differ, and how the confluence of these commitments collectively influences behaviour.

Before proceeding with the detailed review of the commitment literature, I begin by introducing the context of the study, discussing the importance of service frontline employee management and challenge, and looking at the relationship between employee commitment and work related outcomes. After thorough commitment literature of the theoretical development and the associated empirical findings, I bring a summary of several key research gaps for future research focus.

Service Frontiers and Employee Commitment

**Important service frontiers and challenges to service firms.** As service oriented time is coming (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) in business world, service experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999), convenience (Berry, Seiders, & Grewal, 2002), quality (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996) and delivery (Bharadwai, Varadarajan, & Fahy, 1993) have been discussed in substantial research studies. These have further highlighted how service employees deliver the service, the interactive process between customers and service employees, service experience outcomes, and service employees’ skill and capability as they have been sponsored and trained within an organisation.

Service work has recently taken centre stage in empirical studies. For
example, Warhurst et al. (2009, p. 94) note that ‘the focus on services leads not just to the marginalisation of production, but to the eclipse of the employment relationship in all forms of work, for the hallmark of a service economy is consumption’. However, a vast majority of both service employers and researchers perceive service as a term too broad to explain the patterns in service work (Belfanger & Edwards, 2013). Consequently, the frontline service has been described as ‘interactive service work’, and has become a focus of scholars, as it implies direct contact while working with customers (service recipients), and reflects the employment relationships with both management and organisations. Frontline service employees (FLSEs) in literature represent the face and voices of the organisation in their interactions with customers, as their attitudes and behaviours are deemed as significantly influential to customers (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Schneider, Wheeler, & Cox, 1992). To the organisation, the service is expected to be designed as standard, reliable, and efficient; however, FLSEs provide the designed service to customers, as they are within service boundaries and deliver the service’s key aspects during their interactions with customers on an individual basis (Chung & Schneider, 2002; Payne & Webber, 2006).

The greatest challenge in these service organisations involves how to keep the trained ‘customer contact’ employees motivated towards the successful delivery of ‘last mile’ services in alignment with organisational values and expectations. Most service executives perceive the retention of satisfied and committed employees, and particularly FLSEs, as critical to customer retention, which is key to the business’ or organisation’s success (Baldrige National Quality Program, 2005; Reichheld & Teal,
In fact, the cost of FLSE attrition is unbearable to service firms in terms of the tangible costs of losing effectiveness and efficiency, and the intangible costs of losing service competitiveness. One estimation indicates that turnover costs in US companies might approximate five trillion US dollars annually (Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor, 2004); these costs are primarily caused by additional staffing, overtime payments for labour shortages, increased training costs for inexperienced new staff, disrupted and unstable services, and damage to the organisation’s reputation, among others (Hendrie, 2004). Further, FLSEs in these organisations with high turnover intentions not only provide poor and unreliable customer service, but are also more likely to fail in the service recovery essential to maintain customers (Tax & Brown, 1998).

**Why employee commitment matters.** Ample research literature has provided substantial evidence to indicate employee attitudes significantly influence the service quality delivered in different contexts (Vandenberghhe et al., 2007). Employee commitment has also been used to account for workers’ psychological attachments to their workplaces (Allen & Meyer, 1990; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1989). This also reflects the employee’s psychological state, attitude and bonding behaviours that commonly exist in the workplace; employee commitment indicates individual psychological attachments and bonds, and literature has comprehensively discussed its important outcome for both employees and the organisation (Becker, Klein, & Meyer, 2009; Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005). Various research has provided strong evidence regarding the benefits to an organisation with a committed workforce,
low intentions to quit (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993) and less absenteeism (Meyer et al., 2002), good performance (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Riketta, 2002), and organisational citizenship behaviours (Meyer et al., 2002; Riketta, 2002). Further, relationships from different perspectives have been confirmed between commitment and such crucial outcomes as performance, retention, motivation and employees’ well-being (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002).

The Organisational Commitment Concept and its Measurement

Literature demonstrates that organisational commitment research has occurred over a 50-year period, but this has included overlapping routes since 1960 (Weiho, Kaur, & Jun, 2010). Further, the conceptual and operational development of organisational commitment has taken the lead in overall commitment research development. This has affected other commitment forms’ conceptualisation and evolving measurements, such as the commitment to an occupation, workgroup or union, among others (Cohen, 2003; Gordon et al., 1980; Morrow, 1993). Thus, a critical and thorough review of the organisational commitment concept and its measurement development is needed to better understand the momentum and challenges of commitment research.

One-dimensional phase of the organisational commitment concept.

The ‘side-bet’ theory of commitment. The primary organisational commitment theory involves Becker’s (1960) conception of the ‘side-bet’ theory; the author posits that ‘commitments come into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activities’ (p. 32). These activities
present a conceptual framework for organisational commitment, as the ‘side-bet’ costs refer to the accumulated investments paid and valued by the individual, which might be lost if the line of activities cease. The line of activities that the ‘side-bet’ commitment references in an organisational context include staying in the organisation, or the employee maintaining their membership (employment). As noted in this theory, the ‘contract’ of economic exchange has been applied to explain the relationship between employees and organisations.

Becker’s (1960) approach has highlighted the close relationship between organisational commitment and employees’ voluntary turnover behaviours. It identifies, in other words, organisational commitment as a critical predictor of voluntary turnover. Although the ‘side-bet’ theory did not become a leading theory, later research has mentioned and agreed upon the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover. While organisational commitment has been perceived as the primary predictor of employees’ turnover, this has also influenced subsequent conceptualisations of commitment.

As Becker (1960) suggests, ‘side bets’ might occur in various forms, from broader categories. First, the generalised cultural expectations regarding responsible behaviour reflect important reference groups’ expectations regarding what responsible behaviours are, such as how long one should stay with a company or a job, or whether ‘job hopping’ is acceptable. Violating these expectations could lead to a negative impact on the individual’s social image. Second, self-presentation concerns arise when an individual would like to present a certain public image that might require a
particular style of behaviour. The third one involves the rules and policies that the
organisation applies to encourage long-term employee relationships, such as seniority-
based compensation system, and make individuals less fit to other situations, or
purported ‘impersonal bureaucratic arrangements’. Fourth, side bets might come from
non-work concerns, which occurs when the employees participate in a community
with his or her employment in the organisation; the root of the community may
change if employees become employed in another organisation. The final one is the
individual adjustment, which refers to the time and effort employees spend to adapt to
a particular organisation, including organisation-specific certificates, and levels of
specialists qualified by this organisation, which might not be considered credentials in
other organisations. Becker (1960) suggests that aside from these primary categories,
which cause side-bet effects, no exhaustive list of different side bet factors exists. This
might become complex in different ways to increase the individual’s value of cost,
related with discontinuing a course of action so as to increase their commitment.

The basic strategy in literature to prove Becker’s (1960) ‘side-bet’ theory
involves demonstrating that commitment increases as the aforementioned side bet of
cost increases (Meyer, 1984). However, numerous research studies have presented
mixed results (Ritzer & Trice, 1969; Alutto, Hrebiniak, & Alonso, 1973). For
example, Ritzer and Trice (1969) conducted the first empirical study of Becker’s
(1960) ‘side-bet’ theory. They measured the outcome of commitment, which involves
staying or leaving, by developing a set of questions to ask respondents regarding their
likelihood of leaving the current organisation when given various incentives, such as
extra pay or high status, but their results were less supportive. Subsequent studies by Alutto, Hrebiniak, and Alonso (1973) provided mixed support to the ‘side-bet’ theory of commitment. As noted in the literature review, ‘side-bet’ theory research has suffered methodological problems (Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Shore, Tetrick, Shoare, & Barksdale, 2000), and questions of validity have remained over the last 40 years (Meyer & Powell, 2004).

**Affective dependency theory and organisational commitment questionnaire.**

As the focus of commitment has shifted, from a tangible ‘economic exchange’ to psychological attachment, Porter et al. (1974) developed their organisational commitment theory. This affective dependence group explained commitment as more ‘attitude-centred’ rather than as an ‘economic contract’; they contended that employees stay in an organisation because of economic exchange factors as well as affective influence, and the latter is even more important. Porter and his followers defined commitment in this argument as ‘…the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation’ (Mowday et al., 1979). Accordingly, they noted organisational commitment had three parts: ‘strong acceptance’, or a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values; ‘participation’, or a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and ‘loyalty’, or the employee’s strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. Further, Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1979)’s approach presented the well-known organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ), which included 15 items and three-part definition. However, Porter et al. (1979)’s OCQ
measurement has been criticised, in that the scales primarily reflect behavioural intentions, such as turnover and performance intentions, instead of attitude (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986); further, it is difficult to clearly differentiate between participation, loyalty and acceptance in Porter’s theory.

A central theme appearing in literature during the affective dependence period is the employee’s psychological attachment or bond to the organisation (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Further, Mowday et al. (1982) explained the exchange theory using an attitude-centred point of focus as the process of commitment. The authors’ measurement includes involvement, the intention to remain, and identification with the organisation’s values. As noted in the literature review, identification and involvement have been perceived as a basis for psychological attachment (Brown, 1969; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Lee, 1971; Sheldon, 1971). Subsequently, other researchers (Gould, 1979; Kidron, 1978; Meyer & Allen, 1984) have distinctly explained psychological attachment based on calculative involvement and an exchange of behaviours for certain extrinsic rewards.

However, a lack of consensus exists in the affective dependence discussion regarding the antecedents and consequences of commitment, as well as the process of becoming committed to an organisation. Some researchers focus on the individual and organisation’s impact on the commitment process (Angel & Perry, 1983; Steers, 1977), while others have discussed the consequences of commitment from attitudinal and behavioural perspectives, such as proximity seeking and long tenure (Horn, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Werbel & Gould, 1984),
expressions of positive effects and loyalty (Kanter, 1972; O’Reilly & Caldwell, 1980),
motivation and involvement (Mowday et al., 1982; Scholl, 1981), and behaviours
including performance and obedience towards organisational policies (Angle & Perry,
1981; Galanter, 1980).

Further, some researchers have highlighted the need to reconceptualise
organisational commitment. For example, Morrow (1983) criticised that
organisational commitment should reflect multiple foci, and Mowday et al. (1982)
noted that multiple commitment and its influence are neglected. A need for
alternatives to address the limitations of OCQ has been highlighted by O’Reilly and
Chatman’s (1986) advanced approach towards conceptual and operational alternatives
to OCQ. Moreover, Meyer and Allen’s (1984) first methodology aimed at an
improved examination of the ‘side-bet’ approach. These two research studies were
leading multidimensional approaches in the 1980s, and have significantly impacted
the employee commitment era (Herscovitch, 2002).

The multiple-dimension phase of the organisational commitment concept.
Becker’s (1960) and Porter’s (1974) theories, regarding the ‘side-bet’ exchange and
psychological attachment, discussed the connection between organisational
commitment and employee retention in one dimensional era. Further, O’Reilly and
Chatman’s (1986) and Meyer and Allen’s (1984) explorations of multidimensional
commitments have led organisational commitment research.

O’Reilly and Chatman’s three-base model. O’Reilly and Chatman (1986)
defined the bases of commitment as the motives engendering attachment, and noted
the differences between the antecedents and consequences of commitment to argue that one’s psychological attachments may reflect the degree to which an individual internalises and adopts the organisation’s characteristics, values, and goals.

Accordingly, the authors proposed three independent factors as commitment dimensions: 1) compliance, or instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards; 2) identification, based on a desire to become members of the organisation; and 3) internalisation, or reflection on the congruence between individual and organisational values. O’Reilly and Chatman’s (1986) concept highlighted the distinction between instrumental exchange and the other two factors. The authors contended that the compliance dimension, representing the exchange process, to some extent explains the shallower attachments to the organisation, and the other two dimensions—identification and internalisation—result in a psychological attachment to the organisation. Moreover, O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) argued that psychological attachment could not only impact turnover but also organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

However, subsequent research has noted some difficulty in distinguishing identification and internalisation (Caldwell et al., 1990; O’Reilly et al., 1990; Stinglhamber, Bentein, & Vandenberghhe, 2002; Vandenberg, Self, & Seo, 1994), as the measures of identification and internalisation have reportedly correlated with one another (Becker et al., 1996; Harris, Hirschfeld, Field, & Mossholder, 1993). Further, although compliance, called ‘instrumental commitment’ in other related works, clearly differs from identification and internalisation, compliance is found to
positively relate to turnover, instead of exhibiting a negative relationship (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). As the organisational commitment concept effectively reduces the intention to leave, scholars have begun to question whether compliance can be a part of the form of organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Moreover, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) later pointed out that the compliance noted by O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) might assess the commitment to perform, rather than the commitment to remain, which can address employees’ motivation to cope with daily work pressures instead of the pressure to stay in an organisation.


First, affective organisational commitment (AOC), or the psychological state of ‘want or desire’, involves the individual’s emotional attachment to, involvement in and identification with an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The concept of AOC is based on perceptions of support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006) and fairness (Cohen-Charash & Spector,
2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001), and highlights the positive social exchanges between employees and employers. Second, normative organisational commitment (NOC), or the psychological state of ‘ought to’ or ‘obligation’, is derived from the perception of an obligation to maintain membership in an organisation, which is grounded in a sense of morality. The NOC concept is perceived as primarily related to the individual’s socialisation experience, and can explain the forms of reciprocity with an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Powell & Meyer, 2004). Third, continuance organisational commitment (COC), or the ‘exchange cost’ and ‘no alternative’ psychological state, involves the perceived costs of leaving an organisation, including the loss of prior investments and a lack of alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1984).

Accordingly, these three dimensions have been labelled as a ‘three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment’ (TCM), and have been described as ‘…distinguishable components, rather than types, of attitudinal commitment; that is, employees can experience each of these psychological states to varying degrees…’ (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Regarding its development procedure, affective commitment was developed as a tool to assess the positive feelings of identification and involvement with the work organisation. Further, continuance commitment was noted as an advanced assessment of Becker (1960)’s ‘side-bet’ approach to present employees’ feeling towards the organisation, and concerned the time, effort and cost employees might associate with their decisions to leave an organisation. Later, normative commitment was added as a third dimension (Allen & Meyer, 1990) to
define the feeling of obligation to employment. Employees with high normative commitment might feel that they must stay within an organisation; Meyer and Allen (1990) contended that this normative dimension reflects the effects of socialisation and culture on the individual before they join an organisation.

In the most recent 20 years, Meyer and Allen (2002)’s approach has become a leader in organisational commitment studies, and has been consistently tested and developed. Meyer’s (2009, p. 39) latest discussion regarding the core essence of commitment further defined this as ‘an internal force that binds an individual to a target (social or non-social) and/or to a course of action of relevant to that target’. As Meyer et al.’s (2009) three-dimensional model originates with a study of organisational commitment and develops measurements for the three independent dimensions of commitment, this has attracted many empirical researchers in recent decades to aggregate their findings and support their proposition. Substantial and subsequent studies have focused on examining the scales’ psychometric properties, and particularly their discriminant validity and effects on work outcomes (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Becker & Wilson, 2000; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Jaros, 1997; Ko et al., 1997; McGee & Ford, 1987). As TCM-related research, the AOC, NOC and COC-EE (COC derived from economic-exchange relationship base), defined by Taing, Granger, Groff, Jackson, and Johnson (2011, p. 271), are positively associated with employees’ attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviours, or attendance; COC-FA (COC derived from perception of few alternative) is found to scarcely relate, or in several
cases, it demonstrates a negative relationship (Granger et al., 2008; Groff et al., 2008; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002).

However, a factor analysis is not always convincing in subsequent studies of organisational commitment, and the TCM model still encounters some strong arguments and disagreements that indicate a lack of consensus and consistency in the meaning and construct of its commitment conceptualisation (Becker et al., 2009). Regarding the meaning of commitment, Vandenberg et al. (1993, 1994) reported strong instability in affective and continuance commitment among the different staying-time groups. The authors explained that people in different stages might attribute different meanings when the commitment was measured, which indicated a lack of clear alignment in definitions regarding the aligned cognitive explanations. Further, Ko et al. (1997) argued that Meyer and Allen (2002) did not develop the precise definition of the affective, continuance and normative commitment components, and TCM is only explained as a ‘psychological state’ that links employees to an organisation. The authors also note that this prior study did not clarify what is meant by particular psychological states, and pointed out that the concept of NOC has considerable conceptual overlap with AOC. Singh and Vinnicombe’s (2000) study reported that participants in their interview did not have a clear sense of ‘have to’ in explaining their feelings of commitment, and explained the operational difficulty encountered in their survey process, caused by an unclear perception of components.

Further, the accumulated empirical studies regarding the construct perspective
have findings inconsistent with the TCM model (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997; McGee & Ford, 1987; Meyer et al., 2002). Most researchers in related studies focus on AOC, primarily because consistent evidence has demonstrated a strong relationship between AOC and employee outcomes (Groff, 2009; Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer et al., 2004), and the two other dimensions have been criticised regarding their validity as independent dimensions (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Cohen, 2003; Meyer et al., 2002). General findings reveal that COC has a negative or no correlation with attitudinal correlates and work-related outcomes, such as OCB and job performance (e.g., Cohen, 2003; Durham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; Hackett et al. 1994; Ko et al., 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). Specifically, McGee and Ford (1987) have noted the continuance dimension’s lack of convergent validity. On the other side, although NOC has been consistently confirmed to have an extremely strong correlation with affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2002), other different empirical studies note the inseparable relationship between NOC and AOC (Ko et al., 1997; Lee & Chulguen, 2005).

Multiple Foci of Employee Commitment

Existence of employee multiple commitment foci. Definition of multiple foci commitment. Past decades of commitment research have comprehensively recognised that employees’ attitudes and behaviours are not only influenced by commitment to the organisation, but also by commitment to other constituencies, or the purported ‘commitment foci’ nested in the organisation, and employees can distinguish different commitments in the workplace (Cohen, 2003; Redman & Snape,
2003, 2005, 2011; Reichers, 1985, 1986). Reichers (1983) proposed a multiple constituencies approach to organisational commitments based on different “constituencies” (Pennings & Goodman, 1979). This refers to such organisational groups as top management, co-workers, unions and customers, among others.

Reichers (1983) argued that these organisational constituencies may have conflicting goals, and the commitment to one constituency may be at the cost of another for organisational members when they direct their energies and loyalties to organisations, and may altogether reduce organisational commitment.

Further, Reichers (1985) clarified that the commitments to other constituencies are also noted as different commitment foci, which can include the individuals and groups (supervisors or a team or organisations) to which employees are attached. The organisation in Reichers’ (1985) conceptualisation is not employees’ entire focus; although employees stand at the core of the organisation, individuals are always surrounded by different commitment constituencies, which are comparatively attached to employees. Further, commitment foci can come from intra-organisations, such as teams, groups, supervisors, or co-workers; and extra-organisations, such as customers. Research consequent to Reichers’(1985) proposition has investigated different multiple constituencies of employee commitment, such as professions (Gouldner, 1958), unions (Gordon, Beauvais, & Ladd, 1984), organisations (Mowday et al., 1982), and the impact of multiple foci have been more closely examined.

**Distinction of multiple commitment foci.** Multiple commitment literature has often initially asked: ‘To what extent have employees distinguished their
commitments to different foci (e.g., Snape et al., 2011)? Literature has well-recognised that individual employees can distinguish their psychological attachments or bonds in the organisation, which are mostly noted as the ‘terms of commitment’.

These various commitments are differentiated as such multiple constituencies as groups, teams, supervisors or organisations, among others. (e.g., Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Becker, 1992; Cohen, 1993; Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Simon, Smithburg, & Thompson, 1950; Reichers, 1985). Researchers believe people become attached not only to an organisation, but also to the different foci nested in the organisation (Mueller & Lawler, 1999). Further, Klein (2012) used the term ‘target’ to explain the specific foci to which a bond is formed, such as organisations, professional associations, supervisors, work teams, projects, decisions, goals, values and careers (Becker, 1992; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Reichers, 1985). The multiple commitments to top management, supervisors and work groups noted in Becker’s (1992) study have been found to be distinct and superior predictors of job satisfaction, the intention to quit, and other pro-social employee behaviours than organisational commitment; similar findings have been reported in subsequent studies of different commitment foci, such as top management, supervisors, and co-workers (Becker et al., 1995, 1996; Chen, Tsui, & Farh, 2002; Snape, Chan, & Redman, 2011; Stinglhamber, & Vandenberghe, 2003); career commitment (Chang, 1999; Snape & Redman, 2003), and external foci, such as customers (Siders, George, & Dharwadkar, 2001; Stinglhamber et al., 2002, Stinglhamber, Bentein, & Vandenberghe, 2012).

Consistently, the second question often asked involves how these specific foci
commitments differ from global commitments (Snape et al., 2011). For example, Hunt and Morgan’s (1994) ‘one of many’ discussion involves the relationship between global organisational commitment and constituency-specific commitments. The authors note that the latter has been described as exogenous, and has been investigated regarding how commitment foci independently affect outcomes, including the intention to leave and employees’ work attitudes and behaviours. Cohen (2003, p. 108) later argued that employees actually perceive these commitment foci as ‘conceptually distant’, and noted that ‘a constituency that is from the organisation in the employee’s view represents separate commitment foci, and not a component of organisational commitment, such as top or middle management’.

Effects of multi-foci commitments on attitudes and behaviours. The discussion regarding the existence of distinct multiple foci (Becker, 1992, 1993; Reichers, 1985) facilitates the following questions: ‘Which foci is more salient’? Further, ‘which foci have more influence on specific outcomes’? Accordingly, we will review previous research and consider two layers: first, a focus on the salience of multiple commitments, and second, to review how various multiple commitments affect different outcomes.

Employee commitment, as noted in commitment literature, originates from organisational commitment, and this literature has confirmed that organisational commitment significantly relates to employees’ attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, such as the intention to leave (Mowday et al., 1982), job performance (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993), job satisfaction (Bateman & Strausser, 1984), and attendance
(Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). A majority of this research focuses on organisational commitment instead of the effects of different commitment foci. Hunt and Morgan (1994) investigated the relationship between organisational commitment and the commitment foci as well as organisational commitment’s mediating effects. The authors proposed a ‘one of many’ hypothesis, the findings from which confirmed organisational commitment’s mediating effect on foci-specific commitments, and explained organisational commitment as global’ construct.

However, Becker et al. (1996) argued that local foci, such as the workgroup or supervisors, should more strongly influence employee commitment than global organisational commitment. Their analysis confirmed that commitment to supervisors more strongly relates with job performance than organisational commitment. Becker and his colleagues have continuously provided evidence that various foci commitments could account for the unique variances in employees’ outcomes, beyond the variances explained by global organisational commitment. Based on Lewin’s (1943) field theory, which contends that behaviour is most influenced by the environmental elements perceived as the most salient or proximal, Becker (2009, p. 163) later expanded the ‘psychological distance’ concept as the ‘perceived frequency of meaningful interactions’; he noted that the proximal foci can primarily establish norms to be more effective and powerful in shaping behaviours. Accordingly, Becker (2009) hypothesized that local foci more strongly influence employees’ attitudinal and behavioural outcomes than global foci, including organisational commitment. Further, Becker (2009) classified multiple foci as concrete (specific and tangible) and abstract
(general and less tangible) according to psychological distance, which differs from physical distance (Redman & Snape, 2005).

Alternatively, another proximity principle has been discussed: cognitive distance. Reicher (1985) positioned employees at the core of the constituencies circle, as different constituencies surround the circle’s centre with different distances. These distances indicate specific commitment foci’s proximity and cognition to the individual. The notion of ‘cognitive distance’ is defined as the ‘degree of cognitive immediacy and salience that the employee associates with an organisational unit [or focus]’ (Mueller & Lawler, 1999, p. 327). This conceptualisation of cognitive distance focuses on the individual perspective, reflecting how individuals with different values and interests perceive these foci from their own, and assesses the different distances among multiple foci (Redman & Snape, 2005).

Further, research has responded to the question regarding specific foci’s different effects on different outcomes by applying different theories to address similar tendencies and effects of different commitment foci. The social exchange theory perceives commitment as the favourable social exchange between focal partners and their related attitudes and behaviours, which may benefit the partner and serve as reciprocation (McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Settoon et al., 1996). Researchers apply the social exchange theory to explain the correspondence between the focus of exchange and the types of reciprocating behaviours. Thus, researchers suggest that various commitment foci possibly lead to different consequent employee attitudes and behaviours as a reciprocating exchange (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Accordingly, research
argues that a stronger relationship between commitment and outcomes is anticipated when the focus of constituencies and outcomes is consistent (Becker, 1992, p. 242; Becker et al., 1995, p. 620). Similarly, Cheng (2003) applied the principle of compatibility as developed by Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) and Ajzen (1989) to explain the relationship between multiple commitment foci and outcomes. His ‘compatibility hypothesis’ suggested that employees’ attitudinal and behavioural outcomes could be associated with commitment to the most likely beneficiary foci or target. Further, his study confirmed that the commitment to a supervisor or workgroup influences not only local outcomes, such as job performance, but also global outcomes, such as employees’ organisational citizenship behaviours; however, organisational commitment only affects global outcomes, such as the intention to quit.

**Internal and external commitment foci.** The concept of psychological distance (Becker, 2009) notes that employees will have a stronger commitment to foci with which they more actively engage or interact. Hence, this psychological distance theory leads to the reasonable belief that FLSEs’ commitments to different foci nested in the particular service organisation depend on the nature of their service work. Multiple commitment literature has indicated that commitment researchers have studied employee commitments, from commitments to internal foci, or ‘intra-organisational’ foci; and to commitments to external foci, which are inhabited outside of the organisation (Siders et al., 2001; Snape, 2006). These internal and external foci commitments have been applied to various studies to explore the relationship between employee commitment and work outcomes in different contexts, and such context
factors as management style, local culture, the organisational industry, and type of work are likely reflected in the salience of the employee’s multiple foci commitments (Snape, 2006). For example, Siders et al. (2001) based their investigation on the sales executive’s boundary-spanning role to discover sales commitment’s effect on job performance from their commitment to the organisation, supervisor and customer perspectives. Snape (2006) further researched manufacturing workers’ commitment to unions and the effects in different cultural contexts within the United Kingdom and China.

Thus, to better answer the fundamental question—‘What makes FLSEs stay and perform better in organisations’?—in an FLSE context, this literature review is led by the boundary-spanning role. It first focuses on the internal foci perspective, which includes the workgroup, supervisor, co-workers, top management, and unions, as these are the closest encounters in the FLSE’s daily work life within an organisation. Second, this involves the external commitment perspective, which includes customers and occupational commitments, which are often formed outside of organisations but highly relate to the FLSE’s job performance.

**Internal foci.** Internal foci include the commitment to an organisation’s internal coalitions or its members. This indicates the employee’s acceptance of the organisation’s goals and reflects their identification with the organisation (Meyer & Schoorman, 1992).

**Organisational commitment.** To address organisations’ increasing concerns regarding a committed and sustainable workforce, substantial theoretical and
Empirical research has investigated the relationship between employee commitment with organisational effectiveness and employees’ attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (Weibo, Kaur, & Jun, 2009). Organisational theory originates with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960); both theories note that the relationships between employees and employers include exchange resources and effort (Gutierrez, Candela, & Carver, 2009). The organisation has been the targeted unit in commitment research for over five decades, including Becker’s (1960) ‘side-bet’ theory, Port’s (1974) affective dependence theory, O’Reilly and Chatman’s (1986) psychological attachment theory, and Meyer and Allen’s (1984, 1990) TCM model. Employee commitment has been more closely scrutinised as organisational commitment (Taing, 2009), which has been defined as a psychological state that employees attach to the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This has been noted as a key predictor of employees’ turnover intentions, and withdrawal and organisational citizenship behaviours (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morrow, 1993; Sinclair & Wright, 2005).

The status of traditional organisational commitment has been reviewed and discussed within the multiple commitment perspective. Reichers (1985) argued that organisational commitment should not be viewed as ‘a monolithic, undifferentiated entity that elicits an identification and attachment on the part of individuals’, but ‘can be accurately understood as a collection of multiple commitments to various groups that comprise the organisation’ (p. 469). The author further suggested that organisational commitments ‘may perhaps be most accurately understood as a general...
and specific (commitments to one or more constituencies) constructs’ (Reichers, 1985, p. 513). This suggestion for global organisational commitment was later supported by Becker’s (1992) resulting regression analysis regarding employees’ global commitment to an organisation and three specific constituencies: the workgroup, supervisors and top management.

Hunt and Morgan (1994) accordingly proposed two specific questions: ‘Do employees’ commitments to constituencies contribute to global organisational commitment?’ Further, ‘Do these commitments influence work-related outcomes through their influence on organisational commitment’? The authors’ study tested two opposing views. First, organisational commitment is one of employees’ many commitments to the organisation, and global organisational commitment and other forms of commitment foci independently influence outcomes. The other view posits that organisational commitment is a key mediating global construct; thus, global organisational commitment directly influences organisational outcomes. Other forms of commitment foci only influence outcomes when they influence global organisational commitment. The authors’ findings suggested the key mediating construct of global organisational commitment as the superior presentation of relationships between organisational commitment, commitment foci and organisational outcomes. However, Hunt and Morgan’s (1994) study only investigated the relationship between internal commitment foci—such as the commitments to top management, the work group, or supervisor—and global organisational commitment. Hunt and Morgan (1994) proposed that external
commitment foci, such as the commitments to customers, occupation, or unions, might scarcely contribute to global organisational commitment because of the longer distance to the organisation. However, the authors still noted that the different organisational-industrial contexts might influence different commitment foci’s effects on outcomes. For example, the commitment to a client in public service might more significantly affect outcomes than the commitment to a workgroup. It has also been suggested that further investigation is necessary not only regarding the various commitment foci and global organisational commitment, but also on the commitment foci’s direct effects on outcomes.

On the other hand, Meyer and Allen’s (1984, 1990, 1992, 1997) three-dimensional scales—affective, normative, and continuance—have become the leading approach in organisational commitment research over the last two decades (Bentein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, & Stinglhamber, 2005; Cohen, 2003; Greenberg & Baron, 2003; Weibo et al., 2009). Subsequently, organisational commitment’s antecedents, dimensions, and consequent cross-dimensions (AOC, COC and NOC) have been heavily studied. Different correlations have been reported between TCM’s three components and work behaviours, such as in-role performance, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and attendance, although all forms of TCM negatively relate to turnover (Meyer et al., 2002). However, most theoretical and empirical research on organisational commitment primarily focuses on the organisation’s benefit as the study’s outcome, namely, the relevant outcomes for employers. Although recent research has increasingly begun to investigate the relevant outcomes
from the employee’s perspective, such as the handling of work stress and employees’ well-being in organisational environments, some disagreements still exist regarding how commitment is associated with these relevant employee variables, whether negative (e.g., Reilly, 1994) or positive (e.g., Begley & Czajka, 1993). Thus, more research attention and effort are necessary to examine the link between commitment and employee-related outcomes, which are critical for employees’ favourable performance and intent to stay in an organisation (Meyer et al., 2002).

Finally, the nature of work and employment relationships has substantially changed; specifically, employment is no longer life-long, but has become increasingly transient and spans organisations with different alternative forms of employment (Hall, 2002). Thus, researchers have begun to doubt organisational commitment’s representation of overall employee commitment, and have extended organisational commitment models to other targets (Klein, 2012). Accordingly, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) extended their TCM measurements for different targets to better and more generally apply them to commitment, but their revised model’s generality is still questionable, as empirical studies indicate a need for new items in the scale-modifying process (Solinger et al., 2008). Further, Klein (2012) clearly argued that organisational commitment should not be used as a general lens for employee commitment, concerning the distinctiveness of different targets/foci and organisational commitment’s fading importance.
Commitment to supervisors. Supervisors are perceived as agents of the organisation (Levinson, 1965), and have received significant attention in multiple commitment foci research. They have been observed as important foci (e.g., Becker, 1992; Becker et al. 1996; Reichers, 1986) because ‘they are formally responsible for monitoring the performance of employees involved in decisions regarding pay and promotions that affect their employees, and are increasingly made accountable for reducing turnover in their team’ (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2011, p. 1457). The affective commitment to supervisors in social exchange theory explains the substantial relationship between employees and supervisors while also indicating its reciprocity (Cheng et al., 2003). Research indicates that supervisors provide instrumental support to employees, the experience of which engenders affective commitment (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). Moreover, Becker’s (1992) ‘proximal hypothesis’ states that the commitment to a supervisor is more likely to influence the employee’s attitudes and behaviours. Empirical research studies have indicated that supervisor commitment positively relates to employees’ work-related outcomes, such as job satisfaction (Chen, 2001), task performance (Siders et al., 2001; Becker & Kernan, 2003; Cheng et al., 2003), and OCB (Wasti & Can, 2008), while negatively associated with turnover (Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009).

Research has also suggested that supervisors present more concrete and meaningful human contacts than organisations, which employees mostly perceive as abstractive and symbolic figures (Landry et al., 2010). As supervisors are cognitively closer to individual employees, it is reasonable to believe that the former have higher
‘cognitive immediacy and salience’ (Mueller & Lawler, 1999, p. 327).

Affective commitment as noted in commitment theory reflects the process of identification, involvement and value congruence with targets of interest (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001); thus, employees who share their supervisors’ values, interests and objectives are more likely to remain comfortable in an organisation and exempt from interpersonal demands (Landry et al., 2010). Researchers have extended both TCM and O’Reilly (1986)’s affective commitment model to test and confirm the effects of commitment to a supervisor, and have distinguished the commitment to a supervisor from global organisational commitment (e.g., Howell & Dorfman, 2000). A majority of empirical studies have demonstrated that commitment to a supervisor positively relates with the employee’s work-related outcomes, such as job satisfaction (Chen, 2001), task performance (Becker & Kernan, 2003; Cheng et al., 2003; Siders et al., 2001), and OCB (Wasti & Can, 2008), and negatively associated with turnover (Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009).

It is noteworthy that Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, and Bachrach’s (2000) critical review highlighted supervisors’ important roles in influencing citizenship behaviours, as they can manage and reward the subordinate’s behaviours. Further, OCB has been categorised as either individually directed (OCB-I) or organisationally directed (OCB-O), or ‘locally relevant’ or ‘globally relevant’ behaviours (William & Anderson, 1991). Moreover, Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen (2002) further argued that OCB should be perceived as a
leader-relevant behaviour instead of an organisational-level outcome, and particularly in eastern collectivist culture. Cheng et al. (2003) reported another different finding in their empirical study regarding their discussion of ‘proximal’ and ‘global’ hypotheses; they posited that commitment to a supervisor influences both leader-related and organisationally related outcomes.

However, limited research has focused on how commitment to a supervisor improves predictions of relevant work outcomes (Stinglhamber et al., 2002), and empirical studies are insufficient that investigate the wider consequences of commitment to a supervisor. It is noteworthy that Landry et al. (2010) highlighted the interpersonal nature of commitment to supervisors; their findings reported the different effects of commitment to supervisors on employees’ well-being-related outcomes, such as emotional exhaustion and other negative effects. This research has opened an avenue to understand the specific mechanism between commitment to the supervisor and employee well-being-related outcomes. Accordingly, more research effort in the commitment to supervisors is requested to provide a broader range of outcome variables (Chughtai, 2013), and particularly more work regarding predictions of supervisor-specific outcomes (Landry et al., 2010).

Commitment to the workgroup. Employees in an organisation are bound to both the organisation and the units that form the organisation. For instance, service frontiers work in service-related teams, which include the front line, service support, and service operation teams, which belong to service-related departments nested in the organisation. Given that multiple commitment foci exist, and based on Becker’s
proximal hypothesis, Riketta and Van Dick (2005) argued that as a proximal social entity within the organisation, the workgroup is more salient to the individual employee’s daily work life, and consequently, the commitment to the workgroup or an ‘in-group’ identification might greater influence work-related attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. The rationale behind the distinctiveness of this workgroup commitment is derived from social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 2003). This posits that individuals tend to pursue positive social identities, which have a positive image, and the distinctiveness of an ‘in-group’ identity for better self-esteem; individuals also tend to strive for a better image in their ‘in-group’ social identity to enhance their self-esteem. Thus, employees in organisations are more likely to more specifically self-categorise as team members in their daily work involvement, instead of affiliate with the entire organisation, as the latter is a more distal factor. Ellemers (2001, p. 110) noted ‘people’s willingness to exert individual effort on behalf of one’s team should depend on their commitment to that team, which is not necessarily related to reported levels of commitment to the organisation as a whole’. Individuals in a collectivist culture feel more obliged to the team’s goal, and staying in social harmony as ‘in-group’ members is primary for individuals (Wasti & Can, 2008). In the Chinese context, an old saying exists that ‘the posterior determines the head’, describing the ‘in-group’ identity’s impact on the individual’s thinking and behaviours; thus, it is reasonable to assume significance exist between the commitment to a team
and related work outcomes. Alternatively, as the reciprocity of the social exchange theory, team members are more committed because they act on behalf of the team or group’s success, and will contribute more to the workgroup’s success with extra effort. Hence, the commitment to a workgroup is expected to be associated more with group-related outcomes, as in the ‘compatibility’ hypothesis (Felfe & Yan, 2009). It is noteworthy that, as the literature review indicates, the commitment to the workgroup and co-workers seem to describe similar concepts. The emotional bonding to the ‘in-group’ involves both combined in definition and measurement; for example, Snape et al.’s (2006) study applies the commitment to the workgroup to describe commitments to co-workers.

Empirical studies have mixed findings regarding the relationship between the commitment to a workgroup and employees’ attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. Becker’s (1992) study found that the commitment to a workgroup more highly correlated with the intention to quit, and prosocial organisational behaviours, such as helping colleagues, more highly correlated than organisational commitment. As a critical prosocial employee behaviour in an organisation, citizenship behaviours are discussed and defined as the employee’s discretionary behaviours, which reflect a form of reciprocation within an organisation’s social exchange relationships (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Two dimensions of OCB have also been recognised: conscientiousness and altruism. Conscientiousness involves efforts that benefit the organisation, or OCB-O, and include productivity, efficiency, cost reduction and profitability. The other dimension discussed, altruism, benefits specific individuals in
the organisation, such as supervisor and co-workers, and the commitment to the work group has been consistently suggested or found to have a higher association with OCB-I (Becker & Kernan, 2003; Chan et. al., 2006; Wagner & Rush, 2000), although some research has reported no significant association between the commitment to the workgroup and overall OCB (e.g., Snape, 2006). Later, Snape’s (2011) study of multiple foci and bases of commitment found that the commitment to a workgroup was the sole commitment foci positively associated with altruism, or OCB-I.

Moreover, Riketta and Vandick’s (2005) study supported the ‘compatibility’ hypothesis for other outcomes, with their findings that the commitment to the workgroup was more strongly associated with the workgroup’s extra role behaviours, and organisational commitment is a stronger predictor of turnover than commitment to the workgroup. However, other research studies report less evidence of the correlations between the commitment to the workgroup and the intention to quit (Stinglhamber et al., 2002). Further, commitment to the workgroup was even reported to have a negative relationship with in-role performance (Redman & Snape, 2005).

Commitment to top management. In commitment literature, the commitment to top managers, such as supervisors and workgroups, is perceived as generally important foci for employees (Reichers, 1985). This is also found to negatively relate to the intention to quit, but positively relate to satisfaction and prosocial organisational behaviours, such as OCB (Becker,
Specifically, Bowen (1996) noted that managerial behaviours are critical in shaping organisational culture, and managers in global operations can influence their service employees for superior customer service through proper coaching and training development. Moreover, some other research studies confirm top management’s salience and its effect on employees’ behaviours and organisational commitment. For example, top management communication can decrease employees’ anxiety (Gophinath & Becker, 2000), and trust in top management is positively associated with employees’ innovation (Michaelis et al., 2009). Top management communication can influence employees’ involvement in the organisation, and trust in top management could function to mediate employees’ organisational commitment (Mahajan, Bishop, & Scott, 2012). However, while limited research considers the commitment to top management, along with other foci, to investigate the commitment to top management and its direct effect on work-related outcomes, the relationship still remains vague between the commitment to top management and other foci.

**Commitment to union.** As entities that independently exist within an organisation, unions have received attention from commitment researchers. Studies have demonstrated that multiple commitments are distinct, and commitment to unions—like other commitment foci, such as supervisors or workgroups is found to be associated with a range of outcomes, such as citizenship behaviour and withdrawal cognitions, which lie beyond the organisational commitment (e.g., Becker, 1992; Becker et al., 1995, 1996; Chen et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2003; Redman & Snape, 2005; Stinglhamber et al., 2002; Stinglhamber & Vandenbergh, 2003). Further,
Cohen’s (1993) findings regarding the different consequences of commitment foci reveal union commitment as a main predictor of union activity and attitudinal militancy. Thus, most studies of the commitment to unions traditionally focus on the relationship between commitment and the organisation, and investigate the competing or complementary nature of this relationship (e.g., Reed et al., 1994; Stagner, 1954). However, few studies place commitment to unions in parallel with other commitment foci (Redman & Snape, 2005).

Substantial differences exist regarding unions’ functions and degrees of autonomy in Chinese and western contexts. Although unions in western countries have apparently decreased in density over the last 30 years, since the early 1980s, and the union movement involves debating issues around social partnership and cooperative roles with organisations (e.g., Stuart & Lucio, 2004), unions’ essential functions have remained the same, as autonomous organisations primarily responsible for representing employees’ interests within organisations (Redman, Snape, & Chan, 2006). Unions in the People’s Republic of China, in contrast, were established in the 1950s, and were called the ‘transmission belt’ between the Communist Party and the working class (Ding et al., 2002). Their dually assigned roles represented the working class and provided a service to employees; on the other hand, they function to implement state policy and as an agent of management for high productivity and the resolution of disputes (Chan, 2000, Frankel & Peetz, 1998; Chen,
With China’s reform progress, the expansion of private and foreign-invested business has brought the increasing exploitation of labour and a growing number of labour disputes and social unrest. Thus, union representation has become increasingly important in China, and has been able to protect workers’ interests with greater influence (Ding et al., 2002).

Hence, it is worthwhile to investigate the commitment to unions at this changing moment in China to compare the findings with studies in a western context. A few researchers, such as Snape et al. (2006, 2012) have compared the different effects in different cultural contexts, and have investigated commitment to unions with other foci in a Chinese context. According to the hypothesis of compatibility (Cheng et al., 2003), union-related outcomes have been similarly categorised as organisations into union citizenship and individually relevant behaviour (UCB-I), organisation-oriented union citizenship behaviours (UCB-O), and union withdraw cognitions. These noteworthy findings have revealed that the commitment to unions not only correlates to union-related outcomes, but the commitment to co-workers also positively relates with UCB-I, and commitment to supervisors more strongly relates with UCB-O. Commitment to unions in a Chinese context is also found to positively relate with OCB-O.

*External foci.* External foci refers to the commitment to groups outside of the organisation, such as the profession, customers, and suppliers; the level of external commitment reflects the acceptance of the focal entity’s goal or objectives (Siders et al., 2001).
Occupational commitment. The commitment to occupation has received considerable attention in past decades, and has recently become a more important commitment construct for several reasons (Lee, Carswell, & Allen, 2000). First, the occupation represents a meaningful social identity for most people, and relates to the employee’s decision to leave or stay in an organisation. Second, the global economy always develops with fluctuations, and market ecology does not guarantee any brand will survive long without competition. Thus, employees must handle more intensive and extensive organisational changes, such as acquisitions, mergers and layoffs; consequently, people begin to focus on their work, career, and occupational lives instead of the organisation, where they do not have much control. Third, the emotional connection between people and their occupation influences their attitude and work behaviours, and determines whether they would prefer to stay with their current occupation or choose to leave. Thus, the commitment to occupation, or ‘occupational commitment’, exhibits a potential relationship with retention and work performance.

Occupation is often perceived as a specific job or line of work (such as operator, banker, clerk, or service representative, among others) that individuals become involved in to make a living over a certain period (Lee et al., 2000). Occupational commitment originates with the career salience construct (Greenhaus, 1971), and has been conceptualised as the ‘psychological link between a person and his or her occupation that is based
on an affective reaction to that occupation’ (Lee et al., 2000, p. 2). A need exists in societal development for people to remain in an occupation longer and become experts, and organisations must maintain optimal retention rates for more effectiveness and efficiency. Regarding the work performance perspective, high performers (experts) expend significant amounts of effort and time on relevant activities (Ericsson & Lehmann, 1996); therefore, such researchers as Colarelli and Bishop (1990) suggest that occupational commitment might be a significant predictor of work performance. Further, Lee, Carswell, and Allen’s (2000) meta-study revealed occupational commitment’s positive correlation with organisational commitment, and occupational commitment highly relates to job-focus outcomes and indirectly affects organisational turnover intentions. However, it has been found that occupational turnover intention has a mediating effect on the relationship between occupational commitment and organisational turnover intention. These findings explored the importance of occupational commitment and attitude in organisational turnover; specifically, when employees do not like their jobs, they will think more about looking for a new job, which often causes an exit from their current employer (Lee et al., 2000).

Career, occupation and profession have all been applied in commitment literature, and have been used to describe the same construct, which investigates the foci of work to employees’ commitment. Career commitment has been used in some research to refer to a series of jobs, vocational choices, and some work activities over people’s lifetimes (Arthur, Hall, & Lawrence, 1989; Greenhaus, 1987; Lee et al.,
2000). However, such empirical studies as Blau, Paul, and St. John’s (1993) research have discovered that respondents ‘may have interpreted the term “career” in various ways’ (p. 302). The authors suggested that tighter and narrow referent, such as those involving occupation or focusing on the line of work at a certain period, will be clearer and easier for respondents to follow and avoid confusion in surveys. Alternatively, related findings from professional commitment research has revealed that the more employees invest in their own competitiveness, the more they become committed to their profession (Greenwood & Empson, 2003; Lee et al., 2000). More researchers in recent years have avoided using professional commitment, as this term seemingly excludes non-professionals (Meyer et al., 1993).

As the literature review indicates it is better to apply occupational commitment to describe commitment to a line of work (Meyer et al., 1993), as occupation is a more general term, and does not exclude non-professionals. Regarding its conceptualisation, its definition focuses more on the line of work the individual engages in during a particular time period. It is worthwhile to investigate particular industries, such as service organisations, if any inherent complimentary or competitive relationship exists between organisational and occupational commitment (Johnson, Groff, & Taing, 2009). It is also noteworthy to further explore the relationship between FLSEs’ occupational commitments and their organisational turnover intention, and to verify the relationship between FLSEs’ occupational commitment and other job-related
outcomes, such as job performance (Lee et al., 2000).

**Commitment to customers.** Service frontiers experience dual figures as their boundary-spanning nature: the organisation and the customer. Compared with the organisation, the relationship between customers and employees are the external foci; the nature and strength of employees’ commitment to their customers provides implications regarding how employees try to meet the customers’ goals and expectations (Siders et al., 2001).

In the service context, it is unsurprising to observe customer service frontiers take the customers’ side against management’s decisions regarding cost and efficiency controls to meet customers' needs or expectations. Russell’s (2009) similar case study reported that perceptions of customer service representatives (CSR) negatively impacted a new software’s launching and customers’ experience; consequently, CSRs invented practices to ‘cheat’ by using computers for better service. Employees’ actions actually occur as a result of the employee’s commitment to their customers.

However, the literature review has clearly indicated that limited studies have examined employee commitment’s impact on customers, and mixed findings were discovered regarding different work groups (Swart, Kinnie, & Yalabik, 2011). For instance, Stinglhamber et al.’s (2002) study of nurse commitment reported a significant association between commitment to customers and the intention to quit. However, Becker’s (2009) meta-analysis indicated that the commitment to a supervisor and to customers exhibit negative relationships with the intention to quit.

As the customers in this study include the individuals that service frontiers must deal
with every day as employees’ external commitment foci, the author intends to investigate the commitment to customers and its impact on some related work outcomes, such as the intention to leave, job performance and employees’ well-being.

**Commitment foci in a Chinese context.** Personal relationships and loyalty to supervisors have been found as more important in a Chinese cultural context, and supervisor-subordinate relationships have been characterised by high degrees of particularism (Cheng et al., 2003; Farh, Early, & Lin, 1997). Further, Cheng et al.’s (2002) study found that commitment to a supervisor can better predict OCB and in-role performance than organisational commitment. Snape (2006) used the ‘compatibility hypothesis’—which states that employee outcomes are associated with commitment that benefits the target (Cheng et al., 2003)—to examine the effect of commitment to the supervisor on OCB, as well as its correlation with organisational commitment and the commitment to a workgroup. The author’s empirical finding suggested that commitment to a supervisor had a stronger and positive association with protecting company resources, and explored the partial moderating effect to the commitment to a workgroup.

Further, it is noteworthy that China is rooted in Confucian philosophy, and Chinese society has developed along with collectivism. Compared with the more individualistic western society, the Chinese societal context is more concerned with interpersonal relationships. Individuals from this collective are
more likely to act on behalf of social groups (Felfe & Yan, 2009). Thus, workgroup membership could be more important for employees in a Chinese context, and especially in the construction of their self-concept. Leading commitment literature posits that it is noteworthy to investigate whether commitment to a workgroup acts as a stronger predictor than organisational commitment in this collectivist cultural context. One topic of study includes to what degree of variance the commitment to a workgroup influences employees’ behaviours, such as the intention to leave, job performance, OCB and employees’ well-being.

Chinese employees’ organisational commitment has received researchers’ increasing attention (e.g., Chen & Francesco, 2003; Wong et al., 2002a), and most studies as aforementioned have investigated the effect of commitment to supervisors against organisational commitment. However, relatively fewer studies examine the commitment to workgroups and unions (Snape, 2006), and few studies use the multiple commitment framework in certain Chinese industrial contexts (Cheng et al., 2003; Snape et al., 2006).

**Interaction between multiple commitments. Interaction of multiple components of commitments.** The literature review reveals a complex relationship between multiple commitments and outcomes due to the involvement of multiple bases and foci of commitment. Looking first at bases, some research (Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) suggests that there are interactions between commitments in influencing focal and discretionary behaviours. Gellatly et al. (2006) measured a three-way interaction among commitment components; their
findings revealed that each of the components more strongly related to turnover intention when the other two were weak. Further, it was observed that NOC and COC had no mitigating effect of on the influence of AOC to OCB, but AC was observed to more strongly influence OCB when NC and CC were also strong.

However, a majority of research still only focuses on the three forms’ independent or accumulated effects on work-related outcomes (Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012), and only a few studies have discussed the interaction among these three forms (AOC, NOC, and COC) (Jors, 1997; Randal, Fedor, & Longenecker, 1990; Sommers, 1995). These few studies take a variable-centred approach, and a moderated regression was used to test the interactions between the three dimensions and related work outcomes (e.g., Somers, 1995) and significantly contribute to the exploration of how specific commitment components and outcomes can differ as the function of other components (Meyer, Stanley, & Vandenberg, 2013). Furthermore, literature still suggests a limited theoretical framework for multiple commitment research.

**Interaction of multiple commitment foci.** The literature includes very little theoretical work explaining how multiple commitments possibly interact (Johnson et al., 2009), and studies are limited in examining the interaction between commitment foci (Snape, 2006), with most providing some evidence of commitment foci’s interaction effects, but few exploring more than two dimensions.

Some studies have been concerned with the independent or additive
effects on behaviours (e.g., Becker & Billings, 1993; Meyer et al., 1993; Vandenberghe, Bentein, & Stinglhamber, 2004), Examining whether commitments to different foci are complementary, or in competition with one another (Swart et al., 2011); mixed findings have been reported. Reichers (1986) noted that commitments to different foci were found to conflict with organisational commitments due to the decrease in occurrences of organisational commitment. McLean Parks et al. (1998) contended that commitment to an organisation might be weakened by commitments to other foci; further, Scarbrough (1999) explored the tension and conflicts in knowledge workers’ commitments to different foci at three levels: institutional, organisational and individual. Conversely, the positive association between commitments to different foci is more often found in multiple commitment literature (Becker, 2009); Wallace (1995) reported a positive relationship between organisational commitment and commitment to one’s profession. Alvesson and Robertson (2006) and McKenna (2006) also discussed the positive association between organisational commitment and commitment to one’s profession; the research identifying these interactions also indicates no correlations are significant. McElroy, Morrow, Power, and Iqbal (1993) examined commitments to one’s profession, career, and job involvement, but scarce evidence has indicated the interaction’s effect in predicting employee outcomes in job attitudes, perceptions and performance, with only 6 significant interaction effects confirmed out of 56 possible interactions. Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran’s (2005) recent meta-analysis identified 24 commitment foci and reported true score correlations for 94 combinations.
Further, the literature review reveals that unequal attention has been paid to the different foci. Commitment literature indicates that many researchers have focused on the organisation as the basis of study, and the nested intra-organisational (internal) commitment foci in the organisational structure have received more attention (e.g., Lawler, 1992; Mueller & Lawler, 1999). Although the existence of external foci—such as profession/occupation or customer/client—has been recognised, most research still only focuses on the profession’s impact on employee commitment (May et al., 2002; Swart, 2007; Von Nordenflycht, 2010), and relatively few studies have investigated the client/customers’ role in employee commitment (Meyer, 2009; Swart, 2011; Vandenberghe, 2009).

Finally, more researchers have recently used the Chinese cultural context to test the findings of multiple commitment studies made in western contexts. They have explored and compared the effects of cultural and developing societal differences on employees’ commitments to different constituencies. Chen et al.’s (2002) study of Chinese employees’ commitment revealed that commitment to supervisors has a stronger influence on employees’ in-role and extra-role behaviours than organisational commitment. A similar sample of Taiwanese employees (Cheng, Jiang, & Riley, 2003) confirmed that supervisory commitment is more positively associated with more outcomes than organisational commitment, such as job satisfaction, turnover intention, organisational citizenship behaviours, and performance,
which is only found to affect job satisfaction and turnover intention. Further, Snape, Chan, and Redman (2006) tested the commitment to workgroups in a Chinese manufacturing context, but no significant association was confirmed between this commitment and organisational citizenship behaviours. Snape et al. (2011) later evaluated multiple commitments to the organisation, supervisor, co-workers and unions in a Chinese context, and confirmed these commitments are distinguishable to employees. However, research is still limited regarding the generalisability of western findings and their application in a Chinese context. This especially applies for a wider range of commitment foci for occupational groups in China (Chang, 2003; Snape, 2003), and further exploration is necessary regarding the joint effects of commitment foci, for example, how these different forms of commitment jointly influence work-related outcomes.

Johnson et al. (2009)’s interaction model. Overall, multiple commitment literature generally presents two theoretical perspectives regarding the interaction of multiple commitments: conflict or compatible (Meyer et al., 2013). Based on previous researchers’ findings regarding the interactions of different dimensions and commitment foci, Johnson, Groff, and Taing (2009) proposed three interaction models among the overall multiple commitments. These were intended to explain the cross-interaction and joint effects between multiple commitments: the compensatory, synergy and competition models.

Compensatory model. First, the compensatory model notes that a certain single high-level commitment is sufficient to sponsor favourable work outcomes,
regardless of the levels of other forms of commitment. The authors hypothesize that the compensatory model more likely occurs with the focal outcome, which reflects the direct manifestation of a psychological state that binds employees to an organisation, whether staying or leaving. This proposition is not solely derived from this hypothesis, as many previous research studies have supportive empirical findings; for instance, Somers (1995) reported that the intention to stay was high as long as AOC and COC were high. Similarly, Herscotch and Meyer (2002) also found that with high AOC or COC, the compliance to organisational change initiatives was high, regardless of the others.

**Synergy model.** The second model is synergistic, and describes the joint effects of different high commitment forms on the more favourable consequences of commitments, which one form of commitment cannot achieve on its own. Further, relevant work-related outcomes affected by the multiple commitment synergy model differ from focal outcomes. Johnson et al. (2009) posited that these relevant outcomes do not directly relate to the extent of the employee’s binding to their organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), but extensively include employees’ work attitudes and behaviours, such as job performance, OCB, job satisfaction and strain, and perceptions of fairness. These purported ‘discretionary outcomes’ reflect how employees stay in an organisation during their membership in it (Meyer et al., 2002). Further, Johnson et al. (2009) noted that the effect on these work-related outcomes will
be augmented when employees experience more than one high commitment form. Previous empirical research also reveals similar findings; for example, employees with high AOC exhibit better OCB because they wish to remain and improve the social cohesion and functioning level in their membership group. Employees with high NOC perform OCB due to their loyalty and obligation to their duties (Organ, 1997). Moreover, those with high COC are likely to perform OCB due to accrued organisational investments (e.g. Allen & Meyer, 1990; Johnson & Chang, 2006; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenbergh, 2004). This literature indicates that any of these do not conflict, and affect OCB from their own unique perspectives. When three high levels of multiple commitment forms intersect, the effect is accumulated as a collective consequence of work outcomes. Further, a theoretical discussion of the synergistic model reveals that counterproductive work behaviour has been mentioned as a similar case in which employees experienced multiple high levels of commitment forms.

**Competition model.** Finally, the third (competition) model refers to the incompatibility among high levels of multiple commitments, which is suggested to account for the relationships between different commitment foci, such as organisational, supervisor, team, and occupational commitment (Reichers, 1985). We know from the literature review that different goals, perceptions and motivations underlie employees’ commitments to different constituencies; however, most researches focuses on the independent effects of those commitment foci more than the interactive effects (Stinghamber & Vandenbergh, 2003). Although a few researchers
have empirically studied the aforementioned interactive effect among commitment foci, Johnson, Groff, and Taing (2009) contended that adverse effects will be strong when employees commit to the foci with different goals and values. However, their 2009 study only tested the interaction of organisational commitment’s different bases, with tests of multiple foci left to theoretical discussion.

**Multiple Commitment Profile.** Multiple commitment profile

**Components.** There has been some analysis of the possibility that individuals display different “profiles” of commitment, drawing especially on the multiple bases literature.

Accordingly, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) took an important step in developing a theoretical framework to codify patterns of commitment. Based on Meyer and Allen’s (1991, p. 68) notion that employees can ‘experience all three forms of commitment to varying degrees’, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p. 308) highlight the importance of how ‘the various forms of commitment might interact to influence behaviour’. The authors argued that researchers should perceive the forms of TCM as components within a commitment profile, with varying effects across different commitment profiles, or patterns from the three forms’ scores. Their study identified eight potential profile groups as combinations of the three components’ high or low scores, and compared the eight profile patterns’ influence on outcomes to discover that the optimal profile includes the strongest AC with weak NC and
CC. This profile has the greatest influence on employees’ retention and job performance, and the term ‘dominant’ was used to describe the profile’s strongest components.

Subsequently, several researchers have used similar approaches (Gellatly et al., 2006; Sinclair, Tucker, Wright, & Cullen, 2005; Somers, 2009, 2010; Stanley et al., 2009; Wasti, 2005), and their findings have supported the earlier discussion of different patterns of commitment forms. Further, more interesting findings remain in the profile with more than one dominant component due to its complexity (Somers, 2009; Stanley et al., 2009; Wasti, 2005).

**The People-Centred Approach.** The research needs of multiple commitment interactions add further complexity in commitment research; the resulting variable-centred strategy (using regressions and structural equation modelling) is commonly used, but has encountered significant challenges. Specifically, limited power initially exists for the variable-centred strategy to explore complex interactions (Aguinis & Gottfredson, 2010). The literature review indicates that more than three foci commitments can exceed the variable-centred approach’s capabilities (Morin, Morizot, Boudrias, & Madore, 2011). Further, the combination of components and foci may not be organised through a variable-centred analysis (e.g. Stinglhamber et al., 2002; Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010). Second, the variable-centred approach assumes the study sample’s homogeneity (Pastor, Barron, Miller, & Davis, 2007); accordingly, any main or interactive effects and principles identified in variable-centred analyses are considered for the entire sample (Meyer et al., 2013). Finally, it is
difficult for the variable-centred approach to fully address questions regarding the research of multiple commitment combinations. As aforementioned, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) have proposed eight commitment profiles among the components of commitment; however, their variable-centred approach suggested the possible existence of subgroups, but was insufficient to identify the groups accordingly. Moreover, profile membership was not treated as a variable, which future subsequent research must address (Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009).

Hence, Meyer, Stanley, and Vandenberg (2012) proposed a people-centred approach, which primarily uses cluster and latent profile analyses as a compliment to the traditional variable-centred approach. The summarised benefits differ as follows: First, the person-centred approach respects individuals’ differences and holistically considers the individual. Second, the person-centred approach identifies unobserved subgroups in the sample and population, among the different and complex combinations of commitment variables. Third, the person-centred approach can accommodate the complexity of multiple commitments, and can help compare how multiple commitment variables are experienced across subgroups. The variable-centred approach in commitment research focuses on exploring and explaining the variances among variables, whether one to another, or one to another two. The person-centred approach can be used to explore how variable combinations work within individuals, in other words, to identify the subgroups of
individuals with similar patterns of variables. Thus, as Meyer et al. (2012) has suggested, both the variable-centred and person-centred approaches can function harmoniously in one study.

Regarding the complexity of multiple commitment foci, the people-centred approach is perceived as well-suited to address the complexity of multiple foci. Although most research on variable-centred approaches has discovered a positive correlation with work-related commitment foci, a further question exists, and cannot be well-addressed, regarding whether multiple commitment foci are likely more compatible with some employees, or conflict with others. However, the subgroups identified by the person-centred approach may answer this call. For example, Becker and Billing’s (1993) four-foci interaction study used a cluster analysis to discover four-profile groups: the committed group displayed a strong commitment to all foci, while the uncommitted group had little commitment to all four foci. As a qualitative difference separate from the substantial quantitative difference, the group that more highly committed to a supervisor and workgroup than its organisational commitment and commitment to top management was called the ‘locally committed’ group, while the opposite pattern group is called the ‘globally committed’ group. The locally committed group was also reported to engage more in local prosocial behaviours than the globally committed group.

Moreover, Carson et al. (1999) and Somers and Birnbaum (2000) identified four groups from different patterns and combinations of organisational and career commitment through the median split approach. Both studies reported the most
favourable and least favourable outcome groups, but Carson et al. (1999) additionally discovered the organisationist group, with strong organisational commitment but low career commitment. This group predictably has lower job withdrawal intention than the careerists group, or those who have strong career commitment but low organisational commitment, and similar results have been found in the career withdrawal intentions between dual commitments. Recently, a comprehensive study of commitment foci has paid more attention to the person-centred approach. For instance, Morin et al. (2011) used a latent profile analysis, and Vermunt and Magidson (2002) applied a factor mixture analysis, to explore the patterns of seven AC foci (the organisation, workgroup, supervisor, customer, job, work and career). The authors discovered five latent profile groups as the data fit, which include: highly committed to all foci, weakly committed to all foci, highly committed to a supervisor and moderately committed to others, committed to a career but weakly committed to all other foci, and committed to the proximal work environment (including the organisation, workgroup, and customers). Distinct patterns of antecedents and outcomes were then described in accordance with these qualitatively different identified subgroups. For example, employees from the proximal work environment group reported longer tenure and less positive relationships with their supervisors, and low OCB scores directed towards their supervisors. Alternatively, the group committed to their supervisors more than other foci differed from other groups with great
supervisor relationships and above-average in-role performance. Hence, these findings can explain why the people-centred approach can appropriately address the complexity of multiple foci by identifying subgroups with distinct patterns of personal characteristics, situational experiences and behavioural tendencies (Meyer et al., 2013).

However, as the people-centred approach has only received attention in recent years, more empirical research efforts are needed to extend the existing findings’ generalisability (Meyer et al., 2013). Although it is clear that employees’ behaviours can be influenced by various commitment foci, most previous research has focused on dual commitments. Thus, many new questions wait for answers, and especially regarding the combination of multiple commitment foci. More research is suggested (Meyer et al., 2013) to provide a starting point by identifying subgroups among the varying combination of multiple commitment foci, and further exploring the nature and consequences of these combinations. Further, future people-centred research must arguably involve dynamic processes for better implications in a modern business world (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010), including changes in profile membership or organisational initiatives, among others.

**Commitment Profile Implications and Challenge.** Researchers have recognised the meaningful implications for organisational practitioners of taking the profile approach. It is believed that commitment profiles could bring a more holistic angle to view the effects of multiple commitments and make the need to look beyond the ‘simple’ ‘main effects’ of commitment forms both possible and practical

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(Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002, p. 485). Further, the commitment profile with a person-centred approach considers individual differences and respects the possibility of the existence of subgroups. This is believed to better explore the interplays and reflect the dynamic relationships among different multiple commitment combinations (Meyer et al., 2002). Thus, an assessment of workforce commitment subgroups reveals that the organisation can consider various profiles to better understand its employee population, rather than only looking at a single level in an isolated way. Moreover, the commitment profile can reflect the broader picture and workforce trends in an organisation, and help the organisation to better practice, based on findings from the person-centred (Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2011) and variable-centred approaches. Specifically, organisations can identify and compare the differences in subgroups within certain organisational populations, and allow for the possibility that certain attributes—such as AC, NC, CC or various foci—might be experienced differently. This has different implications for work outcomes with various patterns of multiple commitment combinations.

Researchers’ dominant interest in commitment profile literature has involved the relationship between the commitment profile and retention and performance (including OCB and job performance). Only a few studies have examined employees’ well-being, which indicates employees’ mental health and reflects job satisfaction (Meyer & Maltin, 2010).

Some researchers believe that commitment profiles can provide a more
holistic angle to view multiple commitments’ effects than a simple single-commitment perspective. Further, the advantage of the commitment profile has been highlighted, as this can better explore the interplays and reflect the dynamic relationships among different commitment forms and foci (Meyer et al., 2002). However, previous research still indicates less attention to multiple foci. For example, although Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) mentioned that employees are likely to experience different commitments to various foci, their proposition and analysis did not address the effects of multiple foci combinations. Other researchers have further noted that more effort and attention should be paid to examine the profiles of multiple commitment foci (Meyer et al., 2013) and emphasize the meaningful importance to organisations of exploring optimal profile models (Meyer et al., 2011).

Alternatively, the subgroup-base assumption regarding commitment profiles has been challenged as questionable (Johnson et al., 2009), primarily because not all proposed profiles exist, and different profile findings appear in different study samples. For example, Sinclair et al. (2005) confirmed a non-committed profile in one of their three data samples, and Wasti (2005) observed a non-committed profile in both samples. Hence, the commitment profile’s generalisability must still be assessed in further research.

Reconceptualization of Commitment

The need for reconceptualization. Some researchers have described commitment as a force that binds the individual to a course of action (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Such commitment is defined differently with exchange-based
forms of motivation and target-related attitudes, believed to influence behaviour in the absence of extrinsic motivation and positive attitudes. Some researchers alternatively categorised employees’ bonds in the organisation into different types to explain how people feel, make sense of, or experience their attachment to the organisation (Etzioni, 1961; Kanter, 1968; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Concepts such as the bases of commitment in compliance, identification and internalisation (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986), mindsets (Meyer & Allen, 1991) and rationales (Klein, Brinsfield, & Molloy, 2006) have been involved in explaining these bonds. Further, many scholars have described commitment as a certain unique bond (Brown, 1996; Kiesler & Sakamura, 1966; Lee et al., 2000).

The commitment concept has also been abused to present employees’ mixed bonds to organisations, so as to display the commitment construct’s redundancy. Some researchers have voiced their concerns regarding whether all psychological bonds should be perceived as commitments (Klein, 2012). The vague relationship between commitment and other psychological bonds, such as identification, engagement and loyalty, have been of concern as a cause of clarity issues (Jaros, 2009), as well as issues with conceptualisation fallacy (Block, 1997) and the redundancy of commitment constructs (Bartunek, 2007; Le et al., 2010).

Further, commitment constructs have been criticised as redundant, with a lack of clear distinctiveness among employees’ various bonds to the
organisation (Klein, 2014). O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) voiced their concerns that commitment antecedents or outcomes have been combined with the commitment concept, which can cause redundancy. More criticism in the last 10 years has led to an ‘inclusive approach’ (Klein, 2012) in the development of the commitment construct. This refers to the involvement of other relevant antecedent and outcome-related factors, such as motivation or turnover intention (Gautama, Van Dick, & Wagner, 2004), or extraneous concepts, such as identification, engagement/satisfaction, in the theoretical and empirical development of commitment (Jaros, 2007; 2012; Jaussi, 2007). Such an inclusive approach is criticised, as it causes confusion in the commitment definition (Jaros, 2009) as well as inadequate construct explication (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002).

**Reconceptualising commitment.** Klein (2012, p. 6) further addressed other researchers’ arguments and doubts regarding commitment fallacy by clarifying that ‘there is clearly a bond to the organisation, but not necessarily a commitment bond’. Klein (2012) proposed the reconceptualisation of commitment. Researchers clearly define commitment as a specific psychological state of dedication to targets (Blau, 1985; Brown, 1996; Buchanan, 1974; Kanter, 1968; Porter et al., 1974; Reichers, 1985), reflecting a vow or pledge that binds individuals to these targets (Kiesler, 1971; Solinger et al., 2008). This also reveals people’s responsibility to the targets (e.g., Brown, 1996; Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thompson, & Spiller, 1980; Salancik, 1977), and their willingness to devote themselves to the target (Mowday et al., 1982). Further, this presents a sense of volition (e.g., Salancik, 1977); in other words,
commitment is a ‘volitional bond reflecting dedication and responsibility for a target’ (Klein, 2012, p. 131). Moreover, Klein’s (2012) discussion highlighted the importance of its ‘target-free’ nature and unidimensional attribute.

First, Klein’s reconceptualisation has certain alignments with the prior commitment model. One such alignment notes that Klein also perceived the affective mindset as a distinct type of bond and strong attitudinal component. Another agreement involves the normative component; as similarly noted in earlier TCM literature, it is undeniable that obligation creates a certain bond. However, Klein (2012) argued that it could be experienced in various ways, and anticipated that KUT might have a small relationship with NOC. Finally, among the aforementioned overlapping attitudinal, motivational and mindset-oriented concepts related to commitment, Klein (2012) exercised a selective approach with three reconceptualisation criteria: target-free applicability, distinctiveness and confounding avoidance. Specifically, Klein’s (2012) reconceptualisation clarified the non-relevant definitional elements, such as binding forces (e.g., Meyer & Allen, 1991); side bets (Becker, 1960); attitudes (e.g., Blau, 1985); goal or value congruence (e.g., O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986); drive, persistence, or other motivational concepts (e.g., Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005); and loyalty (e.g., Porter et al., 1974). Klein (2012) avoids confounding information by excluding antecedent-like factors, such as work ethic, and outcome-like factors, such as the willingness to exert effort, engagements in specific courses of action, and the unwillingness to withdraw.
Further, Klein et al. (2014) initiated an overall assessment of the KUT (Klein Unidimensional and Target-free model) approach that developed a KUT measurement and confirmed its target-free measurement validity. A comparison with the prior measurement has confirmed that, first, KUT is not a new concept, but shares a consistent base with previous core commitment research. The hypothesis has been supported, as KUT positively relates to TCM’s affective and normative dimensions, and significantly and positively relates to the OCQ regarding the organisation’s target, and the same case applies to all dimensions of the union commitment scale. Second, KUT has been found to explain fewer variances in identification, satisfaction and turnover intention. This demonstrates that KUT has less overlap with other bonding-related constructs, and confirms the more focused and narrower commitment reconceptualisation purposes, as originally designed. The results reflect the constellation of supports to the KUT’s construct validity, and confirm the KUT’s capability to leverage findings across targets in workplace commitment.

It has been suggested (Klein, 2014) regarding future research perspectives that as an alignment with prior measures is expected, scholars can capitalise on commitment research with the KUT concept and measurement advantages of its conceptual clarity, short length, and target-free nature to consistently connect their findings with prior research for further exploration. Moreover, Klein’s (2014) assessment study cannot test the relationships among commitment, turnover and related controlling factors with a comparative assessment of KUT versus TCM or the OCQ scale. More research is needed to directly test a less confounding KUT, as
clearly suggested (Klein, 2014). Further, few studies incorporate KUT in a Chinese context to test its validity and confirm the congruence of its advantages.

Commitment Research Gaps and Future Focus

Some concerns and challenges to the commitment concept in literature are discussed and highlighted on the way alone commitment’s construct development. The following section will summarise the research gaps for forthcoming focus based on the literature review.

Although KUT addressed the need for a general model of workplace commitment, the generalisability must be further confirmed by additional applications using different commitment foci. Researchers have argued that organisational commitment is no longer a global construct (Klein, Molloy & Brinsfield, 2012), and should not be used as a general lens to analyse employee commitment regarding the distinctiveness of different foci and the fading importance of organisational commitment (Klein, 2014). A review of commitment framework conceptualisation notes the existence of different multidimensional commitment constructs, such as TCM and O’Reilly’s models, which have indicated a problematic lack of a general model for work commitments (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Further, Klein’s (2014) reconceptualisation presents the KUT model as a general construct with summarised advantages, as it is conceptually clear, short in length, and target-free. Such an assessment of KUT’s validity using eight key foci—
including the organisation, supervisor, co-workers and occupation—has provided a strong starting point. However, other various commitment foci must be explored to further determine the KUT model’s generality. For example, the commitment to top management, which substantially influences the employee’s innovation behaviour, work adaption, and commitment to customers, is another important external foci that reflects and determines employees’ customer-oriented work performance.

A wider set of outcomes, such as those either proximal or distal, and from employer- and employee-relevant perspectives, must be brought into the operation of KUT to further verify its generalisability regarding the given targets and additional contextual dimension. An advantage of KUT is the consistency it brings, which is necessary to study findings across targets and allow for a more advanced understanding of workplace commitment (Klein, 2014). A 2014 assessment of KUT confirmed the different targets of commitment as a starting point, given its generally positive association with such limited outcomes as turnover intention, in both in-role and external role behaviours and performance. Future research needs a test radar with more outcomes from the proximal and distal perspectives, which relate to both continuity and work motivation, such as employees’ well-being and counter-productivity (Klein, 2014). Further, the literature review indicates that organisational commitment has primarily focused on outcomes related to the employer’s interests, such as turnover and job performance. Increasing attention has only recently been paid to employee-related outcomes, such as work stress, employee burnout, and psychological health, among others (Meyer, 2002).
Moreover, the 2014 KUT assessment was generally operated in a variety of contexts, such as hospitals, students, or juries, but no particular position or specific employment relationship involved a contextual dimension exploration, such as FLSEs or a company’s sales force, were given as targets to explore whether any unique differences exist across targets in a given working context. Further, explorative analyses are lacking to study the relationship between targets of commitment and different outcomes. For example, the first KUT model assessment (Klein, 2014) had no further analysis to investigate which commitment foci had stronger effects on certain outcomes, or whether any outcomes were unique to a certain commitment target. Thus, Klein (2014) suggested that more research with various additional contextual outcomes would extend the KUT’s generalisability.

More commitment studies must be applied to different cultural and occupational contexts to further test the KUT commitment construct’s generality. Since the first assessment of KUT was applied across five sections of western business, Klein (2014) has suggested that forthcoming research needs more commitment foci applications in different cultural contexts, with a comparison to prior measurements to further determine generalisability. It is noteworthy that although Chinese employees’ organisational commitment has received researchers’ increasing attention (e.g., Chen & Francesco, 2003; Wong et al., 2002a), most studies in the aforementioned literature review only investigate the effect of commitment to
supervisors as well as organisational commitment. Still relatively fewer studies examine the commitments to the workgroup and union (Snape, 2006), and fewer studies consider a multiple commitment framework in certain Chinese industrial contexts (Cheng et al., 2003; Snape et al., 2006). Further, although more researchers have used Chinese cultural contexts to test the findings of the multiple commitment studies made in western contexts, research is still limited regarding the generalisability of western findings and their application in Chinese contexts, and especially for a wider range of commitment foci regarding occupational groups in China (Chang, 2003; Snape, 2003).

Additionally, employees with different jobs generally operate in different work contexts, and they must deal with the different natures of specific job-boundary-spanning roles, such as employees in a sales team (Sider, 2002) and a service team (Vandenberghe et al., 2007). Thus, employees have different perceptions regarding the definition of different related stakeholders in relatively unique work contexts, such as supervisors, workgroups or customers, among others (Goodman, Fichman, Lerch, & Snyder, 1995; Singh, 1998; Vandenberghe et al., 2007). Hence, multiple commitment foci might differently influence employee outcomes due to employees’ different perceptions of foci salience in their unique work context. Thus, commitment research should consider both cultural and work contexts in studying commitment’s influence.

Regarding the KUT model, which is based on commitment development but involves the reconception of the commitment construct, more findings must be generalised and demonstrated by cross-cultural testing and different work context invariances, with
different language translations (Klein, 2014).

Future KUT measurements should consider multiple data sources, such as others’ rating of employees’ commitment, instead of only self-reported commitment measurements. Current KUT assessment data has only used self-reported measurements. The need exists for future researchers to apply sophisticated measurement designs, as it would be beneficial to have multiple sources of data. This is especially the case when considering others’ ratings of employee commitment (Klein, 2015) or commitment-related behaviours, such as OCB or performance. For example, leaders’ ratings of their team members’ commitment could reflect the team members’ alignment and behavioural responses regarding the team’s goals or a given target.

A need exists to examine the interdependencies and interactions among different commitment foci, and their effects on a wider range of outcomes. This is because of the limited theoretical framework and the limited number of multiple commitment interaction studies. Literature has noted that employees can feel committed to multiple bases and foci of commitment, such as AOC, NOC and COC, due to different psychological states. This commitment is also impacted by different groups nested inside or outside of the organisation, such as the supervisor, co-workers, customers, or occupations. However, the theoretical framework and empirical studies are limited to investigate the interactions among the different forms of commitment. Further, limited studies examine the interactions of commitment
foci (Snape, 2006); for example, ‘how do the relationships between commitment and organisation, commitment and supervisor, or commitment and occupation impact individual employees, either competitively or complementarily? Although Johnson et al.’s (2009) three-interaction model has combined all different bases and foci of commitment to study three proposed relationship models (compensatory, synergy and competition), a lack of empirical studies exists to apply their interaction model and further explore the relationships among commitment foci. Alternatively, research is still insufficient that explores the relationship among more than two focal commitments, and a majority of limited research focuses on organisational commitment and the commitment to a supervisor (Chang, 2003). Further, mixed findings present both negative (e.g., McLean Parks et al., 1998) and positive (e.g., Scarbrough, 1999) associations between organisational commitment and the other commitment foci in different studies. Further, the literature review notes that more research must reveal the interaction effects between commitment foci and a wider range of outcomes, such as employees’ well-being and citizenship behaviours, rather than merely focusing on the intention to leave and performance from the employer’s perspective. This will ultimately create a better understanding of multiple commitment foci’s influence on a wider range of employees’ attitudinal and behavioural outcomes.

Combining the person-centred and variable-centred commitment approaches can assist researchers in becoming closer to the dynamic process in complex workplace commitment, but requires more attention and further
empirical application. The literature review indicates that the multiple base and commitment foci in workplace commitment theory have become increasingly complex (Meyer et al., 2013). Variable-centred strategies, which are commonly used, have encountered a significant challenge, as the variable-centred analysis overlooks the fact that survey participants might come from different cultures and industries, with different dispositions and individual perceptions. The person-centred analysis addresses this call, as it has been used to recognise subgroups as employee profiles (i.e. a typology; see Bailey, 1994; Bergman, 2000; Magnusson, 1998) and respect the subgroups that exist with various variables of interest. This might cause different salient outcomes, rather than taking the sample as a homogeneous whole (Klein, 2013). Hence, Meyer et al. (2013) proposed the people-centred approach, which primarily uses cluster and latent profile analyses as compliments to the traditional variable-centred approach.

Although the people-centred approach is believed to bring a more holistic angle to study the joint effects of multiple commitments, as it considers subgroup memberships, increasing attention has been paid to multiple commitment foci perspectives. For example, Morin et al. (2011) applied a people-centred approach as well as latent profile and factor mixture analyses to examine the AC rates for several foci (the organisation, workgroup, supervisor, customer, occupation, work and career) to further explore the foci profile. However, the literature review still insufficiently
explores the joint effects of different foci. Further, insufficiently few empirical works examine the relationships between different profile patterns and non-performance and non-retention-related outcomes, such as employees’ well-being and counterproductive behaviour. The application of a combination of the variable-centred (e.g., regression and structural equation modelling analyses) and people-centred approaches (e.g., the cluster and latent profile analyses) still call for attention given the dynamic combination of multiple commitment foci (Meyer et al., 2013).

**Conclusion**

Commitment scholars have called for more attention regarding not only overall foci, but also the interactions and joint effects across foci in the workplace. This provides significant implications for organisations to better understand the driving of commitment in their particular setting. The literature review points out redundancy as a major problem, primarily because of the ‘inclusive’ approach in commitment development, as well as a lack of overall consensus measurements across foci. Klein(2012)’s new reconceptualisation intends to address the major issues of commitment construct and illuminates distinct commitment concepts and measurements with KUT’s conceptual clarity, short length, and target-free advantages.

In concluding the chapter, we summarise several key research gaps for future research focus based on this literature review. First, and specifically based on Klein’s (2012) reconceptualisation, more direct comparison tests to Klein’s Unidimensional and Target-free model (KUT) (Klein et al., 2012) and TCM or Organisational
Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979) are needed to confirm the advantages of KUT regarding its conceptual clarity, short length, and target free nature, as well as the KUT construct’s validity. Second, future research requires more KUT applications in different commitment foci and in different cultural contexts to confirm KUT’s generalisability. Third, a wider set of outcomes, both proximal and distant, need to be integrated into the operations of KUT application research. Fourth, limited studies exist to explore the interaction of overall foci commitment; due to a lack of theoretical framework or empirical assessment model, it is worthwhile to explore the interdependencies and interactions between different commitment foci. Fifth, commitment research’s person-centred approach is perceived as the more effective way to handle complex work commitments, but is still in its infancy, with more research applications required. Moreover, future research is more often expected to use multiple data sources, rather than solely self-reported data, to explore more insights regarding the relationship between commitment and behavioural outcomes.
Chapter III - Framework and Hypothesis

Introduction

This study is based on the research gaps and future directions suggested by the literature review, and focuses on service organisations’ challenges in motivating their employees. This study also intends to address a major research question throughout: how commitments compel Chinese frontline service employees to stay and perform in service organisations. This chapter presents our theoretical framework and hypothesis development; specifically, we focus on the relationship between multiple foci commitment and a wider set of outcomes in a given frontline service employees (FLSE) work context, and investigate how the multiple foci commitment influence them, both independently and interactively. This involves not only the organisation, supervisor and co-worker, but also top management, unions, the occupation and customers. We analyse the service work-related consequence of commitment from three perspectives: withdrawing cognition, work behaviour and performance, and employees’ well-being. Some unique service-related outcomes will be added to the overall analysis of the variables of commitment, including service-oriented OCB and emotional exhaustion reflecting the employee’s state of depletion and fatigue (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

The study provides several opportunities to make contributions to commitment research. First, we evaluate the KUT model in a Chinese FLSE context. Second, we investigate the interaction of multiple foci commitments and outcomes in a wider range from both employer and employee perspectives. Third, we combine people- and
variable-centred approaches to obtain a better understanding of employees’
dynamic and interactive commitment and its related outcomes.

Research Question and Objectives

Research question. Job growth in western countries has predictably
shifted from goods production to the provision of services; as more than 70
percent of employment is service-related (Frenkel, Korczynski, Shire, & Tam,
1999). Frontline employees play a critical role in customer retention and
excessive turnover may damage service operations and customer relationships
(Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe, & Avci, 2003; Tax & Brown, 1998; White, 2004).
Thus, service firms value the retention of satisfied and committed employees,
and particularly frontline service employees, in the continuity of business
success and customer retention. Compelling questions for management
involve knowing how to motivate frontline service employees to remain in
their occupations and perform.

From the employee’s perspective, frontline service employees (FLSEs)
in service organisations face different challenges and pressures at work.
Specifically, FLSEs must surmount substantial interpersonal demands (Kern &
Grandey, 2009; Van Jaarsveld, Walker, & Skarlicki, 2010). As boundary
spanners (Aldrich & Herker, 1977) who must handle both internal and external
stakeholders in the organisation (Stamper & Johlke, 2003), such as
supervisors, co-workers, top management and customers, FLSEs face
interpersonal challenges, pressure and tension in their job roles to meet diverse
expectations (Browning, 2008; Keller & Holland, 1975; Zimmermann, Dormann, & Dollard, 2011). Hence, it would be meaningful for both service management and FLSEs to clarify whether the latter might choose to withdraw and what motivates FLSEs to perform.

Research indicates that employees with high organisational commitment have more predictable and better attendance, lower resignation rates, and more organisational citizenship behaviours (Becker, Billings, Eveleth, & Gibert, 1996; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Further, researchers (e.g., Reichers, 1985) have noted that employees have distinguishable commitments to multiple targets or foci in the organisational environment. Research evidence suggests that the existence of various foci commitments including those to the organisation, supervisors, co-workers, the industry, or customers, can predict such work-related outcomes as job satisfaction, intent to quit, and performance (Becker, 1992; Becker, Randall, & Riegel, 1995; Becker et al., 1996; Cohen, 1993). However, meta-analyses show that most commitment research has involved western samples (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Meyer et al., 2002). Thus, there is a need to generalize the research findings with more work in different cultural contexts.

Thus, in light of the growing concerns in service management and the challenging service work that FLSEs face, we focus this research in a comprehensive service context by targeting service-based organisations’ frontline service employees. Moreover, we consider China as a meaningful context for this study, to further analyse the generalisability of the constructs’ nature and effects, because of its traditional
Confucian collectivism (Hui & Tan, 1996) and relationship-oriented cultural background. Thus, this study’s major research question is: How does commitment compel FLSEs in a Chinese context to stay with an organisation and perform?

**Research objectives.** We will address the aforementioned research question by drawing on a study of frontline service workers in service-based organizations (a logistic firm and a telecom firm) in the People’s Republic of China to evaluate multiple commitment foci contributions to the FLSE’s work attitude and service work behaviours. Specifically, the current research aims to evaluate the KUT framework in the context of FLSEs in China.

We will address the need to examine a wider set of potential outcomes related FLSE’s work by evaluating the implications of FLSEs’ multiple commitments towards work attitudes, withdrawal intention, service behaviour and well-being.

An interaction analysis is provided to more clearly understand the joint effects of multiple foci commitment. We wish to investigate possible interactive relationship among FLSEs’ multiple foci commitments, and further examine whether China’s collectivist culture emphasizes the salience of these commitment foci.

We apply a people-centred approach to further identify the subgroups that exist in a targeted population of Chinese FLSEs with strong or weak combinations of service frontline work-related commitments and any
distinctive patterns of outcomes.

**Hypothesis Development**

Cohen (2003, p. 108) notes that employees perceive commitment foci as distinct, rather than as components of organisational commitment. Many researchers (e.g., Becker et al., 1992, 1995, 1996, 2003) have confirmed that multiple foci commitments explain variances in work outcomes beyond mere global organisational commitment. Thus, this study considers previous researchers’ perspectives and notes the ‘distinct’ foci as independent commitments. We choose to concentrate solely on the commitment foci in this paper rather than bases for three reasons. First, as stated in the literature review, we are concerned that the specification of bases would not only be ambiguous and redundant, but also overlap. For example, overlap issues may exist between affective and normative commitment; unrelated issues still exist in continuous commitment; and compliance, identification, and internalisation scales have been argued as redundant and ambiguous (Becker, 1992; Becker et al., 1995). Second, Klein (2012) argues that the prior commitment base is criticised as no longer purely commitment, as it includes other extraneous concepts that present different psychological bonds (acquiescence or instrumental). Moreover, an indistinguishable relationship has been reported between AOC and organisational identification (Gautam, Van Dick, & Wagner, 2004), and empirical overlap was reported between prior commitment measurements and satisfaction (Le et al., 2010). Finally, our primary concern in this study involves investigating multiple foci commitment and their influence on
As the literature review notes, multiple foci commitments have been categorised to better understand the influence on employees’ work-related outcomes. Becker et al. (1996) argued that local foci, such as the commitment to a supervisor or workgroup, were psychologically more proximate to the individual than global foci, such as the organisation or top management, and so may more substantially influence the subordinate’s (or colleagues’) behaviours. This categorisation has also been used by other, such as Cheng’s (2003) research on different foci’s compatibility. Alternatively, such studies as Siders’ (2001) multiple foci and job performance study, consider the organisational perspective, categorising foci into internal (foci within the organisation) and external (foci outside the organisation). Drawing on previous research, we summarise foci as illustrated in Figure 1; combining both perspectives to categorise the related foci as a radar board. We will apply two angles to discuss the influence of FLSEs’ multiple foci to the corresponding outcomes.

Meyer’s (2002) summarized commitment outcomes from both employers’ and employees’ perspectives, suggesting three categories of consequences, including turnover intention and turnover, on-the-job behaviours, and employees’ health and well-being. This study follows this categorisation to address FLSEs’ specific work-related attitudes and behaviours, as illustrated in the right side of Figure 2. The left side of Figure
2 preliminarily identifies seven foci that might be expected to significantly interface with FLSEs’ daily work life.

Figure 1

FLSE’s Multiple Foci Radar Board

Proximal distance to Organization
Internal
Commitment to Top Mgt.
Commitment to Union
Commitment to Workgroup
Commitment to Supervisors

External
Commitment to Occupation
Commitment to Customers

Proximal distance to Individual
Global
Local

Figure 2.

Multiple Commitment Foci and Consequences

Organizational Commitment
Commitment to Top Mgt.
Commitment to Union
Commitment to Workgroup
Commitment to Supervisors
Commitment to Occupation
Commitment to Customers

Turnover Intention
On-the-Job Behavior
• In-role performance
• Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)
Employee’s well-being
• Emotional Exhaustion

Next, we present 6 hypotheses from four perspectives, the KUT construct’s validity, the commitment’s influence on outcomes, the interaction of multiple commitments in predicting outcomes, and the analysis of commitment profiles across the focal commitments. The first three hypotheses relate to construct validity by examining whether there is a unidimensional KUT construct with the
convergence and divergence of validity for the six target foci (hypothesis 1, hypothesis 3) and whether this construct can function as a target-free model across the six targets (hypothesis 2). Based on social exchange theory (McNeely & Meglino, 1994), which suggests the correspondence between the focus of exchange and the types of reciprocating behaviours, and the compatibility hypothesis (Cheng, 2003), which explains that employees’ attitudinal and behavioural outcomes may be associated with commitment to the most likely beneficiary foci or targets, (hypothesis 4) we hypothesized that service frontline employees’ attitudes and behaviours would be associated with commitments to the likely beneficiary foci and targets for each outcome. Furthermore, field theory (Lewin, 1943) suggests that psychologically proximal factors have dominant effect on behaviors and Becker et al.’s (1996)’s proximal principle suggests that local foci which are physically closer are more likely psychologically proximal and so have a stronger effect on behaviors. The foci that FLSEs face can be categorized not only in terms of the physical boundary of the organization (i.e., internal or external), but also according to the distance to employees, such as local or distal. Hence, to Siders et al. (2001) study on internal and external multiple foci and Becker et al.’s (1996) analysis of proximity, in this study we take both views into account, as reflected in hypotheses 5 and 6.

Multiple foci commitments and KUT. A considerable amount of research suggest that employees’ work-related outcomes are influenced by their commitment
to both the organization and other specific foci, such as the supervisors, workgroups, customers and unions (e.g., Reichers, 1985; Cohen, 2003; Redman & Snape, 2005). However, the literature also indicates that the major concentration of multiple commitment foci is the internal foci within an organization, such as the supervisor (Becker & Kernan, 2003; Chen et al., 2002) and workgroup (Self et al., 2005); fewer studies extend this finding to external foci (Siders et al., 2001; Stinglhamber et al., 2002). While research on Chinese employees is increasing, most studies only focus on certain dual commitment foci, such as the organization and supervisor (Cheng et al., 2002; 2003), senior management (Brandes, Dharwadkar, & Wheatley 2004), co-workers (Snape et al., 2005), or unions (Snape et al., 2006). Therefore, this study intends to take the FLSEs boundary spanner perspective to select seven related commitment foci: the organization, top management, supervisor, co-workers, unions, occupation, and customer. These foci will comprise a preliminary radar board (Figure 1); we will then follow Becker’s (1992) foci selection procedure and interview a small preliminary group of FLSEs in the targeted service organizations to first discover FLSEs specific and meaningful foci for further measurement.

A review of commitment framework conceptualizations reveals that the existence of different multidimensional commitment constructs such as TCM and O’Reilly (1986)’s models etc. has indicated a problematic lack of a general model for work commitments (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Furthermore, Klein’s (2014) reconceptualization presents the KUT model as a general construct, with advantages in terms of conceptual clarity and short length, as well as being target free. A
primary assessment of the 2014 KUT reveals that it has thus far generally operated in a variety of contexts, such as hospitals, academia and jury duty, among others, but no particular position or specific employment relationship has been noted in an exploration of contextual dimensions, such as FLSEs. As the service team and its role in business operations have become increasingly important in the modern economy, we wish to apply KUT model in this study to examine Chinese employees’ related commitment foci in a service context. Furthermore, given the correspondence between internal consistency reliability and factor loadings (Cronbach, 1951), for KUT model, this study in the Chinese service context follows the process of Klein’s (2014) initial assessment study to test the generalizability of this updated commitment framework. The KUT’s validity, specifically the measurement of KUT items loading on a single factor, should indicate any target’s adequate fit to the data, and the internal consistency and reliability is expected regardless of the target. Therefore,

_Hypothesis 1: The KUT model will be unidimensional; namely, a single factor model will demonstrate a good fit to the data for each commitment foci._

Further, according to field theory (Lewin, 1943), salience is likely to be noticed in people’s sense making, and commitment is a social construct based on people’s unique perceptions (Klein, 2012). Hence, it is important to examine whether the KUT can detect the difference of targets across different individuals, and commitment to different targets should not be
treated as dimensions of the commitment construct in an operational hierarchical structure (e.g., Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998). As a target-free measurement, the unidimensional KUT model is needed to detect those different target commitments among individuals. Thus, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 2: The KUT scores cross multiple commitment foci will differ among participants**

Reichers (1985) positions employees at the core of the commitment circle, and notes that employees are surrounded by various commitment constituencies (foci). Regarding the different commitment foci’s influence on employees, Muller and Lawler (1999, p. 327) note the concept of ‘cognitive distance’ as the ‘degree of cognitive immediacy and salience that the employee associates with an organisational unit (or focus)’. This notion conceptualises the relationship between various commitments from the individual’s perspective; namely, individuals might assess the distance and salience of commitment differently (Snape et al., 2005). Moreover, Snape (2005) also argued that the generalisation of cognitive distance is explained not only between different foci, which mirrors the commitment foci’s levels of independence, but also between the self and different foci.

This study is concerned with Chinese FLSEs, or frontline employees who remain at the bottom of the management pyramid but are close to customers. For example, they typically have remote contact with senior or top management, and only understand management’s values based on their own limited contact and internal marketing. Alternatively, they have more daily contact with their supervisor,
co-workers, and customers, and consistently consider their particular occupations. They might feel closer to the interpersonal and daily self-related foci, which may also differ due to employees’ different values, interests, and different exchanges with other employees. This leads to the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 3:** Employees can distinguish between multiple foci of commitment.

**Multiple commitment foci and consequences.** Multiple commitment literature notes that organisational commitment as well as other specific commitment foci, such as supervisors, can influence employees’ attitudes and behaviours (e.g., Reichers, 1985; Cohen, 2003; Redman & Snape, 2005). Further, Meyer et al.’s (2002) discussion of commitments and consequences suggests a commitment outcome model with three layers: turnover or turnover intention; on-the-job behaviours, such as attendance or OCB; and employees’ health and well-being, which includes stress-related outcomes and behaviours. The authors further argued that a majority of researchers’ attention has been paid to the relevant employer outcomes, while insufficient effort has been devoted to employees’ relevant outcomes. Our research targets FLSE groups, as customer-employee encounters involve more stress, occasionally in front of customers, and more conflicts between the organisation’s expectations and the customer’s needs. Hence, we follow Meyer et al.’s (2002) lead by considering
both sides—the service organisation and FLSEs. We then add our understanding of diverse service occupational and organisational contexts to explore the corresponding range of FLSEs’ commitment consequences in three layers: turnover intention; on-the-job behaviours, including OCB and service-oriented OCB and performance; and the employee’s well-being such as emotional exhaustion.

Based on social exchange theory, which explains the correspondence between the focus of exchange and reciprocating behaviors, some employee commitment studies have focused on the exchange between focal partners, such as the organisation and its employees, or co-workers and employees, and some types of reciprocating behaviours (McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). Hence, based on social exchange theory some commitment researchers have hypothesized that the commitments to various foci are more likely to lead to different outcomes concerning employees’ work-related attitudes and behaviours (Snape et al., 2006). For example, Cohen (1993) reported that different commitments had different consequences: job commitment acted as a major job predictor, including occupational and withdrawal intention; organisational commitment was found to be a main predictor of organisational withdrawal intention; and union commitment primarily predicted both union activity and attitudinal militancy. Generally, researchers (Becker, 1992; Becker et al., 1995) note that the association between commitment and consequences is stronger when the focus on both commitment and consequences is consistent. Chen et al.’s (2003) study in a Chinese context discovered the employee’s loyalty to their supervisor was more important than organisational commitment in
predicting role performance. Similarly, Cheng’s (2003) Taiwanese study regarding organisational and supervisory commitment notes the commitment foci and matching outcomes as a ’compatibility’ hypothesis. Therefore, consistent with such arguments, in the following sections, we develop a set of hypotheses suggesting that particular employee behaviours and outcomes will be most closely predicted by commitment to a specific beneficiary or target of the behaviour or outcome.

Employees’ intention to quit (Itq.) Commitment conceptualisation literature has perceived organisational commitment as a critical predictor of turnover, as organisational commitment indicates the emotional connection between employees and employers (Meyer & Allen, 1991). When this emotional connection becomes stronger and more positive between employees and the organisation, this decreases the possibility of turnover (Bentein et al., 2005). Although extensive research in multiple commitment literature has confirmed the negative relationship between organisational commitment and turnover, limited research has investigated to a lesser extent the relationship between other foci and turnover (Swart et al., 2011), with more consideration of multiple foci and their association with outcomes (e.g., Bentein, Stinglhamber, & Vandenberghe 2002; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003; Vandenberghe et al., 2001; 2004). Further, Vandenberghe et al.’s (2004) study further tested the relationship between several commitment foci and turnover intention, and their findings revealed that organisational commitment
directly influences the intention to leave. However, they also discovered that the commitment to a supervisor and to colleagues is indirectly associated with the intention to leave, which is partially or completely mediated by organisational commitment. Among the multiple commitment foci, commitment to the organisation was the best predictor of employee turnover. Thus, Vandenberghe (2004) argued that commitment to such foci as the supervisor and the workgroup may not have the same saliency as organisational commitment regarding the employee retaining membership in the organisation.

Turnover intention refers to the probability of the employee leaving his or her current organisation in the near future (Mobley, 1982; Mowday et al., 1982). Turnover intention appears before the employee’s physical separation from the organisation, or the occurrence of turnover behaviour, and is a strong predictor of these turnover behaviours (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). The present study chooses turnover intention—or the intention to quit (ItQ)—as a major outcome target for more implication to turnover management. We also investigate the relationship between the service frontier’s commitments and ItQ, and compare the association levels of specific commitment foci to provide more insight into the service frontier’s turnover process in a Chinese context. Generally, leaving an organisation must involve a separation between the self and the organisation for all commitment foci; thus, a negative relationship may be anticipated between the commitment foci and ItQ. Specifically regarding the foci as noted in Cheng’s (2003) ‘compatibility hypothesis’, employees’ attitudinal and behavioural outcomes could be associated with commitment to the

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mostly likely beneficial foci or target. Further, Cheng’s (2003) study explained organisational commitment as global commitment with influence only on global or organisational-level outcomes, such as job satisfaction and the intention to leave; local foci, such as the supervisor or workgroup, affects job performance and leader-related outcomes, such as employees’ organisational citizenship behaviour and its global outcomes. Hence, our related hypothesis in 4a is as follows:

_Hypothesis (4a-1): Global commitment foci, such as organisational commitment and top management commitment will be directly associated the intention to quit._

_On-the-job behaviours: job performance._ Job performance has been defined as the individual’s overall performance, task proficiency, or performance regarding specific dimensions, including indices of work quality and quantity (Meyer et al., 1989; Steers, 1977). However, job performance research has remained concerned with the conceptualisation of performance (Siders et al., 2001). This is because employees’ performance, as an index of work outcomes for organisations, typically involves multiple independent work processes (Borman, 1991), and thus, is difficult to measure using comprehensive constructs. Commitment literature notes that in most early studies of organisational commitment and performance, no significant
relationship has been reported between the two (Angle & Perry, 1981; Steers, 1977). In contrast to these insubstantial findings, some researchers focused more on commitment foci, or the constituencies to which employees feel attached, and bases, or the motives behind those attachments. Further, studies have begun to more explicitly examine the relationship between performance and the commitment to different foci, as well as the different dimensionalities of commitment. These researchers have confirmed that affective commitment, or the attitudinal dimension, is positively associated with performance (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Meyer et al., 1989). Further, Becker and Kernan (2001) found that the employee’s commitment to a supervisor was more significantly associated with job performance than their overall commitment to an organisation. However, despite the important effects of the commitment to different foci on employees’ work outcomes, current studies are still insufficient to explicitly explain the relationship between commitment and performance (Benkhoff, 1997; Gregersen, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Further, such researchers as Siders et al. (2001) have mentioned that a major reason for this insufficiency is that scarce research studies have related the multiple foci of commitment to job performance (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Siders et al., 2001).

The present study avoids the complexity in job performance conceptualisation, as mentioned in related literature. We instead choose to focus on-the-job and in-role performance, which refers to behaviours regarding activities included in a job description, and relates to formal tasks, duties and responsibilities (Williams &
Anderson, 1991). Further, this does not include prosocial or organisational citizenship behaviours. Such a choice does not mean that we tend to deny or ignore the relationship between commitment and those extra-role behaviours.

We believe that maintaining a focused view of job performance, as an important work outcome separate from extra-role behaviours—the employee’s discretionary behaviours that relate to organisational effectiveness (Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993), such as citizenship or courteous behaviours—can provide a more focused investigation of how internal and external foci influence job performance in the service frontier. We also anticipate more specific insights regarding employee commitment’s effect on in-role job performance, which is critical to meeting organisational objectives and achieving effectiveness.

Although commitment researchers have discovered a weak or non-existent relationship between performance and organisational commitment, increasing evidence indicates a stronger relationship between the supervisor and employee performance (Becker et al., 1996) and the work team (Bishop et al., 2000). Further, Vandenberghe’s (2004) three-foci study involving the organisation, supervisor, and workgroup reported that commitment to a supervisor directly and significantly influenced job performance; organisational commitment was found to indirectly influence job performance through commitment to a supervisor. This evidence may reflect the fact that the activities related to in-role performance involve more regular interaction
with proximal entities, such as the supervisor and workgroup, and related performance depends on feedback from both entities (Becker, 1996). Field theory (Lewin, 1943) suggests that psychologically proximal factors have a dominant effect on behaviors, and Becker’s (2009) study confirmed the proximity principle, providing further evidence that local foci may more strongly influence the employee’s attitude and behaviors. Hence, we hypothesize as follows:

**Hypothesis (4b-1)** Commitment to a supervisor is
directly associated with in-role performance, which is
likely to benefit the supervisor.

**Hypothesis (4c-1)** Commitment to the workgroup is
directly associated with in-role performance, which is
likely to benefit the workgroup.

**OCB and service-oriented OCB.** Twenty-one years ago, based on Barnard’s (1938) ‘willingness to cooperate’ and Katz’s (1964) and Katz and Kahn’s (1966; 1978) ‘innovative and spontaneous behaviours’, which differs from dependable role performance, Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) applied and defined (Organ, 1988, p. 4) the term ‘organisational citizenship behaviour’ (OCB) as an ‘individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation. By discretionary, it means that the behaviour is not an
enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly
specifiable terms of the person’s employment contract with the organisation;
the behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice […] and its omission is
not generally understood as punishable’.

As an attitudinal variable, Scholl (1981) and Weiner (1982) have
explored the commitment model’s effect on OCB; Scholl (1981, p. 593)
explains this commitment as ‘a stabilising force that acts to maintain
behavioural direction when expectancy/equity conditions are not met and do
not function’. Rather, when scarce expectations or rewards exist for a
performance or task, the commitment function acts as a determinant of OCB.
Weiner’s (1982) model justified commitment as a totality of the employee’s
internalised normative belief. Meyer et al.’s (2002) more recent meta-analysis
has reported the attitudinal organisational commitment as moderately and
positively correlating with general OCB. Further, the attitudinal commitment’s
effect on OCB has been supported in many theoretical and empirical research
studies (e.g., Miles, Borman, Spector, & Fox, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995;
Spector & Fox, 2002), as well as OCB-I in particular (Lee & Allen, 2002).

Regarding the partitioning and measurement of OCB, different sources
have been discussed as a part of OCB dimensions: 1) Altruism, or
discretionary helping behaviours toward specific other persons or work-related
problems in the organisation (Smith et al., 1983; Podsakoff et al., 1990). 2)
Conscientiousness, or compliance, in which discretionary behaviours progress
beyond the role’s basic requirements, such as obeying rules and regulations (Smith et al., 1983; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Van Dyne et al., 1994). 3) Sportsmanship, or the employees’ willingness to tolerate hardships with a positive attitude and without complaint (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1990). 4) Courtesy, or discretionary behaviours that help others prevent problems (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1990). 5) Participation, or such contribution behaviours as accepting more work, volunteering for other assignments, and encouraging people (Van Dyne et al., 1994). 6) Loyalty, or behaviours of allegiance to the organisation and the promotion of organisational interests (Graham, 1989; Van Dyne et al., 1994). 7) Civic virtue, or behaviours and consideration of employees concerned with organisational life (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1990).

It is noteworthy that Farh et al. (1997) developed an indigenous OCB measurement according to Chinese cultural characteristics influenced by both Confucianism and collectivism, which consist of identification, altruism, consciousness, interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources. Specifically, the authors explained that the last two negatively oriented OCB dimensions (interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources), which are not presented in Podsakoff’s (1990) scale, are attributed to certain Chinese cultural roots, such as family collectivism and harmony both emphasize and reflect Chinese culture’s nature.

It can be observed based on past empirical and theoretical work that a taxonomy exists regarding OCB behaviours. First, OCB-O benefits the organisation in general. This includes organisational loyalty (Graham, 1989; 1991), such as spreading
goodwill, protecting the organisation (George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997), and supporting the organisation’s values and goals (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; 1997), among others. Moreover, this also involves organisational compliance, which describes the employee’s internalisation within the organisation and results in the employee’s acceptance and adherence to the organisation’s rules, regulations, and procedures, even without monitoring (Williams & Anderson, 1991; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Podsakoff et al., 2000). The other taxonomy is OCB-I, or the individual initiative, in which behaviours are more task-related and progress beyond the minimum required or general expectations for task fulfilment. These behaviours more often involve creativity and innovation in the individual’s job accomplishment, the willingness to assume extra roles or responsibilities, or encouraging others without being instructed to do so (Graham, 1989; Moorman & Blakey, 1995; George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997).

Led by Farh’s (1997) Chinese OCB scale, Snape’s (2006) multiple commitment study applied Cheng’s (2003) compatibility hypothesis of commitment to investigate the association between the multiple foci of commitment—such as the commitment to a supervisor or workgroup—and organisational commitment, OCB-I, and OCB-O in a Chinese context. Partial support has been discovered, in that organisational commitment positively relates with OCB-O behaviours in protecting the company’s resources as well as conscientiousness. Further, commitment to a supervisor is positively
associated with OCB-I behaviours regarding altruism and interpersonal harmony, but no significant relationship has been found between the commitment to a workgroup and either altruism or interpersonal harmony.

Some potentially important contexts have been discussed in OCB research, such as the industry, job function and technology (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Some researchers have conceptually studied service-related OCB, which involves the direct interactions with customers. For example, Bowen et al. (1999) conceptually defined five OCB behaviours—altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, compliance and civic virtue—as a ‘service-oriented flavour’. Further, Bettencourt et al. (2001) defined service-oriented OCB behaviours as the citizenship behaviours typically performed in service encounters and directed towards customers. Forms of service-oriented OCBs include: loyalty, service delivery (or conscientious activities during the delivery of a service to customers), and participation; Payne and Webber (2006) added altruism into their service-oriented OCB measurement.

Moreover, research has highlighted the importance of contextual factors (George & Jones, 1997). Researchers further suggest that OCB should be measured consistent with how behavioural performance is measured, and specifically regarding a particular organisation and occupation (e.g., Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), as this can help prevent incongruence with the particular job’s characteristics. For example, it is of less value to ask employees in independent contributor roles if they often offer helping behaviours, as a ‘low’ score for these irrelevant OCB behaviours will mislead the overall explanation of the situation.
We would like to use this particular study to investigate the relationship between various commitment foci and OCBs to the Chinese service industry, and to the context of the FLSEs’ particular job service encounters. We follow Snape’s (2006) discussion of commitment constituencies and OCB to similarly measure both OCB-I and OCB-O and understand FLSEs’ behaviours in service organisations. Concerning the specific FLSE work context, which is a frontline job positioned at the bottom of an organisational hierarchy, we choose FLSEs’ highly related OCB measurements. Specifically, we choose conscientiousness as OCB-O, which primarily describes self-study and self-discipline behaviours in the workplace (Farh, 1997), as these behaviours directly benefit the organisation’s service process and quality. From the OCB-I perspective, we choose altruism, which primarily describes helping behaviours towards new colleagues and co-workers; these behaviours directly contribute to team performance. In the service context, and as Bettencourt’s (2001) comparison of service-oriented OCB and the foundation of prior OCB indictors (2001) indicates, substantial overlap exists between service-oriented OCB and conscientiousness, altruism, and other characteristics. Hence, this particular study focusing on FLSEs will only focus on the customer related part of of overall service-oriented OCB to not only avoid the repetition of OCB constructs, but also still consider FLSEs’ customer contact job characteristics. Specifically, this service-oriented OCB will have a customer focus only, which we will call ‘customer-oriented OCB’
in this study.

Thus, based on Ajzen’s (1989)’s the principle of compatibility and social exchange theory (McNeely & Melino, 1994), our “compatibility hypotheses” (Cheng, 2003) are as follows:

**Hypothesis (4a-2): Global commitment foci (organisational commitment and commitment to top management) will be directly associated with conscientiousness/OCB-O.**

**Hypothesis (4b-2): Commitment to a supervisor is directly associated with behaviours that likely benefit the supervisor, altruism/OCB-I, and service-oriented OCB.**

**Hypothesis (4c-2): Commitment to a workgroup is directly associated with behaviours that likely benefit the workgroup, altruism/OCB-I, and service-oriented OCB.**

**Hypothesis (4d): Commitment to customers is directly associated with service-oriented OCB.**

The supervisor-subordinate relationship in a Chinese cultural context is described as high-degree particularism (Cheng et al., 2003; Farh, Early, & Lin, 1997).
Chinese culture has emphasized collectivism, based on “in group” identity and commitment to team (group) (Hofstede, 2001), and Chinese culture appreciates responsibility to one’s in group (Hofstede, 1980, 1983, 1993). As a result, the salience of the team and group identity may be anticipated. Social exchange theory (McNeely & Meglino, 1994) suggests a correspondence between the focus of exchange and the types of reciprocating behaviors, and Ajzen’s (1989) principle of compatibility, explains that employees’ attitudinal and behavioral outcomes would be associated with commitment to the most likely beneficiary foci or targets. Hence, in this study’s Chinese context we further hypothesize:

**Hypothesis (4e): Supervisor and workgroup commitments are positively associated with OCB-O.**

**Employees’ well-being.** A substantial amount of research in commitment literature has studied the organisational outcomes of employee commitment; however, less systematic attention has been paid to the question regarding what implication is for employee when they are highly committed to an organisation. Further, only a few research studies have discussed the implications of these employee commitments for the employees themselves, or the employees’ well-being (Meyer et al., 2012). This is generally perceived as an expressed, positive psychology (Seligman & Czikszentmihalyi, 2000) more than the absence of illness. Further, the definition of well-being regarding its
model construct is more complex and not aligned across some research studies (e.g., Larson, 1999; Tetrack, 2002). These include, for example, physical well-being (Siu, 2000), general health (e.g., Bridger, Kilminster, & Slaven, 2007; Mor, Barak, Levin, Nissly, & Lane, 2006), job-related well-being (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 2005), life satisfaction (e.g., Lu, Siu, Spector, & Shi, 2009; Zickar, Gibby, & Jenny, 2004), and mental health (e.g., Grawitch, Trares, & Kohler, 2007; Probst, 2003).

Empirical commitment studies have discussed the relationship between the affective commitment dimension of TCM and employee well-being; a positive association has been supported in most related research. Scarce variances revealed no significance between affective commitment and physical or psychological strain (e.g., Jamal, 2005; Littrell, Billingsley, & Cross, 1994), and no harmful implications of affective commitment on employees’ well-being.

The research context in this study involves the service environment; FLSEs in service encounters are required to positively respond to customers as per the organisation’s expectations (Grove & Fish, 1989; Hochschild, 1983). Employees follow a script to solve customers’ problems, and the displayed rules to express acceptable attitudes (Grove & Fisk, 1989). However, these service providers do not always feel positive, and how they cope with their service actions has received substantial attention. As noted in the literature review, these frontline service workers are required to endure ‘emotional labour’ (Hochschild, 1983, p. 7), or the activities that FLSEs perform for a wage in the public sphere. These actions include vocal or facial contact with the public, producing a certain emotional state during contact with
customers, and providing the opportunity for the organisation to control their emotional activities (Hochschild, 1983). The FLSEs in this public sphere must deliberately involve their feelings in their contacts with customers, although in person they might not ‘particularly feel like being cordial and becoming a one-minute friend’ to the customer that approaches them (Albrecht & Zemke, 1985, p. 113). Hence, in the display of the emotion that FLSEs might not necessarily feel for the effective performance of emotional labour, FLSEs at risk will confront emotional stress (Wharton, 1993). Further, as FLSE boundary spanners, these frontline service employees must handle significant challenges and expectations in their various daily interpersonal interaction (Miles, 1976; Singh, Goolsby, & Rhoads, 1994). These include interactions with customers, supervisors, colleagues, or management, among others; they must also manage the pressures and tensions in performing their service role (Browning, 2008; Keller & Holland, 1975; Zimmermann, Dormann, & Dollard, 2011). Consequently, this stress and challenges could cause FLSEs’ emotional reactions, including negative behaviour in the workplace or toward customers (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002; 2006), and likely induce emotional exhaustion (Kern & Grandey, 2009), or the state of depletion and fatigue considered a major component of job burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). By its very definition, emotional exhaustion occurring in a work role may be the root of the tension in emotional dissonance and the draining of resources during strenuous acting (Hochschild,
Hence, in the present study’s service context, we wish to focus on emotional exhaustion, a primary component of job burnout, to explore the insights regarding the service frontier’s well-being, which entails a great deal of emotional labour.

Ahead of possible issues with well-being, FLSEs often have insufficient resources or the power to resolve these issues (Singh et al., 1994); further, support from a supervisor or an organisational representative can improve employees’ feelings (Frone, 2000). Alternatively, co-workers in service environments are often expected to support each other, as FLSEs deal with similar issues, and can easily sympathise with each other when they encounter difficult situations; they typically obtain direct help from co-workers in their workgroup rather than their supervisors (Kao et al., 2014). Further, Chinese culture highlights harmony and the group’s interests, reflecting traditional Confucian particularism (Cheng et al., 2003; Farh et al., 1997) and collectivism (Hui & Tan, 1996). These characteristics are imbedded in the supervisor-subordinate relationship, as well as in-group, identity-related co-worker relationships (Hofstede, 2001). Hence, the commitment to supervisors and workgroups could be more salient to Chinese FLSEs’ well-being than global commitment foci (Snape, 2006), such as those for the organisation, top management and union, which are more abstract than personal relationships. Thus, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis (4)** Local internal commitment foci, such as commitments to a supervisor and workgroup, are negatively associated with FLSEs’ emotional
exhaustion.

Interaction of multiple commitment foci. In addition to examining the independent effects of the seven employee commitment foci, we are also interested how those commitments combine to influence FLSEs’ attitudes and behaviours. Researchers generally indicate a positive relationship between the commitment foci and organisational commitment (Hunt & Morgan, 1994). Specifically, Reichers (1986) reported a positive correlation at 0.25 between organisational commitment and commitment to top management, and found no relationship between organisational commitment and external commitment foci, such as the profession or clients. Mathieu and Zajac’s (1990) research and meta-analysis reported a correlation of 0.236 between union and global organisational commitments.

Johnson et al. (2009) proposed a framework of multiple commitments, which is, two kinds of complementary interaction and one competition interaction, and explained that different commitment foci are expected to influence employees’ attitudes and behaviours in different ways. Johnson hypothesized that the various foci may interact synergistically or in a compensatory manner when they collectively affect employees’ outcomes. First, the synergistic interaction mode suggests an accumulated joint effect of multiple commitments leading towards more favourable outcomes than one commitment, and those discretionary outcomes such as work performance, citizen behaviours, strain are quite extensive, outside of the term of
commitment (related with a member of the organization) (Meyer et al. 2002). The suggestion is that two or more commitments are not simply additive, but may even be mutually reinforcing and have multiplicative effect on discretionary outcomes (Johnson et al., 2009).

Second, there is a possible compensatory interaction mode, which suggests that one form of commitment alone may be sufficient to motivate focal outcomes. This hypothesis explains that certain commitment foci are sufficient to cause certain outcomes, regardless of whether other commitment foci are high or low; thus, other commitment foci are superfluous. Johnson (2009) tested their propositions of synergistic and compensatory models, and their findings supported the synergistic relationship over the compensatory relationship between commitments for both focal and discretionary outcomes. Moreover, Swart et al.’s (2011) study supported the synergistic relationship between commitments to the organisation and supervisor.

The final interaction model proposed by Johnson (2009) is the competition model, which explains that high levels of commitment to different foci may counteract each other. This effect might increase when the commitment foci have incompatible values and interests. For example, the commitment to a client could be at the expense of organisational commitment because of these foci’s differing interests and goals; this could also occur between organisational and professional commitments, and Swart (2011) reported such a finding from a professional service firm context.

We use Johnson’s (2009) discussion of complement or competition to
investigate the interaction relationships of multiple foci in an FLSE work context. Commitment may reflect favourable social exchanges with the focal partner, and influence the attitude and behaviours that benefit the reciprocated commitment focus (McNeely & Meglino, 1994). Further, and based on the notion of cognitive distance, the more cognition that proximal individuals have, the more influence the specific commitment foci have over employee behaviours (Becker, 1999). Hence, our interaction hypotheses are as follows:

**Hypothesis 5a:** The relationship between organisational commitment and ITQ is stronger when other local commitment foci (such as supervisors, workgroups, occupation, and customer) are low, which represents a compensatory effect.

**Hypothesis 5b:** The relationship between organisational commitment and OCB-O is the strongest when other internal commitment foci (supervisors and workgroups) are high, which represents a synergistic effect.

**Hypothesis 5c:** The relationship between organisational commitment and OCB-O is not as strong when external commitments (such as
occupation and customers) are high, which represents a competition effect.

Hypothesis 5d: The relationship between commitment to a supervisor and job-related outcomes (such as in-role performance or OCB-I) and the employee’s well-being (emotional exhaustion) are the strongest when other commitment foci are high, which represents a synergistic effect.

Hypothesis 5e: The relationship between workgroup commitment and job-related outcomes (such as in-role performance or OCB-I) and the employee’s well-being (emotional exhaustion) are the strongest when other commitment foci are high, which represents a synergistic effect.

Profile of multiple commitments: a people-centred approach. As noted in the literature review, an employee’s multiple commitment foci might correlate with one another (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005). Differences in context and individual concept might cause complimentary commitments for some employees but conflicting commitments for others (Meyer et al., 2013). It is worthwhile to explore the existence of subgroups (different commitment profile groups) for three reasons.
First, this profile approach is person-centred; it respects employees’ individual differences and handles individuals holistically. This also considers individuals’ different relationship patterns between varying commitment foci and work outcomes (Meyer et al., 2013). Second, this profile approach compliments the variable-centred approach, which only focuses on the variable’s relative strength across the samples. This is helpful in accommodating various complex commitment foci (Meyer et al., 2013). Third, identifying different patterns of commitment foci has significant implications for organisations to further intervene in superior and optimal patterns of commitment foci, which will benefit the organisation’s effectiveness (Becker & Billing, 1993). Hence, this study would like to investigate whether subgroups exist in Chinese FLSE study samples with different combination of strong and weak foci. We would also like to compare the relationships between different commitment patterns and work outcomes.

Many researchers present different findings given the rising interest in identifying commitment profiles. Becker and Billing (1993) studied commitments to four foci (the organisation, top management, supervisor and workgroup) to discover and define four patterns: the uncommitted group (little commitment among all four commitment foci), the committed group (strong commitment to all four foci), the locally committed group (a higher level of commitment to the supervisor and workgroup than the organisation and top management), and the globally committed group (a high level commitment to
the organisation and top management than the supervisor and workgroup). The principle of compatibility (Ajzen, 1989; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1974; 1975) applied as in Becker and Billing (1993)’s assumption suggests that commitments when concentrating on certain foci should only relate to the attitude and behaviours that have similar foci; the locally committed group was found to have a more significant relationship with local conditions than the globally committed group. Further, Morin et al. (2011) measured affective commitment regarding seven foci (the organisation, workgroup, supervisor, customer, job, work and career), and five profiles have been reported: highly committed to all foci, weakly committed to all foci, highly committed to a supervisor and moderate to other foci, committed to career but weakly committed to other foci, and committed to the proximal work environment (the organisation, workgroup, or customers). The extent of the authors’ findings, aside from those similar to others’ works, further revealed that the ‘highly committed to a supervisor’ group had high rates of in-role performance, and the ‘highly committed to career’ group tended to ignore interpersonal relationships and have strong intentions to leave. Moreover, the ‘committed to the proximal work environment’ group had a lower score regarding OCBs and the intention to remain.

We aimed to use this study of FLSEs’ seven commitment foci to ask what specific patterns of commitment exist in the Chinese FLSE group, and explore the profile details of those commitment patterns and their different work outcomes. Although this person approach analysis (e.g., cluster analysis, latent profile analysis) session between FLSEs’ multiple commitment foci is quite exploratory, a review of
previous studies indicates that some general hypotheses can be anticipated (Morine, 2013). The results of Becker and Billing’s (1993), Swailie’s (2004), and Morine’s (2013) studies suggest four general profiles: the fully committed (the employees committed to all foci), uncommitted (employees not committed to any foci), global (employees committed to the organisation and top management), and local (employees committed to a supervisor and workgroup). Further, it is noteworthy that Morine’s (2013) unique study regarding various job holders in three service organisations (such as insurance agents, accounts, customer service, call centres, or technicians, among others) discovered the careerist, or an employee committed to their career but weakly committed to other foci. As this study also aims to research service organisations, we also consider the careerist’s profile in our profile hypotheses. Hence, we generally anticipate this profile through the following hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 6a: The fully committed (high commitment to all foci), uncommitted (weakly committed to all foci), globally committed (high commitment to the organisation and top management but weakly committed to other foci), locally committed (high commitment to the supervisor and workgroup but weakly committed to other foci), and careerist (high**
commitment to their career but weakly committed to other foci) profiles will be found to exist in a Chinese FLSE context.

Generally, higher levels of commitments indicate positive organisational outcomes, and lower levels have negative implications, such as the intention to quit and work tardiness (Becker, 1992, 1993). Hence, regarding the committed and uncommitted profiles we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 6b**: The fully committed profile will have the highest level of OCB-O and the lowest intention to quit.

**Hypothesis 6c**: The uncommitted profile will have the lowest level of OCB-O and the highest intention to quit.

Similarly, we note the compatibility principle (Cheng, 2003) to generally hypothesize other profiles’ differences as follows:

**Hypothesis 6d**: The globally committed will have a higher level of OCB-O and lower intention to quit than other profiles, but less than the levels of the committed group.

**Hypothesis 6e**: The locally committed will have the
Chapter IV - Methodology

Introduction

This chapter begins with an introduction of the sample organisations (TNT, a multinational express company; and China Unicom Dongguan Branch, a state-owned telecom organisation). We then discuss the rationale behind why we chose these companies to select a sample of FLSEs for our research. The sampling and data collection processes are described, including the preliminary interview stage to verify the salience of multiple foci in the FLSE sample population, followed by the main survey. According to these FLSEs’ perceptions of the importance of multiple foci, we then decided which foci would be used, to provide a meaningful approach. Next, we review the measurement of the independent and dependent variables, and report the methodology, criteria, and analysis processes that we use in testing the hypotheses. Overall, this study focuses on a quantitative analysis to not only test hypotheses regarding the KUT model’s validity and reliability, but also to examine the relationship between FLSEs’ commitment foci and work-related outcomes, including possible two- or three-way interactions between...
commitment foci and outcomes. Finally, the study explores the differences in commitment subgroups, if any, regarding motivation, performance and well-being.

Sample and Data Collection

**Contextual Background.** This study aims to investigate multiple commitment foci in the service environment; thus, our chosen research site was two service organizations. One is an international express company and a multinational organization, with its head office in Shanghai, China; the other is a domestic, national state-owned telecom organization. We chose these two organizations for the following three reasons: first, they are typical service organizations, and both their products and profit are primarily derived from customer-oriented service business. TNT delivers logistic services to their business clients and consumers; China Unicom offers telecom service to both business clients as well as consumers. Service is all of their business rather than just part of the products. Second, their service teams are the key to delivering the organizations' service products, and the aimed service frontline teams offer full-scope services to customers, from before sales activities (potential customer’s product inquiries taking, explaining quotation and promotion for walk-in or new customers, hot sales lead transferring to sales), to during sales service work (seasonal or premium service promotion to existing customers, premium customers preferential services offerings and delivering, order tracing), to after-sales work (all kinds of existing customer inquiries, service failure recovery follow-ups and customer complaint handling, customer issue resolution following up etc.). Third, these two organizations stand for two major business sectors in China that present China’s
economy, which are multinational businesses and state-owned businesses. State-owned businesses used to be the only form of business in China before 1978 and continuously play a significant role in China’s economy; in 2016, state-owned organizations occupied 295 positions in China in the 2016 Fortune 500 report (Xinhua.net, 2016). On the other hand, multinational business developments in the Chinese market have gone along with China’s economic reform and opening. In 1979, China National People’s Congress enacted the law of the People’s Republic of China Chinese-foreign Equity Joint Ventures; then, multinational organizations with new products, technologies, and service and management philosophies tentatively started to enter the Chinese market. As China’s economy further reformed and opened, the provision of the state council on the encouragement of foreign investment came out in 1986. Afterwards, multinational organizations entered a booming development period in China with a tax preference policy and became one of the major drivers of China’s economy.

There are two organizations where we collected sample data for this research. One is TNT express China (a multinational express company, whose headoffice in Netherland). TNT’s Chinese business has become an independently owned subsidiary company starting in 1997, when the company acquired a shared business contract from China Sinotrans. This occurred after China opened international express operations as a WTO (World Trade Organization) agreement. Overall, this multinational company’s Chinese business has over 2,500 employees in China and has 314 FLSEs and 28 direct-line leaders working in three service contact centres.
(Shanghai, Beijing, Guangzhou), starting at the end of 2015. These employees serve the company’s customers with a full scope of before-, during- and after-sales services via the telephone and the Internet in service centres.

The other service organization we collected samples from is China Unicom, one of three major state-owned telecom operators in China, which has over 130,000 employees and covers all 30 of China’s provinces. The company offers telecom, mobile and Internet services to both business clients and consumers. We chose the Dongguan City branch, one of the three biggest cities branches in south China, to investigate, as its team size is similar to the multinational express company’s team, which has nearly 2,300 employees and 268 frontline service employees. Their service FLSEs also engage in a full scope of customer contact-based services, which include before-, during- and after-sales activities.

**Data collection and research ethics.** In this research, we conducted small qualitative preliminary interviews (in both organizations), a small-scale pilot study (only in TNT), and then massive questionnaire survey (in both organizations) for final data collection. Before the study, to gain the organizations’ permission, I went to meet both companies’ service directors and the Human Resource managers to explain the research purpose and the meaning of this specific study to service management, and in the meeting, concerning confidentiality and privacy (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010), we highlighted that non individual reports will be distributed, that the primary use of data is for research analysis, and that no management access is available. After we received permission and prior understanding, we held meetings with the department
service managers and Human Resource managers to obtain the administrations’ support for independent survey rooms and for questionnaire collection box settings in regard to where to set the questionnaire-collection box and how to collect the questionnaires.

In the data collection process, for the preliminary interviews, we asked for volunteers through a public internal email box managed by the service team admin. At the beginning of the interview, a clear statement of the research purpose and the researcher’s obligation with regards to data confidentiality and privacy was given, and permission for recording was obtained before recording. For the data collection, the questionnaires were printed and ready before the survey, and a public email box began to send a survey invitation to all FLSEs and collect volunteers three days prior; in addition, the “survey invitation” explaining the survey purpose, the meaning of the research and the confidentiality of data was also posted on the public sharing board one week before the survey. Five meeting rooms in both organizations were set as the survey rooms during lunch time for two days, and the respondents were asked to drop their surveys in the collection boxes when they finish the questionnaires, we posted a notice on every collection box to explain that the box would be directly expressed to the researcher’s Shanghai office as being confidential. Both the pilot test and the formal survey followed the same procedure, but the pilot test was only initiated in TNT. After the survey, a small gift was given to the respondents through by way of lucky draw.

For the supervisor-rating survey, all the supervisors generally supported this
survey, which is because we had prior agreement and understanding with senior management, and we also informed the supervisors that the questionnaires would be directly collected by the research team and would be kept off site, and no one except for the analysis team could access the questionnaires and the survey data. Supervisory questionnaires of the FLSEs who voluntarily participated in our survey were distributed to their supervisors before noon on the same day the survey began, and we collected the supervisors’ questionnaires in person at 5:30 pm on the same day, in accordance with the agreed schedule.

**Preliminary interview.** Before distributing questionnaires, we arranged interviews with both organisations’ service manager and service unit HR managers to brief them regarding our research objectives and study approach. This allowed us to better understand the service context and management challenges in the FLSE teams. Further, preliminary interviews were conducted with FLSEs separately from two target organisations to evaluate the commitment foci proposed in the research model. We chose interviewees using the following criteria: 1. We required interviewees from different frontline teams; 2. We only select interviewees who had been with their organisation for more than one year; 3. We required a mix of gender as representative of the targeted FLSE team’s gender pattern; 4. We select interviewees by geographic offices’ based on team size (regarding the multinational express company, we chose three employees from Guangzhou, four from Shanghai, and three from Beijing; for the state-owned telecom operator’s Dongguan City branch, we randomly chose five employees); and 5. Based on these criteria, we randomly selected interviewees from
the named list of teams. Supervisor nomination or individual volunteering was not used in this study.

We followed Becker’s (1992) commitment foci salience-identifying process in this preliminary interview to discover the foci meaningful to Chinese FLSEs in the targeted service organisations. The structured interview was designed following Becker’s approach, using both open- and closed-ended questions. Examples of the questions include: 1. ‘If I followed you around on a typical day, who would I see you talking to or working with’? 2. ‘What kinds of groups exist in this company’? 3. ‘Could you name your supervisor/top managers (function director)’? 4. ‘Do you know all the people in your workgroup’?

Further, we conducted 14 preliminary on-site interviews (10 from a multinational company and 4 from a telecom organisation) with 15 appointments; one subject did not participate due to illness. At the beginning of every interview, we thanked the interviewee, and introduced the research. The interviews were taped with the participants’ permission. All interviews were conducted within 30 minutes, as an interview transcript presented in Appendix A, then we subsequently turned the interview tapes to script (an example as Appendix G). Further, we coded the participants’ key answers to every question and counted the number of appearances in the overall interviews, ultimately summarising key targets’ appearance rates to identify how participants feel: whether important, close to, or distanced from the
specific target. We then analysed the interviews in two steps. First, we transcribed the interview tapes as scripts. We then analysed individual interviews based on these script documents. The foci most frequently mentioned in the taped interview transcript was verified as meaningful. Conversely, if interviewees barely mentioned or did not know much about a particular target, we interpreted this target as not salient for this particular FLSE population.

**Back translation.** We followed a back-translation process to translate the original English version of questionnaire into Chinese version as suggested by Vallerand (1989) and Brislin (1970, 1986). In details, the process consists of three major steps: first, we recruited two professional translators to translate the original English version questionnaire into a preliminary Chinese version. Second, we evaluated the preliminary version and produced a pilot version. Specifically we had two PhD management students translate the preliminary version back into English, and then compared and analysed the similarities and differences with original English version. The evaluation process then revealed the major differences existed in the third (‘How dedicated are you to the target?’) and fourth questions (‘To what extent have you chosen to be committed to the target?’) of KUT model. As a follow-up to the process suggested by Vallerand (1989) and Brislin (1970; 1986), two discussion meetings were held to finalise the pilot version based on the maximum votes. Third, we invited participants with similar backgrounds as the targeted population, and asked them to read the questionnaire and head up items which is ‘hard to understand’ or ‘feeling uncomfortable’. The final pilot version was then completed after the revisions.
are made accordingly.

**Pilot study.** We further tested our translated version by conducting a pilot study in a multi-national express organisation. We asked for service FLSEs’ voluntary participation in a pilot run of the translated questionnaire survey, and sent invitations to 200 participants (100 male and 100 female). Ultimately, there were 152 volunteers, implying a response rate of 75%.

The questionnaire used in pilot test was the adjusted version based on the preliminary interview’s findings. The questionnaire included 55 questions overall, covering multiple commitment foci and six outcomes. Two questionnaires were created one (55 questions) for FLSEs and the other (22 questions) for their direct supervisors. The FLSEs questionnaire measured six commitment foci as well as the intention to quit, in-role performance and OCB, and emotional exhaustion, and. The questionnaire included 55 questions, and expected to be completed within 30 minutes.

FLSEs’ individual supervisors were asked to rate measures of in-role performance and OCB-related outcomes for each of their (FLSE) team members, with 22 questions for each member. As the supervisor must rate every participant in their team, the overall anticipated lead time to rate 10 FLSEs was approximately one hour.

FLSEs were invited in groups of ten to the meeting room to complete the questionnaire during their lunch break, and placed the completed questionnaires in a collection box. At the beginning, we thanked everyone’s
participation, and briefed the participants regarding the research purpose and how we would use this data, and we reminded participants to first complete the control factor information on the first page. We encouraged respondents to participate in the survey by arranging a lucky draw for all respondents, and small gifts (8G USB stick, valued in 3 dollars each) were sent out to convey our appreciation.

After pilot study and certain adjustment based on the findings of pilot test, we followed the same process of pilot test to conduct formal questionnaire survey in two organizations. In total, we collected 335 questionnaires (planed 365 participants, response rate at 91.7%), with 302 valid questionnaires (33 incomplete). Among the 302 valid questionnaires, 167 were received from the multinational express organisation (the China FSLE team) and 135 were received from the state-owned telecom operations organisation (the Dongguan Branch FSLE team). Further, 32 immediate supervisors completed a survey regarding the outcomes from the original participants’ (their team members’) work-related behaviours, such as in-role performance, conscientiousness (OCB-O) and altruism (OCB-I) and service-oriented OCB (customer focus).

Measures

Multiple commitment foci. Seven commitment foci were measured in this study—commitment to the organisation, top management, union, supervisor, workgroup, occupation, and customers—using a unidimensional and target-free KUT commitment construct; the commitment scale is reported in Klein’s (2014) assessment. Overall, respondents were asked four questions: 1. ‘How committed are
you to (your/the XX target)? 2. ‘To what extent do you care about (your/the XX target)?’ 3. ‘How dedicated are you to (your/the XX target)?’ and 4. ‘To what extent have you chosen to be committed to (your/the XX target)?’ A 7-point response scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree) was used to address potential restricted variance.

**Intention to quit (ItQ).** We take the self-reported measure of the intent to quit from Lichtenstein’s (2012) work, which was originally adapted from the work of Price and Mueller (1981). Three items exist in this measurement (Appendix B); through a reconfirmation process with the 1994 data, based on a factor analysis of 45 items regarding job-related attitudes (Alexander et al., 1998), Cronbach’s alpha for the measurement was noted in this earlier study as 0.83. All three items are measured on a seven-point continuum (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree).

**In-role performance.** We measure in-role performance based on Williams and Anderson’s (1991) six items. As this measure does not contain a performance quality-related item, we followed Becker’s (2003) suggestion and added another question regarding performance quality, which is ‘this employee consistently performs work tasks in a high-quality manner’. Hence, we measured in-role performance using seven items, as Appendix C illustrates; supervisors (direct leaders) will rate their team participants’ in-role performance and we will also measure FLSEs’ self-reporting regarding their in-role performance.
Organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB). We assessed organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) using Farh et al.’s (1997) Chinese OCB scales. Four items each measured the FLSEs’ identification with the company (e.g. their willingness to stand up and protect the company’s reputation), altruism (e.g. their willingness to help colleagues solve work-related problems), interpersonal harmony (e.g. using positions of power to pursue selfish personal gains), five items for consciousness (e.g. ‘does not mind taking on new or challenging assignments’), and three items that involve protecting company resources (e.g. ‘uses company resources to conduct personal business’).

As researchers suggest (e.g. Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), the measurement of OCB activities should consider the probability of the employee’s becoming involved in the aforementioned behaviours. Hence, rather than measuring all theoretical dimensions of OCB, this study considers FLSEs’ daily work content, selecting those likely to be significant. Similar to Snape’s (2006) study of manufacturing workers, we choose consciousness to measure OCB-O and altruism to measure OCB-I, as FLSEs might engage in and interpret these behaviours. Other such dimensions as interpersonal harmony, identification with the company and protecting company resources involve more position- and company resource-related activities that FLSEs have rare opportunities to engage in. Appendix D further lists these two OCB measurement dimensions.

We used Bettencourt’s (2001) 16-item measure of service-oriented OCB to reflect the service context. This particular study avoids full service-oriented OCB
repeating its prior OCB foundation (Bettencourt, 2001), such as through selected conscientiousness and altruism, by choosing customer-focused items rather than using a full service-oriented scale; the former involves such items as following customer service guidelines with extreme care, and the timely follow-up with customer requests and problems, among others. Therefore, these items present service-oriented OCB with a customer focus, which we simply call ‘customer-oriented OCB’ in this study. Appendix D lists the questions in detail.

**Emotional exhaustion.** We follow Deery, Iverson, and Walsh’s (2002) emotional exhaustion measurement for a call centre service team, which was originally taken from Warton’s (1993) six-item scale (Cronbach’s α = 0.87). This conveyed the respondents’ feelings of being ‘used up’ at the end of the workday (Appendix E). Examples include ‘I feel emotionally drained from work’ and ‘I feel used up at the end of the work day’ (see Appendix E). We use self-reported data from FLSEs to measure this personal feeling.

**Control variables.** As the lead of the previous commitment studies (e.g. Snape, 2005; Cheng, 2003) that focus on the Chinese population, this study chose six similar demographic attributes of FLSEs as control variables because they have been shown to be significantly associated with some or all of the outcome variables; thus, it is necessary to factor out their effects, including age, gender, education, tenure, marriage, and city of childhood residence (Hukou). The reason we added the city of the employee’s original residence to the control variables is that in the past twenty
years, China’s economic development and urbanisation have mainly focused on the Pearl river delta, Yangzi River Delta, and Beijing, Tianjin Hebei Delta, where most of China’s tier one and two cities currently can be found, as a result tier one and two cities have the biggest mobile population in China. Until now China’s government still has Hukou (household registration) to manage residences and Hukou in different areas in China restricts welfare and education applications.

Specifically, as the FLSE group is the youngest working group in the sample of organizations, their ages typically range from 20 to 35 years old. We classify this group into four categories (1 = aged 20–25; 2 = aged 26–30; 3 = aged 31–35; 4 = aged 35–40). Regarding the Chinese educational model, education is assigned using five categories (1 = high school; 2 = technical secondary school; 3 = junior college diploma; 4 = bachelor’s degree; 5 = master’s degree). Tenure range is established using four categories (1 = less than or equal to 1 year; 2 = more than 1 year, but less than or equal to 3 years; 3 = more than 3 years, but less than or equal to 5 years; 4 = more than 5 years). Gender (1 = male; 2 = female) and marital status (1 = married; 2 = unmarried) are also measured. Since both organizations’ service team locations where this study collected survey data are either tier one or tier two city, this study considers original Hukou as one of the control variables to reflect whether they are a mobile population as well as where they came from. As previously noted, in China’s urban economic demarcation 2014 annual report, we categorize Chinese cities into three layers (1 = the most developed cities; 2 = the second layer of developing cities; 3 = the third layer of developing cities). (China state council 2014 report of China city
Analysis

Our analysis of the survey data had four major phases: first, we used fit index thresholds, such as the CFA model and EFA and reliability tests, to confirm the unidimensional KUT construct’s fit to the Chinese sample data. Regarding the commitment foci’s discriminant validity, we used a confirmatory factor analysis to compare the hypothesized six-foci commitment model with a set of nested models, such as the six-foci or five-foci models, among others. Further, we used an ANOVA to examine the KUT construct’s target-free attribute. Second, we used a correlation matrix and regression analysis to test the ‘compatible hypothesis’ (Cheng, 2003) regarding multiple commitment foci’s effects on work-related outcomes (ITQ, performance, OCB, and well-being). Third, we used regression and simple slope analyses to verify the multiple commitment foci’s two- or three-way interactive relationships (compensatory, synergistic, and competitive) with the related outcomes. Fourth, we choose a cluster analysis to verify the five hypothesized subgroups in the sample of Chinese FLSEs. We used the mean score of profiles to describe their characteristics, and ANOVAs and post hoc analyses are used to label the profiles identified in the cluster analysis. We also used ANOVAs to observe the differences in profiles regarding the intention to quit, performance, OCB behaviours and well-being.

Unidimensional and target-free KUT and discriminant
commitment foci. Hypotheses 1 and 2 predict that the KUT construct is unidimensional and target-free. We initially conducted a CFA for each foci commitment, mirroring the works of Vandernberg (2012) and Byrne (2011). This also parallels the steps outlined in Klein’s (2014) assessments. Further, we used the fit-index thresholds to minimise Type 1 and Type II errors and confirm the fitness of the KUT construct: A good fit is indicated when CFI (the comparative fit index) is greater than 0.95, the SRMR (standardised root mean square residual) is less than 0.06; these all indicate an acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Muthén, 2004). Second, we examined whether the standardised factor loading exceeds 0.06, and internal consistency reliabilities are above the high reliability of 80% (Cronbach, 1951). Finally, we used an ANOVA to test target-free attribute, which is, whether within-person differences for multiple foci commitments in different contexts can be reflected in the target-free KUT construct, which is noted in Klein’s (2014) assessment of KUT.

Regarding Hypothesis 3, we used a confirmatory factor analysis to examine the commitment foci’s discriminant validity to confirm that employees can actually distinguish multiple commitment foci.

Multiple commitment foci and outcomes. Hypothesis 4 anticipates that employees' behaviours are predicted by their commitment to the beneficiaries of these behaviours. This suggests a correlation between commitment foci and outcomes. We used a regression analysis with a standardised coefficient and p-value indicator to explore the significant relationship levels between commitment foci and six outcomes.
(the intention to quit, in-role performance, OCB-I, OCB-O, service-oriented OCB, and emotional exhaustion).

The interactive effect between multiple commitment foci. We examined the interactions between multiple foci by generally following Johnson’s (2009) analysis of interactions to use a step-by-step hierarchical regression, which involves a first step to regress the covariates and main effects. We had regression analysis on the two-way interaction term and every outcome at the second step, and the three-way interaction in the third step. Finally, where significant in any interaction term and certain outcomes, a simple slope analysis was used to plot the interaction by value at one standard deviation both above and below the scale mean, we verified the hypothesis as accordingly indicated by the slope.

Profile analysis. As a complement to the variable-centred analysis, we used a person-centred approach to further analyse the interaction among multiple commitment foci in this study’s particular FLSE population and explore various subgroups and compare the employee subgroups in this study. Specially, we chose a cluster analysis to explore profile details because the cluster analysis is often perceived as the more flexible approach in literature (Tryon, 1939; Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Everitt, Landau, & Leese, 2001; Kaufman & Rousseeuw, 2005).

Next, we conducted ANOVAs with the profile membership as an independent variable, and individual foci commitments as dependent
variables, to evaluate the differences in the identified profiles. We subsequently used a post hoc analysis with a pairwise comparison to demonstrate the significant differences between the commitment foci’s mean scores within each profile to assist in labelling them.
Chapter V - Results

Introduction

We used the aforementioned methodology to present the analysis results in this chapter, based on the data collected. At the beginning, we will introduce the findings of preliminary interview and pilot test, and then the target sample and related data-collection process. We will subsequently use a majority of this section to review the results of KUT model’s validity as well as multiple foci commitment and their outcomes, and the interaction of multiple foci commitments.

Specifically, we first examined the KUT construct’s validity. We followed Klein’s (2014) work by using three steps in a construct validity test, which included convergent and discriminant validity: First, we examined whether KUT is unidimensional and reliable for various targeted foci. Second, we tested whether KUT can detect the differences among different commitment foci, which indicated its target-free advantage. Finally, we conducted correlation and confirmatory factor analyses to analyse whether FLSEs can distinguish the six foci, as we anticipated in our hypothesis. These three validation steps confirmed the KUT construct’s fit in the particular sample, which involved a Chinese context.

We subsequently conducted a regression analysis to provide a thorough analysis of the relationship between six multiple foci and outcomes, as a hypothesis based on Cheng’s (2003) ‘compatible principle’. Further, we
followed Johnson’s (2009) interaction model and the moderate effect of a multiple-foci discussion (Snape, 2006) to apply regression and slope analyses and reveal the two- and three-way interactions of the six multiple foci on the outcomes. Finally, this study’s interaction analysis further applied a cluster analysis to consider individual aspects in the holistic view of multiple foci interaction. This was used to investigate whether subgroups exist, and their differences in this sample of Chinese FLSEs. We explain the analysis and its findings in detail in the following section.

**Results of Back Translation and Questionnaire Pilot Test**

**Preliminary interview.** We followed Becker’s (1992) suggested process to identify commitment foci salience in a sample of targeted service organisations in Chinese FLSEs, and the four questions are structured.

From preliminary interviews, our three major findings can be summarised as follows:

In both service organisations, 100% service FLSEs have a clear sense of their supervisor, the organisation they work for, the team members that they work with, the job they do, and the customers who receive their services.

Although 92% of participants can correctly name the current CEO, 22% of interviewees do not know the director’s name, while 78% of interviewees can provide the director’s name. However, among the participants who could give the director’s name, 90% of the director’s names are given incorrectly, and only 7% of overall interviewees can correctly name the director. Further, none of them could note what specific strategic function their top management had previously or currently worked
on, and could not convey more about the major achievements related to such specific strategies. They could only indicate specific process and policy changes that related to the FLSEs’ daily work. Regarding the participants who knew their directors’ names, we asked further questions about how often they had opportunities to meet with top management, and how they came to know them. Most respondents recalled that they seldom received direct communication from top management, and only received e-mail announcements of structure or policy changes from their top management.

Of the interviewees, 11% had no idea about unions. Further, 33% of interviewees mentioned that they heard of unions, and 44% clearly mentioned that they noticed unions by receiving related e-mails and some holiday gifts from the union, such as Women’s Day gifts. Moreover, 11% participated in certain union activities.

Thus, the preliminary interview findings revealed that frontline service employees did not have much sense of the director level, which is a major part of top management. Specifically, they were unaware as to who their directors are and what they are trying to accomplish. This is likely due to no regular direct contact and a lack of effective top management communication (Smidts et al., 2001). Hence, we decided to take the top management foci out of the questionnaire due to its related low salience level; the resulting questionnaire will include only six foci (organisation, supervisor, co-worker, union, occupation, and customer) instead of the original seven foci.
**Pilot test.** With 152 questionnaires from pilot test, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis, as indicated through rotated matrix and eigenvalue analyses (Appendix F), the results indicated five independent factors (Table 1, eigenvalue scree plot); among these factors, four are foci-related as anticipated: the supervisor and workgroup, organisation and occupation, union, and customer. However, an EFA analysis (Table 2) also unpredictably indicated that the item ‘How dedicated are you to the target?’ was clustered into a single factor, besides the targeted commitment foci. This could occur because most participants did not have an exact understanding about the act of ‘being dedicated’, and this item is most likely interpreted as a certain attitude because of the Chinese translation. We then took the third KUT construct question back to the translation evaluation process, and noticed that the Chinese wording ‘奉献’ (‘Feng Xian’), which we used to translate ‘dedicated’, is incredibly close to the meaning for ‘devoted’ or ‘devotion’. Devotion is often used in China to describe the act of ‘sacrificing oneself to’, or ‘giving oneself to’, which is a more appropriate indicator of an attitude. After searching for multiple details in the Oxford English Dictionary, and further consulting Professor YouLan Tao, an expert in translation from China’s Fudan University, we chose another sentence to describe this behavioural pattern in the formal survey, instead of using one word: ‘How much do you dedicate time and effort?’ (‘时间和精力的付出’) The final Chinese questionnaire is displayed in Appendix H.

(Table 1, Eigenvalue table)
Among the 302 valid questionnaires, 90 (30.46%) were male; overall, 85 (28.14%) were younger than 25, and 155 (51.32%) were between ages 26–30. Regarding their years worked in the current organisation, 181 (59.93%) had been employed in the organisation for less than 3 years. Overall, 237 participants (78.47%) had an organisational tenure of less than 5 years; 117 (38.7%) had a college diploma.

### Table 2, EFA of Pilot Results

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### Data and Controls

**Sample Data.** Among the 302 valid questionnaires, 90 (30.46%) were male; overall, 85 (28.14%) were younger than 25, and 155 (51.32%) were between ages 26–30. Regarding their years worked in the current organisation, 181 (59.93%) had been employed in the organisation for less than 3 years. Overall, 237 participants (78.47%) had an organisational tenure of less than 5 years; 117 (38.7%) had a college diploma.
and 170 (56.29%) held bachelor’s degrees. Regarding location, 155 (51.32%) came from three-tier cities and were more remote; 61 (20.19%) came from two-tier cities; and 86 (28.48%) came from first-tier cities, such as Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, and Shenzhen. We have conducted further analysis according to self-rating data of FLSE’s six foci commitments, intention to quit, and emotional exhaustion, and supervisor-rating data of in-role performance and all OCB related behaviours.

**Controls.** Six controls were used in this study: gender, age, marital status, education, tenure, and residential city. The overall correlation analysis (Table 3) displays the correlations examined among controls, commitments, and outcomes. All control variables had no significant correlation with the six commitments, with two exceptions. First, tenure had a small and negative (0.190, P < 0.01) correlation with the commitment to unions, and registered residence had a small and positive (0.124, P < 0.05) correlation with the commitment to customers. Alternatively, the correlation between controls and outcomes revealed that gender, marital status, age and education seldom had a significant correlation with the outcome variables; tenure and residence (China’s Hukou registration) had certain significant correlations with some work-related behaviours and employee well-being. For example, tenure significantly related to in-role performance, OCB-O, service-oriented OCB, emotional exhaustion and registered residence (China’s Hukou registration) significantly correlated with OCB-O and service-oriented OCB-O behaviours as well as emotional exhaustion.
Table 3: Mean, Standard deviation, Correlations and Reliabilities

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>marriage</td>
<td>1.849</td>
<td>0.498</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1.074</td>
<td>0.792</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>-581**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.445</td>
<td>0.158*</td>
<td>-0.309</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>tenure</td>
<td>2.407</td>
<td>1.064</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>-0.429**</td>
<td>0.554**</td>
<td>-1.319**</td>
<td>-</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>registered/residence</td>
<td>2.215</td>
<td>0.873</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>-0.113</td>
<td>-0.087</td>
<td>-1.538**</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>OC</td>
<td>5.948</td>
<td>0.839</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>-0.124</td>
<td>-0.304</td>
<td>-0.871</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>CTS</td>
<td>6.281</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>-0.317</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
<td>-0.033</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
<td>-0.307</td>
<td>0.871**</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>CTW</td>
<td>6.189</td>
<td>0.793</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>-0.074</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>-0.098</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.812**</td>
<td>0.721**</td>
<td>0.885</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>CTU</td>
<td>5.324</td>
<td>1.251</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>-0.131</td>
<td>-0.055</td>
<td>-0.108**</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.574**</td>
<td>0.431**</td>
<td>0.314**</td>
<td>0.937</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>CTO</td>
<td>4.211</td>
<td>0.830</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>-0.078</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>-0.014</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.608**</td>
<td>0.271**</td>
<td>0.612**</td>
<td>0.509**</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>CTC</td>
<td>4.252</td>
<td>0.789</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>-0.107</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>-0.097</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>0.824**</td>
<td>0.589**</td>
<td>0.800**</td>
<td>0.565**</td>
<td>0.749**</td>
<td>0.816</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>In-role/whirlwind</td>
<td>2.371</td>
<td>0.843</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>0.388</td>
<td>0.249**</td>
<td>0.219**</td>
<td>0.249**</td>
<td>0.238**</td>
<td>0.216**</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.913</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>In-role/OC</td>
<td>5.489</td>
<td>0.977</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>-0.097</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>-1.183</td>
<td>0.893</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>5.613</td>
<td>1.003</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>-0.208**</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
<td>-0.147**</td>
<td>-0.164**</td>
<td>-0.106**</td>
<td>0.250**</td>
<td>0.206**</td>
<td>0.242**</td>
<td>0.228**</td>
<td>0.297**</td>
<td>0.274**</td>
<td>-0.174**</td>
<td>-0.552**</td>
<td>0.959</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Service-oriented OC</td>
<td>5.996</td>
<td>1.197</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>-0.034</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>0.178**</td>
<td>0.159**</td>
<td>0.167**</td>
<td>0.222**</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.706**</td>
<td>0.846**</td>
<td>-0.142**</td>
<td>-0.555**</td>
<td>0.738**</td>
<td>0.914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Emotional exhaustion</td>
<td>2.506</td>
<td>1.120</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>0.122**</td>
<td>-0.214**</td>
<td>-0.179**</td>
<td>-0.165**</td>
<td>-0.209**</td>
<td>0.105**</td>
<td>0.114**</td>
<td>-0.228**</td>
<td>0.084**</td>
<td>-0.209**</td>
<td>-0.114**</td>
<td>-0.107**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**P < 0.01
*P < 0.05

OC= organizational commitment , CTS=commitment to supervisor, CTW=commitment to workgroup, CTU=Commitment to Union, CTO=Commitment to Occupation, CTC=Commitment to customer
KUT convergent and discriminant validity.

Table 4 Summary of findings in the KUT validity analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Support or not in the study findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesis 1. The KUT model will be unidimensional; namely, a single factor model will demonstrate a good fit to the data for each commitment foci.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesis 2. KUT scores cross multiple commitment foci will differ among participants</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesis 3. Employees can distinguish between multiple foci of commitments.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergent validity. Hypothesis 1 predicted a uni-dimensional KUT measurement. We used a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for each of the six targets (the organisation, supervisor, workgroup, union, occupation and customer).

Hypothesis 1 was supported as a result of this analysis; specifically, Table 5 presents the results for each single factor model across the six targets. The fit indices demonstrate a moderate fit, in that the SRMR (standardized root mean square residual) ranged from 0.014 to 0.03 (acceptable level < 0.08), and the CFI ranged from 0.96 to 0.99. We further evaluated KUT as a single-factor model as predicted in Hypothesis 1 by examining the standardised factor loadings, EFA and internal consistency reliability. The comparison with the threshold moderately indicates unidimensionality. As noted in Table 3, most standardised factor loadings’ ratios exceed the 0.6 threshold (Brown, 2006) and range from 0.62 to 0.85, with three exceptions having a small gap. Most EFAs indicate a single-factor model, with the
variance explained exceeding the 0.7 threshold (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Podsakoff, 2011) and ranging from 0.72 to 0.87. Further, the internal consistency reliability (Cronbach, 1951) all surpass 0.8 (high reliability threshold), and range from 0.8 to 0.89. Thus, the CFA model’s fit indices reveal an EFA that can support Hypothesis 1, which states the KUT model is uni-dimensional regardless of the foci (target).

Table 5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for single-factor KUT items for each target.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fit indices</th>
<th>Component</th>
<th>organization</th>
<th>supervisor</th>
<th>workgroup</th>
<th>union</th>
<th>occupation</th>
<th>customer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.377</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How committed are you to</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you care about</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How dedicated are you</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent have you chosen to be committed to</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For individuals, within-person difference generally exists cross targets, as some individuals might have similar commitments to certain targets, and others might not even in the same organization or team. Therefore, there is a need to address whether KUT as a target free model can be sensitive to those within-person difference in commitment to those targets (Klein, 2014), which is what hypothesis 2 predicted.
In this survey, participants from two organisations were asked to report their commitment to the same pack of targets, and the ANOVA analysis was applied to examine within-person differences of commitments to those different targets in KUT scores. Table 6 presented significant differences in participants' foci commitments, which supports Hypothesis 2.

Table 6. ANOVA results for Within-person Variation in KUT scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Commitment Targets</th>
<th>Within-individual, between-target differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TNT China &amp; Union China</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>Organization, Supervisor, Workgroup, Union, Occupation, Customer</td>
<td>F(1,811)=49.896, p&lt;0.01,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discriminant validity.** Hypothesis 3 predicts that the KUT can assess employees' ability to actually differentiate multiple commitment foci. After the correlation analysis, Table 4 further assesses the multiple foci commitment independency with a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). This process involved comparing the six-factor model with a five-factor model (combining occupation and customer, or alternatively combining supervisor with workgroup), four-factor model (combining both occupation and customer, and supervisor and workgroup), and a single factor model. The rationale behind this is to progressively combine factors as different cognitive distances, from internal to external. Specifically, we combined both internal local foci (supervisor and workgroup) and external foci (occupation and
customer) in the four-factor model. Further, we tested two options in the five-factor model: five factors, with a combination of supervisor and workgroup; and a combination of external factors (occupation and customer) as one factor.

The results suggest discriminant validity among multiple foci commitments.

Clearly, the six factors (foci) are superior; thus, participants differently perceived multiple foci commitments. As noted in Hypothesis 3, the six-factor model indicates a superior fit, and the fit indices suggest a moderate fit (Table 7). An improved sequence has been presented, in that the six-factor model (CFI = 0.97; SRMR = 0.05) is a slight improvement over the five-factor model (CFI = 0.96; SRMR = 0.065). Also, the five-factor model was slightly greater than the four-factor model, the latter was greater than the single-factor model.

Thus, the six independent commitment foci—commitment to organisation, supervisor, workgroup, union, occupation and customer—support Hypothesis 3.

Table 7 Confirmatory Analysis of six commitment foci.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model fit statistics for the confirmatory factor analysis of the commitment items</th>
<th>x^2</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Change in x^2</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese sample (N=302)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence model</td>
<td>21314.1</td>
<td>276</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-factor</td>
<td>1609.73</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>19704.37**</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-factor (occu-cust combined)</td>
<td>1418.24</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>191.49**</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-factor Alternative (supv-work combined)</td>
<td>1150.1</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>268.14**</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-factor (24 items)</td>
<td>945.47</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>204.63**</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N= 302. GFI, goodness of fit index; CFI, comparative Fit index; SRMR, Standard root mean-square residual. The models are as explained in the text. Change in x^2 is relative to the preceding model in the table. * p < .05, ** p < .01.
Multiple Commitments and Consequences

Table 8. Summary of findings regard to multiple commitments’ influence to outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis 4</th>
<th>Support or not in the study findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4a. Global commitment foci, such as organisational commitment and top</td>
<td>The findings only supported Organizational commitment had significant associated with ItQ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>management commitment will be directly associated the intention to quit and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB-O.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4b. Commitment to a supervisor is directly associated with in-role</td>
<td>No support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>performance, in-role performance and altruism /OCB-I, service oriented OCB.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4c. Commitment to the workgroup is directly associated with in-role</td>
<td>The findings supported that commitment to workgroup has significant relationship with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>performance/in-role performance and altruism /OCB-I, service oriented OCB.</td>
<td>Altruism (OCBI) and service oriented OCB.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4d. Commitment to customers is directly associated with service-oriented</td>
<td>No support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4e. Commitment to supervisor and commitment to workgroup will be directly</td>
<td>Support to significant relationship between commitment to workgroup and Conscientiousness (OCB-O).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>associated with Conscientiousness (OCB-O).</td>
<td>No support to commitment to supervisor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4f. Local internal commitment foci, such as commitments to a supervisor and</td>
<td>Support to significant relationship between commitment to workgroup and emotional exhaustion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>workgroup, are negatively associated with FLSEs’ emotional exhaustion.</td>
<td>No support to commitment to supervisor.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 illustrates the regression analyses, which present the relationship between multiple foci commitments and outcomes, with the most final square greater than 0.15. This process involved applying a regression analysis to examine the significant relationships between every foci and every outcome, and comparing the relationship between all foci to one certain outcome to further identify which commitment foci has more significant influence on certain outcomes.

Specifically, the regression analysis initially revealed that the control variables had no significant relationship with the outcomes; only the registered residence
(control variable) had a significant relationship with all OCB behaviours (OCB-O, OCB-I, and service-oriented OCB). This could indicate that these participants from more remote cities tended to have more favoured OCB behaviours; specifically FLSEs from less advanced cities could be more willing to help their colleagues, and take on extra work or responsibilities to fulfil customers’ needs.

Regarding the commitment and outcomes perspective, for the intention to quit (ItQ), we discovered that not only organisational commitment but also commitment to occupation were significantly and negatively associated with ItQ, with respective scores of -0.281 (p < 0.01) and -0.238 (p < 0.01). We also discovered that regarding OCB-related behaviours, the commitment to workgroup was significantly and positively associated with all OCB-related behaviours (OCB-I = 0.177, p < 0.05; OCB-O = 0.254, p < 0.01; service-oriented OCB = 0.197, p < 0.05). Moreover, regarding emotional exhaustion, we discovered that commitments to workgroup and union had significantly negative associations with emotional exhaustion (commitment to workgroup = -0.231, p < 0.05; commitment to union = -0.162, p < 0.05). Further, no significant relationship was found between the commitment to supervisors and outcomes, and no commitment significantly related to in-role performance.

Accordingly Hypothesis 4a is partially supported since organisational commitment only has a direct association with the intention to quit, and no direct association with OCB-O.
Hypothesis 4b is clearly rejected, as the commitment to supervisor had no significant association with any outcomes. Hypothesis 4c is mostly supported, as commitment to workgroup was significantly associated with most team-related behaviours, including OCB-I and service-oriented OCB, but no significant association found with in-role performance. Hypothesis 4d is rejected outright, with no significant relationship noted between the commitment to customers and emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 4e anticipated that the commitment to supervisor and workgroup had direct influence on OCB-O in China’s relationship-oriented cultural environments. This hypothesis was partially supported, as a significant association was found to exist between the commitment to workgroup and conscientiousness/OCB-O, but no evidence was found regarding commitment to

### Table 9 Regression Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression analysis (standardized coefficients)</th>
<th>Intention to quit</th>
<th>In-role performance</th>
<th>OCBO</th>
<th>OCBI</th>
<th>Service-oriented OCB</th>
<th>Emotional exhaustion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>β</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1-controls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gender</td>
<td>-0.043</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>-0.005</td>
<td>-0.058</td>
<td>-0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>marriage</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.011</td>
<td>-0.016</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
<td>-0.036</td>
<td>0.13+</td>
<td>0.114+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenure</td>
<td>0.12+</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.135+</td>
<td>0.15**</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.13+</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.059</td>
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<td>0.189***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in R²</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2-commitment to organization</td>
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<td>workgroup</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

+ p<0.1 * p<0.05 ** p<0.01 *** p<0.001
supervisor. Moreover, Hypothesis 4f was partially supported, as we discovered that the commitment to workgroup was significantly associated with employees’ well-being, or emotional exhaustion, while no significant relationship was discovered for the commitment to supervisor. It is also noteworthy that the commitment to occupation is significantly associated with the intention to quit, and the commitment to union has significant negative association with emotional exhaustion.

**Interaction of Multiple Commitment Foci**

Table 10 Summary of Findings in the interaction analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis 5</th>
<th>Support or not in the study findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5a. The relationship between organizational commitment and ItQ (focal outcome) is stronger when other local foci commitments (supervisors, workgroups, occupation and customer) are low, which represents a compensatory effect.</td>
<td>No support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5b. The relationship between organizational commitment and OCB-O is strongest when other internal foci commitments (supervisors and workgroups) are high, which represents synergistic effect.</td>
<td>No support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5c. The relationship between organisational commitment and OCB-O is not as strong when external commitments (such as occupation and customers) are high, which represents a competition effect.</td>
<td>Partially supported. Compensatory interaction was found between commitment to occupation and commitment to customer with respect to conscientiousness (OCBO), but only significantly when commitment to customer was low.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5d. The relationship between commitment to a supervisor and job-related outcomes (such as in-role performance or OCB-I) and the employee’s well-being (emotional exhaustion) are the strongest when other commitment foci are high, which represents a synergistic effect.</td>
<td>Partially supported. Synergistic relationship was found between commitment to supervisor and organizational commitment to emotional exhaustion, but only significantly when organizational commitment was low.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5e. The relationship between workgroup commitment and job-related outcomes (such as in-role performance or OCB-I) and the employee’s well-being (emotional exhaustion) are the strongest when other commitment foci are high, which represents a synergistic effect.</td>
<td>No support.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We examined our Hypothesis 5, which relates to multiple foci interactions, by generally following Johnson’s (2009) analysis of interactions to use a step-by-step hierarchical regression. Specifically, the first step is to the covariates and main effects, Step 2 is to the two-way interaction term and every outcome, and Step 3 is to three-way interaction. Afterward, a simple slope analysis was used where significant in any interaction with respect to certain outcomes to plot the interaction by respective commitment value at one standard deviation both above and below scale mean and accordingly indicate the interaction.

As aforementioned in the literature review, Becker, Billing, Eveleth and Gilbert (1996) have provided evidence that various commitment foci could account for a unique variance in employees’ outcomes beyond the variance explained by global organisational commitment. The local foci in their research (supervisor and workgroup) were found to have a more significant influence on job performance than organisational commitment. Further, Siders’ (2001) study of commitments and performance considered the nature of sales executives’ boundary-spanning role, and commitments to the organisation and supervisor were examined as important internal commitments. The author also studied commitment to customer as an external commitment, as well as the relationship between both internal commitments, which incorporate commitments to internal organisational coalition and members (Siders, 2001). Moreover, the author’s external commitments included commitments to job-related groups outside the organisation, such as customers or the profession, among others, and job performance was examined. This study considered Siders’ (2001)
suggestion regarding internal and external foci, and Becker, Billing, Eveleth and Gilbert’s (1996) argument regarding local commitment (foci more proximal to employees than organisational commitment). These concepts were used to investigate the primary interactions of multiple foci: between organisational commitment, local foci (supervisor and workgroup), and external foci (occupation and customer) domains. Specifically, we considered different foci as independent variables to examine the interactive effects of different domain foci on six outcomes.

Organisational commitment and local/external commitment foci.

Organisational commitment and internal local commitments. We first examined the interaction between organisational commitment and internal local commitments (workgroup, supervisor). A regression analysis was used to examine the two-way and three-way interactions between organisational commitment, the commitment to supervisor and workgroup. In the simple slope analysis, we applied organisational commitment as an independent variable to examine the relationship between organisational commitment and every outcome, if either the commitment to supervisor or workgroup was low or high (two-way interaction), or both high and low (three-way interaction). Consequently, no significant interaction relationship was found between commitment to organisation, supervisor, or workgroup and the intention to quit (Itq). Thus, no finding supported the Hypothesis 5 which hypothesized compensatory relationship in between organisational commitment and other
foci commitment on the focal outcome (intention to quit).

Further, no significant interaction was found between organisational commitment and these two internal local commitments on OCB behaviours (OCB-O, OCB-I and customer-oriented OCB). Thus, no finding supported Hypothesis 5b, which anticipated that organisational commitment has a synergistic relationship with local commitment (supervisor and workgroup) on OCB-O behaviours. It is also noteworthy that one significant negative two-way interaction was discovered in the regression analysis between organisational commitment and commitment to workgroup on employees’ emotional exhaustion. However, in the further simple slope analysis no significant relationship was confirmed between organisational commitment and emotional exhaustion when commitment to workgroup was high (one standard deviation higher than the mean), or when commitment to workgroup was low (one standard deviation lower than the mean).

Organisational commitment and external commitments. We also examined the interaction between organisational commitment and external commitments (commitment to occupation and customers). Table 11 displays a regression analysis of the two-way and three-way interactions between organisational commitment and external commitments. The hierarchy regression analysis indicates a significant, negative interaction between organisational commitment and commitment to customer on the intention to quit (Itq); a significant and positive interaction between commitment to customer and occupation on Itq; and a significant, positive interaction between commitment to customer and occupation on conscientiousness/OCB-O.
However, the further simple slope analysis of these three commitment groups reveals no significant confirmed relationship for the first two groups’ impact on Itq, but demonstrated a moderate relationship between commitment to occupation (independent variable) and commitment to customer on conscientiousness (OCB-O).

Specifically, in the simple slope analysis no significant relationship (simple slope = 2.42, P = 0.74) was noted between organisational commitment and the intention to quit with high commitment to customer (one standard deviation above the mean); further, a non-significant relationship (simple slope = 3.89, P = 0.67) was noted between organisational commitment and the intention to quit with low commitment to customer (one standard deviation below the mean). Moreover, no significant relationship (simple slope = 2.64, P = 0.22) was discovered between commitment to occupation and the intention to quit with high customer commitment, and no significant relationship (simple slope = 2.49, P = 0.46) was noted between commitment to occupation and the intention to quit with low customer commitment. Hence, the anticipated competition model (Hypothesis 5c) between organisational commitment and external commitments (occupation and customers) was not supported.

Alternatively, it is noteworthy that the simple slope analysis indicated a moderate relationship between the commitment to occupation (independent variable) and commitment to customer and its impact on conscientiousness.
Specifically, a further simple slope analysis revealed a marginally significant relationship (simple slope = 3.36, \( P = 0.072 \)) between commitment to occupation and conscientiousness (OCB-O) with low commitment to customer (one standard deviation below the mean). However, no significant relationship (simple slope = 2.63, \( P = 0.227 \)) was discovered when high commitment to customer (one standard deviation above the mean). Therefore, this asserts that the relationship between commitment to occupation and conscientiousness (OCB-O) was strong with low commitment to customer (Table 13). This means when with commitment to customer together, the effect of commitment to occupation was sufficient to conscientiousness. Hence partially compensatory interaction as Johnson (2009)’s interaction model was found.

**Local commitments and non-proximal and external foci commitments.** We now further examine the interaction between local commitments (supervisor and workgroup) and non-proximal (organizational commitment and commitment to union) and external foci commitments (commitment to occupation, and to customers). This interaction analysis process also involved hierarchy regression and simple slope analyses to illustrate the significant relationship with non-proximal and with external foci for six outcomes. Alternatively, we also investigated the interaction between commitment to supervisor, commitment to workgroup, and organisational commitment. For commitment to workgroup, we did the same process to investigate the interaction relationship between commitment to workgroup and non-proximal commitments, between commitment to workgroup and external commitments, and
also between commitment to workgroup, supervisor and organization.

**Commitment to supervisor and other foci.** Our results from the hierarchy regression and slope analysis indicated that no significant relationship was found between the commitment to supervisor and other commitment foci to in-role performance and OCB behaviours, and no significant relationship was confirmed between commitment to supervisor, commitment to union, and organizational commitment). However, in the hierarchy regression analysis and further simple slope analysis between commitment to supervisor, to workgroup and organizational commitment, a two-way synergistic interaction was partially found between the commitment to supervisor and organisational commitments to emotional exhaustion. Hence, Hypothesis 5d, which predicted a synergistic interaction between the commitment to supervisors and other foci commitments to job-related outcomes and employee well-being, was marginally partially supported.

Specifically, as table 12, the regression analysis (between commitment to supervisor, organizational commitment and commitment to workgroup) indicated the significant negative two-way relationship existed (-0.216, P<0.01) between commitment to supervisor and organizational commitment on emotional exhaustion, and afterward the details of the simple slope analysis (commitment to supervisor as an independent variable) revealed a significant, negative relationship between the commitment to supervisor and emotional exhaustion (simple slope = -5.13, P = 0.0004) with low organisational
commitment (one standard deviation below the mean), and no significant relationship (simple slope = -6.5, P = 2.14) with high organisational commitment (Table 14). In another word, commitment to supervisor had significantly higher emotional exhaustion with low organisational commitment. This indicated a synergistic relationship between the commitment to supervisor and organisational commitment on emotional exhaustion. Thus, Hypothesis 5d was partially supported.

Further, this hierarchy regression analysis also revealed a significant, negative two-way interaction between commitment to supervisor and workgroup regarding in-role performance, however, no significant relationship was further confirmed in further simple slope analysis between commitment to supervisor and in-role performance, with both high commitment to workgroup (one standard deviation above the mean) and low commitment to workgroup (one standard deviation below the mean).

In another regression analysis between commitment to supervisor and non-proximal foci (organization and union), significant positive two-way relationship was found between organizational commitment and commitment to union on ItQ, and significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and commitment to union on employee wellbeing, but no any significant relationship is confirmed in further simple slope analysis. Hence, there is no significant interaction relationship was found between commitment to supervisor and non-proximal commitment foci.

We also used a regression analysis to examine the interaction between
commitment to supervisor and external foci commitments, or commitment to occupation and commitment to customer. A significant and negative two-way interaction was noted between the commitment to supervisor and occupation on intention to quit; and a significant, positive interaction was noted between the commitment to occupation and customer on intention to quit. However, the further simple slope analysis did not confirm any of them. Therefore, non-significant interaction relationship was confirmed between commitment to supervisor and external commitments.

*Commitment to workgroup and other foci.* Finally, as the same process as commitment to supervisor, we examined three sets of interaction related with commitment to workgroup, which are, between commitment to workgroup and non-proximal commitment foci (organisational commitment and commitment to union), between commitment to workgroup and external commitment foci (customer and occupation), and between commitment to workgroup, commitment to supervisor and organizational commitment. Our overall results indicated that we did not find a synergistic interaction between commitment to workgroup and other foci on job-related outcomes, Thus, no support to hypothesis 5e.

Specifically, in the hierarchy regression analysis between commitments to workgroup, organizational commitment and commitment to union, there were significant negative two-way interaction found between organizational commitment and commitment to union on InQ, and significant positive two-
way interaction found on employee’s wellbeing; a significant positive two-way relationship between commitment to workgroup and organizational commitment found on all OCB related outcomes and employees wellbeing. However, in the further simple slope analysis (commitment to workgroup as independent variable), no significant was confirmed in mentioned interaction. Hence, no interaction relationship found between commitment to workgroup and non-proximal foci.

In the regression analysis between the commitment to workgroup and external local foci commitments (occupation and customer), we discovered a significant and negative two-way interaction between commitment to workgroup and customer for in-role performance, OCB-O, OCB-I and service-oriented OCB (customer focus), and a significant and positive two-way interaction was also found between the commitment to occupation and customer for OCB-O and OCB-I. However, the simple slope analysis did not confirm any mentioned significant relationship. Hence, no interaction relationship found between commitment to workgroup and external foci,

In another hierarchy analysis between commitment to workgroup, supervisor and organizational commitment, a significant, positive two-way interaction was between the commitment to workgroup and supervisor for in-role performance, but no significant interaction relationship was confirmed among these three commitment foci as the simple slope analysis.
Table 11. Hierarchy Regression Analysis between organizational commitment, commitment to occupation and commitment to customer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression analysis (standardized coefficients)</th>
<th>Intention to quit</th>
<th>In-role performance</th>
<th>OCBO</th>
<th>OCHI</th>
<th>Service-oriented OCB</th>
<th>Emotional exhaustion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1-controls</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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<td>-0.269***</td>
<td>-0.229**</td>
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</table>

*p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.001
Table 12 Hierarchy Regression Analysis between commitment to supervisor, organizational commitment and to workgroup

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression analysis (standardized coefficients)</th>
<th>Intention to quit</th>
<th>In-role performance</th>
<th>OCBO</th>
<th>OCBI</th>
<th>Service-oriented OCB</th>
<th>Emotional exhaustion</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>β</strong></td>
<td><strong>β</strong></td>
<td><strong>β</strong></td>
<td><strong>β</strong></td>
<td><strong>β</strong></td>
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<td>-0.06</td>
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* p<0.1 ** p<0.05 *** p<0.001
Table 13 Two-way Interaction of Commitment to Occupation and Customer

Two-way Interaction of Commitment to Occupation and Customer

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<td>P</td>
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Low = Low Commitment to Customer; High = High Commitment to Customer

Table 14 Two-way Interaction of Commitment to Supervisor and Organizational Com.

Two-way interaction of commitment supervisor and organizational commitment

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<td>high</td>
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<tr>
<td>P</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Low = Low Commitment to Supervisor; High = High Commitment to Supervisor
Profile of Multiple Commitment Foci

We grouped employees into different commitment profiles based on their six commitment foci scale scores. We also used a K-means cluster analysis to identify four clusters: fully committed (all commitment foci are the highest, or higher than average), uncommitted (all commitment foci are the lowest and below average), proximally committed (all proximal commitment foci are high, including the workgroup, supervisor, customer and occupation, but other commitment foci are lower than average), moderate-low committed (all commitment foci are low, but not the lowest). We primarily labelled these clusters as dominant forms of the emerged profile, as the current profiles did not have a clear target orientation as in the work of

Table 15. Summary of findings in commitment foci profiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis 6</th>
<th>Support or not in the study findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6a. The fully committed (high commitment to all foci), uncommitted (weakly committed to all foci), globally committed (high commitment to the organisation and top management but weakly committed to other foci), locally committed (high commitment to the supervisor and workgroup but weakly committed to other foci), and careerist (high commitment to their career but weakly committed to other foci) profiles will be found to exist in a Chinese FLSE context.</td>
<td>Partially supported. Four profiles found, the committed, uncommitted, proximally-committed (high in commitment to supervisor, workgroup, occupation and customer, other in low), and moderately-low committed (all foci commitments were in low but not lower than uncommitted)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6b. The Committed profile will have the highest level of OCB-O and lowest level of intention to quit.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6c. The Uncommitted profile will have the lowest level of OCB-O and highest level of intention to quit.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6d. The globally committed will have a higher level of OCB-O and lower intention to quit than other profiles, but less than the levels of the committed group.</td>
<td>No support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6e. The locally committed will have the highest level of OCB-I, service-oriented OCB, in-role performance, and employee well-being.</td>
<td>Marginally support. proximally-committed (which include all local foci) have highest level of Service oriented OCBO.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tsoubris and Xenikou (2011). Furthermore, in the process of labelling profiles, we take Wasti’s (2005) two concerns into account for evaluating those emerging profiles, which are, theoretical interpretability and cell sizes of every profiles for generalization indication. Accordingly, the findings partially support Hypothesis 6a, which anticipated fully committed, uncommitted, locally committed (the commitment to supervisor and workgroup were high, but others were low) and globally committed clusters (commitment to organisation and top management were high, but others were low).

Specifically, and as Table 16 and 17 illustrates, the first profile group with all high-level commitment foci was labelled as ‘fully committed’ \((n = 118)\), then ‘moderate-low’ \((n = 81)\) which had low-level commitment foci, as most were lower than the average, we name it as Meyer et al.’s (2012) profile study, which found combined moderately low-levels of AC, NC and CC.

Thirdly, as Morin et al. (2011)’s findings of proximal work environment (i.e., organization, workgroup and customers), in our study “proximally committed” \((n=67)\) was named to the group whose foci commitments including foci more proximal to employees were high but other commitments to impersonal attraction such as organization and union (Snape, 2006) were low or lower than average. Fourth, the ‘uncommitted’ group \((n = 36)\) included those with the lowest commitment foci. Accordingly, Hypothesis 6a is partially supported, as the fully committed (high commitments to all foci) and uncommitted (low commitments to all foci) were found. Further, the
proximally committed profile (supervisor, workgroup, occupation and customer commitments) found include all high-level local commitment foci (supervisor and workgroup), and neither the hypothesized careerist profile, nor the hypothesized global profile, was discovered.

Table 16. Mean level of foci commitment profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Proximally</th>
<th>moderate-low</th>
<th>Fully committed</th>
<th>Uncommitted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Org</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>6.6610</td>
<td>4.6111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supv</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>5.91</td>
<td>6.84</td>
<td>5.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workgp</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>6.79</td>
<td>5.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>6.4131</td>
<td>3.8284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occu</td>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td>6.84</td>
<td>4.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>6.81</td>
<td>5.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Proximally committed profiles (high in workgroup, supervisor, customer and occupation commitment)

Fully committed (high in all foci commitments), uncommitted (low in all foci commitments)

Table 17. Profiles
After identifying the commitment foci profiles, as noted in Table 18, we conducted a series of ANOVAs and mean comparison tests between the profiles and related outcomes: the intention to quit, in-role performance, conscientiousness (OCB-O), altruism (OCB-I), service-oriented OCB and emotional exhaustion. The ANOVAs indicated that the profiles had significant differences in most outcomes, except in role performance (Table 18 and Table 19), which means that the profiles combining different commitment foci have significantly influence on most work related outcome. Further, we used Tukey’s post-hoc comparisons after ANOVA to further examine the profiles’ influence; a significant difference has been confirmed in the intention to quit, conscientiousness (OCB-O), service-oriented OCB and emotional exhaustion. Hence, Hypotheses 6b – 6e were examined. The findings reveal that Hypothesis 6b, which predicted that the highly committed profile group would have the lowest intention to quit and the highest OCB-O, and 6c, which predicted that the uncommitted profile group would have the highest intention to quit and the lowest OCB-O, are fully supported. Hypothesis 6d is not supported, as no global profile was found. Further, Hypothesis 6e which predicted the highest influence of locally committed profile to OCBI, Service oriented OCB, in-role performance and employee wellbeing is partially supported, as the proximally committed profile including local foci was found having the highest service-oriented OCB, and with fully significant difference
from other commitment foci as post-hoc analysis. However, no significant difference was observed between proximally committed profiles and other foci profiles for OCB-I and in-role performance. It is also noteworthy that we discovered the proximally committed profile has second high conscientiousness (OCB-O).

Table 18. ANOVA Analysis and Post Hoc Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profiles and Outcomes</th>
<th>Proximally(1)</th>
<th>moderate-low(2)</th>
<th>Fully committed(3)</th>
<th>uncommitted(4)</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Post Hoc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Itq</td>
<td>F(301)=11.12***</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rp</td>
<td>F(301)=0.657</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>5.46</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>5.46 n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>F(301)=8.568***</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>5.50 1,2&gt;4, 3&gt;4***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCBi</td>
<td>F(301)=2.651**</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>5.90 n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOOCB</td>
<td>F(301)=9.288***</td>
<td>5.86</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>5.81</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>5.53 1,2&gt;4, 3&gt;4***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emoexh</td>
<td>F(301)=10.557***</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.17 1,2&gt;3, 2&gt;3, 3&gt;4***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

+ p<0.1 * p<0.05 ** p<0.01 *** p<0.001

Table 19 Profiles and Outcomes
Chapter VI - Discussion and Conclusion

Based on the detailed results, this chapter provides a summary of key findings, describes the theoretical contribution and discusses the implications for practice with regard to KUT construct evaluation, the relationship between multiple commitment foci and work-related outcomes, interdependency of multiple commitment foci and commitment profiles.

Summary of Findings

The main aim of this study is to examine how multiple commitments influence frontline service employees’ work-related outcomes in the Chinese context. We applied the KUT construct as our commitment measure, examining the relationship between six foci commitments (organization, supervisor, workgroup, union, occupation and customer) of frontline service employees and six work-related behaviours, and the interactive relationships among those multiple foci commitments and outcomes. In addition, we applied a person-centred approach to explore whether distinct and meaningful commitment profiles exist. Based on the results presented in the preceding chapter, the major findings may be summarized as follows.

The KUT construct is a valid measurement in this Chinese context study. In this study, we applied KUT in Chinese service frontline teams, where the job context involves a direct service encounter. First, we examined the validity of the KUT commitment construct. The findings provide support for the validity of the KUT model, suggesting unidimensionality of the measure.
for each commitment target and target free attributes of KUT measurement, as anticipated by Klein (2012) et al’s construct definition and so replicating their initial US findings in hospital employees, which was one of major sample in Klein’s study. The model fit indices and ANOVA of within-person variation in this study provide support for hypotheses relating to the KUT model’s nomological validity including construct convergent and divergent validity, unidimensionality indicated by EFA and internal consistency reliabilities, and target sensitivity indicated by within individual between-target difference reflected in KUT score.

The six focal commitments are independent. Preliminary examination indicated that the salience of top management for frontline service employee’s daily work was limited since such employees were not able to identify top management individually and there appeared to be a lack of interaction with top management.

Hence, we examined 6 salient foci commitments for FLSEs. Despite the finding that all 6 focal commitments were significantly correlated with each other, our CFA analysis suggested that these were distinct constructs, in other words that respondents were able to see these as distinct commitments. Again, this is supportive of the Klein et al (2012)’s conceptualization.

Multiple foci commitments have different influence on work-related outcomes. This study applied the unidimensional KUT model, which defined commitment as “a volitional psychological bond reflecting dedication to and responsibility for a particular target” (Klein et al., 2012, emphasis in the original; p. 137), to examine the relationship between six foci commitments and six work related
outcomes.

Organizational commitment, commitment to workgroup and commitment to supervisor. In a nutshell, organizational commitment has not surprisingly been found to have a significant negative relationship with intention to quit. Commitment to workgroup was found to be the focus most strongly associated with local work related outcomes. Specifically, the findings suggested that commitment to workgroup was strongly associated with altruism (OCB-I), service oriented OCB (customer focus), and emotional exhaustion. This was as anticipated since these outcomes may be expected to benefit the workgroup and individual the most.

Furthermore, we found that commitment to supervisor was significantly associated with none of the work-related outcomes. One possible explanation for the failure of commitment to supervisor to predict job related outcomes in this Chinese service frontline group is that in the FLSE team work context, the immediate supervisor tends to be involved primarily in daily administration work such as adjusting different shifts of call time, giving basic job-related training for new hires, rather than exercising a leadership role. They appeared to have little input into career development, promotion or approving salary adjustments, for example. Thus, it may be that the supervisor role is primarily technical and that for most FLSE, the supervisor is more of a senior peer than a leader. In contrast, during their daily service work they are in close contact with their peers, sharing information, and providing instant
job-related help when they are on the line. It appears that fellow team members rather than supervisors or managers are the first contact when they experience job difficulties. Consistently, the findings had indicated that for these Chinese service frontline employees' job-related behaviors and wellbeing, commitment to the workgroup may be more critical.

**Occupational commitment and intention of quit.** In our study, the service frontline employees are in a non-professional occupation, so that commitment to occupation for FLSEs can be defined as commitment to “the particular line of work” (Meyer et al., 1993, P.540). The findings of this study provide additional evidence that occupational commitment is negatively related to intention to quit (Meyer at al. 1993). On the other hand, the results provided no evidence of a possible conflict between occupational and organizational attachment (Gunz & Gunz, 1994), with the findings that organizational commitment and commitment to occupation were positively correlated and both were significantly negatively associated with intention to quit. As non-professional employees, with no requirement for specific pre-entry professional training, FLSE’s post-entry experience mostly included skill-based and function oriented learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This experience occurs alongside their induction into the organization, so that it is likely these FLSEs developed their commitment to occupation and organizational commitment concurrently, founded on the same work experience during a same period of time.

**Commitment to customer and outcome.** In our study, we did not find any significant relationship between commitment to customer and work-related outcomes,
not even with service-oriented OCB (customer focus), as was hypothesized. The reason behind this unexpected finding could be that service centers FLSEs’ daily work does not actually focus on building intimacy with customers/clients, in contrast to Payne and Webber’s (2006) research on commitment and service oriented OCB in a study of hairstylists and their customers. In the current study, FLSEs’ daily objectives are to deal with incoming customer service inquiries and complaints via phone calls, emails and instant internet chatting applications, rather than in person, so that they have only limited contact with customers in most of service transactions. Interactions are typically relatively short and of a one-off nature, so that there is no opportunity to build an ongoing relationship with customers, and the service provided is of a standard type, with relatively little opportunity to provide enhanced levels of service. Under these circumstances, and unlike the case of hairdressers, commitment to customer may fail to influence service oriented OCB (customer focus).

Commitment and emotional exhaustion. The FLSE role has been seen as not only a service encounter but also emotional labor (Wharton, 1993). In this study, emotional exhaustion has been tested as a possible work-context related and employee-oriented outcome of commitment. This has been suggested by Meyer (2003), although it has not been tested in most of the prior literature. This study found a significant negative relationship between commitment to workgroup and emotional exhaustion, and also between
commitment to union and emotional exhaustion. In the service environment, co-workers in workgroup are often expected to support each other. FLSEs are dealing with similar issues, and they may find it easy to sympathize with each other when they encounter difficulties, and they usually get direct help from co-workers in the workgroup rather than from their supervisors (Kao et al., 2014). This may explain why commitment to workgroup, rather than commitment to supervisor, was significantly related to emotional exhaustion.

The association between union commitment and emotional exhaustion was not hypothesized, but this may reflect the dual roles of PRC unions in the Chinese context. Chinese unions institutionally represent both workers’ interests and the interests of management or the enterprise as a whole (Snape et al., 2006), by enhancing productivity and minimizing industrial conflict (Chan, 2000; Ding et al., 2002; Frankel & Peetz, 1998; Ng & Warner, 1998), and creating harmony between workforce and management. In this study, in both service organizations, the preliminary research interviews suggested that most FLSEs got to know about the union through the receipt of holiday gifts or various welfare activities sponsored by union, rather than being involved in formal meetings or discussion of conflict-related issues. Thus, the welfare and harmony-related activities sponsored by the union could foster the influence of commitment to union to stress-related emotional exhaustion. Last but not least, to our knowledge, previous literature has paid little or no attention to the relationship between union commitment and employee’s wellbeing. This study is therefore significant in examining this issue.
**Interaction effects of multiple foci commitment.** In this study, we examined the interactive effects of multiple commitments’ effect in predicting outcomes, focusing on one-, two- and three-way interactions among the six focal commitments.

First, we tested Johnson’s (2009) notion of interactive effects, findings support for a synergistic relationship between commitments with respect to outcomes, a compensatory-like relationship found but between commitments with respect to discretionary outcomes instead of focal outcomes. Furthermore, there was no evidence of a competitive relationship, suggesting that multiple-foci commitment is not necessarily a zero-sum game (Snape, 2006), which means the effect of one focal commitment does not have to come at the cost of another. In this study, the modest positive correlation among foci commitment and the lack of competing effects suggested that external foci were not necessarily acting in conflict with organizational commitment even though the interests and values of different foci could vary.

Second, specifically for FLSEs there were two significant two-way interactions between commitment foci. One was a partial two-way interaction between commitment to supervisor and organizational commitment for employee’s emotional exhaustion. Specifically, the effect of commitment to supervisor to emotional exhaustion is less stronger when organizational commitment is low, with no significant when organizational commitment is high, which is partially aligned with synergistic interaction proposed by
Johnson et al. (2009). The second significant interaction was a similar compensatory two-way interaction between commitment to occupation and customer for conscientiousness (OCBO). Specifically, there was a marginally significant (0.0729) positive relationship between commitment to occupation and conscientiousness (OCBO) when commitment to customer was low, and no significant when commitment to customer was high. It is worthwhile to note that these two two-way relationships partially respectively support the synergistic interaction and the compensatory interactions of Johnson (2009)’s model, which propositions that the synergistic interaction indicates the higher influence to certain outcome when commitment foci are together, and the compensatory interaction reflects a kind of ‘sufficiency hypothesis’ with one form of commitment sufficient to produce an certain focal outcome (such as ItQ), and the other form of commitment has a more or less superfluous influence on this outcome. However those two-way interaction findings did not found related with any focal outcome such Itq as Johnson’s compensatory interaction proposition (2009), all related outcomes were discretionary outcomes such as OCBO behaviors and emotional exhaustion.

In summary, even though this study did not support exactly Johnson’s (2009) three interaction model proposition, we has extended Johnson’s interaction relationship test to multiple foci as Johnson suggested (2009). The similar synergistic interaction relationship found between commitment to supervisor and organizational commitment to emotional exhaustion, and the similar compensatory interaction found between commitment to occupation and customer to OCBO provide evidences to the
synergistic and compensatory relationship of multiple commitments proposed in Johnson’s model, and explore that interaction pattern such as compensatory interaction can exist between multiple commitments and discretionary outcomes instead of between multiple commitments and focal outcome (ItQ). Also this study has no support to Johnson’s proposition regard to competition interaction.

**Commitment profile.** One of the objectives of this study is to apply a people-centred approach to further investigate whether subgroups exist in samples with difference in multiple foci commitment and outcomes, using the KUT conceptualization. In this study, we found strong evidence supporting Becker and Billings (1993)’ findings regard to profiles. Specifically, our cluster analysis revealed the following profiles: “fully committed”, who had high-level commitment to all foci, “uncommitted”, who had low-level commitment to all foci, and “Proximally committed” with higher-level commitment to those foci (supervisor, workgroup, occupation and customer) that FLSE work with closely, which we named as Beckers (2009)’ concept of psychological distance and as Morin et al. (2011)’s findings of proximal work environment (i.e., organization, workgroup and customers). Contrary to our hypotheses, we did not find a “global profile”, nor a “careerist” profile. However, we did find another moderate-low profile, with moderately low-level commitments (but not the lowest) to all foci. This latter profile was unexpected, as Meyer et al.’s (2012) profile study, which found combined
moderately low-levels of AC, NC and CC, we named this profile as moderately-low.

As regards the association between profile membership and outcomes, there was no significant association between profile membership and wither in-role performance or OCBI, it is noteworthy that the locally committed subgroup was associated with the highest levels of service-oriented OCB and the low-moderate commitment subgroup had quite low-level emotional exhaustion. In the service context, it is plausible to expect the group of FLSE who have relatively high levels of commitment to supervisor, workgroup, occupation and customer would care more about the service quality and be more willing to serve customers. In this study, nearly eighty percent of participants were below 30, so that the low-moderate commitment subgroup could be “just so so” group, who do not show much commitment nor take their obligations so seriously, such that their stress levels are relatively low.

Implications for Theory

In this study, as Klein’s future research call (Klein, 2014) regard to verifying generalizability in different language and culture context, for various work context and related different commitment targets, and seeking the possible unique variance of KUT model for different work position, and utilizing KUT model to facilitate the study of interdependence of multiple commitment foci, we sought to make several contributions to the literature of employee commitments from four perspectives: KUT generalizability and construct validity in China service work context, multiple foci commitment independence and consequences, the joint or interactive effects of multiple foci commitments, and evaluating the existence and consequences of multi-
foci commitment profiles.

**Contribution to KUT construct theory.** First of all, even though Klein (2014) has had a start in assessing the KUT model, there is still a need for further evaluation, and in particular to evaluate multiple commitments in different contexts across different targets, and to see whether KUT can be appropriately translated to other language. The findings presented in this study provide additional support to the single-dimensional and target-free KUT construct, supporting its validity in an additional cultural and work context: Chinese culture and the service encounter work context. The results concerning measurement model fit indices and the evidence of within-person variation in this study support the KUT model’s nomological validity and target sensitivity. These findings in Chinese context not only demonstrate that the KUT model can be validly translated into Chinese, but also generalize beyond the primarily Western samples and service (e.g., hospital) work contexts. This study echoes some of the future research calls of Klein, with regard to the need for studies in additional work contexts, in different languages, and to demonstrate cross-culture invariance (Klein et al., 2014).

Secondly, as Klein (2014)’s suggests, the application of the KUT model in this study helps to evaluate the operation of KUT with respect to wider set of outcomes, including proximal (Itq, OCB) and distal (performance and wellbeing) commitment outcomes. Hence, the findings on the relationship between six commitments and six outcomes not only provide additional
support for the generalizability of the single dimensional KUT model across both
cultural and work contexts, but also offer more evidence on the KUT measures’
predictive validity with some key differences and identified across the six targets.

Last but not least, the analysis of interactions between multiple commitments
examines the interdependencies among multiple commitments, again something that
Klein(2014) identified as a key research need.

**Multiple commitments and consequences.** As previous researches (e.g.,
Becker & Billings, 1993; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Vandenberghe, Bentein, &
Stinglhamber, 2004), the variable-center approach was taken to focus on correlations
of multiple commitment foci, independency and interdependency of multiple
commitment foci, and effects on behaviors.

Generally, in this study, the findings that frontline service employees (FLSE)
can distinguish multiple foci commitments in their customer-encounter job provides
additional support for the independence of multiple foci commitments, and the
findings on the relationships between multiple commitments and their consequences
such as organizational commitment and ITO or the strong relationship between
commitment to workgroup and work related behaviors etc. not only represents that the
relationships between FLSE’s multiple commitment and work related outcomes vary
on the different outcomes, but also provides strong evidence for the “compatibility
principle” (Cheng, 2003). Furthermore, the findings regard to the stronger influence
of FLSEs’ commitment to workgroup to work related behaviors provides evidences
that stronger relationship between commitment and outcome appears where the target
focus of the commitment is consistent with that of the outcome (Becker, 1992; Becker et al., 1995), which is consistent with the notion that we are seeing target-specific social exchanges here (McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Bennett & Liden, 1996). Moreover, as Klein’s (2014) suggestions that in order to verifying the generalizability of KUT model and identifying key differences possibly unique in different target or work context future research could do more in verifying the different commitment foci’s influence for different type of positions or work contexts, this study brings extra evidences for not only confirming generalizability but also addressing differences of six commitments foci’s influence on six work related outcomes for frontline service employees in China service organizations.

**Occupation and outcomes perspective.** The finding of significant negative relationship between occupational commitment and intention to quit offers additional evidence in support of the proposition that occupational commitment is associated with the organizational turnover decision-making process (Lee, Carswell and Allen, 2000). In this study, the relationship between commitment to occupation and six work related outcomes including intent to quit have been examined and the relationship between occupational commitment and organizational commitment has also been investigated. This study shed light on an area where little attention has been paid in occupational commitment research (Lee et al., 2000), which is, the association between occupational commitment and organizational commitment for non-
professional employees. The findings of this study suggest that for FLSE except for organizational commitment, commitment to occupation had the strongest influence on intention to quit. Furthermore, this study extended the examination of occupational commitment to the relationship with employee wellbeing, where there has been little research to date (Lee et al., 2000), although no significant relationship was found.

**Interaction between multiple commitments.** The findings of this study provide additional evidence on the interactive effects multiple commitments. In general, we did not exactly find full support to Johnson (2009)’s interaction model proposition. First, for compensatory model, which is proposed by Johnson et al. (2009) only for the relationship between multiple commitments and focal outcome such as ITO, in this study we only found compensatory interaction exist between commitments foci and certain discretionary outcomes. Specifically, when with commitment to customer, commitment to occupation was sufficient in predicting conscientiousness (OCBO). Hence, the findings provide some evidence to support compensatory interaction pattern but challenge to the original proposition that compensatory pattern exit only between commitment and focal outcomes.

Second, there is still uncertainty in the literature as to whether commitments to different foci are complementary, or are in competition with one another (Swart et al., 2011). Our findings provide some evidence on this question. The two-way relationships found between commitment to supervisor and organizational commitment with respect to emotional exhaustion suggests that synergistic relationship exist. On the other hand, we found no evidence of any competitive
interactions, which provided support for the proposition that focal commitments operate as a non-zero sum game such that individual focal commitments do not necessarily come at the expense of one another (Snape, 2006).

Commitment profiles. In this study, we extended research on the KUT model by incorporating a profile analysis, examining how multiple foci commitment work together to influence outcomes. This analysis takes an individual or person-centred perspective that goes beyond the examination of interaction effects, investigating whether subgroup patterns exist. In general, KUT model application in this study’s profile analysis provides a trial of new theory, which is a unidimensional model, in combination of FLSE’s commitments to multiple foci as Meyer et al.’s (2013) expectation on future research of person-center analysis, and the profile analysis of this study extends the test to wider variety of work target of commitments instead of dual commitments as most to-date literature focus (Meyer et al., 2013). The detailed theoretical contributions are as follows.

First, four distinct commitment profiles were found to exist: committed, proximally committed, moderately low-level committed and uncommitted. These findings correspond to some degree with Becker and Billing’s (1993) profiles of commitment and with Meyer, Stanley and Parfyonova (2012). Consistent with previous literature (e.g., Morine et al., 2011; Vermunt & Magidson, 2002), these found profiles reflect both
qualitative and quantitative differences of related subgroups in commitments. The emergence of a clear proximally-committed profile (relatively high on commitments to foci which are proximal to frontline employees’ daily work such as supervisor, workgroup, occupation and customer) and moderately-low subgroup (“just so so” group) in this study reflects the characteristics of young employees subgroups in frontline service job context.

Second, this analysis demonstrates the generalizability of the people-centred approach proposed by Meyer, Stanley and Vandenberg (2013) to the front-line service work setting. This findings regard to profiles in this study indicate that within the particular sample of FLSEs different subgroups exist with different patterns of commitments and work related outcomes, and provides good reason to believe these subgroups have different tendencies of work behaviors. It might be too early to note that those specific subgroups found in this study will be identifiable in future studies, but the uncommitted and committed profiles found indicate some consistency with previous literatures (Carson et al., 1999; Somers & Birnbaum, 2000; Becker & Billings, 1993; Swailes, 2004).

Third, this study followed previous researchers (e.g., Meyer et al., 2012) in trying to understand the relationship between commitment profiles and employee work related behaviors and wellbeing in customer-encounter job, which is full of pressure in dealing with customers’ issues and complaints. In detail, the relationship between profiles and in-role performance was not confirmed and all profiles (fully committed, proximally-committed, moderately low-level committed) had quite low
emotional exhaustion, with significant difference in intention to quit, OCBO and service oriented OCB (customer focus). As other researches such as Carson et al. (1999), and Somers and Birnbaum (2000), in this study the subgroups were compared on the scores of work related outcomes, which had significant relationship with profiles, we found proximally committed profile has highest score in service oriented OCB (customer focus), and moderately-low committed profile has lower score in emotional exhaustion than the proximally-committed profile and uncommitted profile for this particular Chinese FLSE sample.

**Implications for Practice**

This study has sought answers to a critical question fundamentally from Chinese service organizations who are facing high attrition rates and a lack of effective understanding of the mechanism of building the commitment of service frontline teams consisting of a young generation, which is how multiple commitments influence frontline service employees’ work-related outcomes. With various findings, this study did bring a few suggestions to practitioners, such as the following:

Firstly, in essence, KUT model stands the heart of commitment with clear boundary definition differentiated from other types of bonds and offers the greater applicability of commitment measurement in full span of workplace targets (Klein, 2014). In this study, we applied KUT model in Chinese service context to assess commitment to multiple FLSE’s salient targets and study the influence of FLSE’s workplace commitment to work
related outcomes. The short-form measurement—only four items for KUT versus the 18 items for TCM or the 15 items for OCQ, is again shown to have validity and reliability across multiple targets. This short measure reduces the survey time for participants and may make it easier for researchers to get management support for studies on multiple commitments.

Furthermore, the operation of KUT model in this study indicated that this new unidimensional and target-free measure is easily adapted to any targets, which enables management to directly compare multiple employee’s commitments across targets and so better understand workplace commitments from a systematical perspective.

Second, the findings of multiple commitments and outcomes in this study indicate the direction that practitioners should take into consideration when fostering multiple commitments in organization. Specifically, the finding that multiple foci commitments recognized separately by employees have different influences on employee’s attitudes and behaviours as a whole in this study strongly suggest that management must be aware that an employee’s commitment is more than an organizational commitment. Furthermore, for the remaining-in-organizational indication outcome (Itq), our findings suggest not only organizational commitment mattered but also occupational commitment did have significant influences. Therefore, in the business world, we feel confident in suggesting that to retain talent, service organizations should consider paying attention to both commitment to occupation and organizational commitment. Specifically, management is recommended to offer more trainings and coaches for FLSE skill-based development
and to leverage more internal marketing for the value of being part of the organization
and of the meaningful contribution of a service frontline job to organization.

Moreover, management is encouraged to work with human resource specialists to set
multiple career growth paths for service frontline employees to pursue their own
career development within the service organization, which means, with the exception
of career growth as a leadership hierarchy structure, service frontline employees can
be promoted to other cross functional positions, such as sales or operational positions.

In addition, in the outcome perspective, for emotional exhaustion, which is the FLSE
job context-related wellbeing outcome, it is notable that not only commitment to
workgroup matters but also commitment to union. Commitment to union in China has
special multiple ID presence, combining the employee-care function of employers and
governments. Furthermore, it is worthwhile to notice that the influence of multiple
commitments were not confirmed with in-role performance, which can lead
management to clearly pursue their desired outcome with more clear expectations;
commitment-building efforts might not be the first choice to improve current
individual or team performance but might bring more opportunities to improve
employees’ work-related citizenship behaviours and employee’s wellbeing. Last but
not least, the findings related to the relationship between commitment to workgroup
and work-related outcomes in this study have highlighted the salience of commitment
to workgroup in the FLSE group and have shed the light for managements to consider
fostering commitment to workgroup for organizational favourable behaviours. Hence,
in order to improve overall service frontline’s work-related behaviours that benefit the
team, individuals and customers (OCBO, OCBI and SOCBO), we suggest that service organizations should spend more effort on commitment building to workgroups, especially for those young service frontline teams. Specifically, service organizations should encourage/educate managers and supervisors to pay more attention to teamwork building, to improve management’s awareness of the workgroup commitment’s importance and to ensure more effort and resources, such as more team building activities, offering more opportunities for learning/sharing from each other and giving more challenging tasks for team base and more recognition to teamwork and team performance for better commitment to workgroup.

Third, in this study, we also examine the interaction of six multiple foci to tall six outcomes, especially we focus the interaction of global foci (organizational commitment), internal and local foci (supervisor and workgroup) and external foci (occupational and customer). Overall findings suggested that management should not fear of multiple foci commitment, none of any multiple foci come with other foci commitment at expense, which is consistently aligned with the finding of Snape’s multiple foci analysis (2006). Our findings of three two-way interaction suggested management that distant (organizational and union) commitments might have intervened with proximal (internal-locally) commitment, and external commitments might intervene with each other.

Fourth, the findings of four profiles (fully committed, uncommitted, moderately-low committed and locally committed) presented the existence of four subgroups with similar foci commitments. The findings of profiles helped to describe
the subgroups and patterns of commitment in the FLSEs’ team for management. Specifically, it is clear for FLSE team that no pattern of global foci who only have highest organizational commitment and careerist profile who only have highest commitment to occupation exist, and no significant connection between different any subgroups and two outcomes such as in-role performance and Altruism (OCBI). Furthermore, proximally committed group in this FLSE’s samples has the most preferable on service oriented OCB (customer focus), and second-high preferable on the conscientiousness (OCBO) after the fully committed profile group. Even though these findings of relationship between profiles and outcomes in this study should not be considered universal (Becker & Billings, 1993), since the work context and organizational employees and management background are never the same, the findings of profiles show the evidence that the study of commitment could be more compatible to management tendencies of understanding and thinking of individual people based on the categories of people (Zyphur, 2009), and show the light for management that is should be plausible to consider some initiatives of change to develop a certain commitment profiles in order to foster more preferable behaviors, in this particular case, we will suggested related management to focus on developing proximally-commitment profiles (not only focus on commitment to workgroup, but also pay attention to other proximal foci such as supervisor, occupation and customers) for reducing team’s intention to leave and emotional exhaustion level, and sponsoring more
conscientiousness (OCBO) and Service oriented OCB behaviors.

Last but not least, In China people are more loyal to individual than systems (Redding, 1990). In earlier time, Chinese studies explored evidence of association between commitment to supervisor on OCB and in-role performance, but not much effort on the investigation of effect for commitment to commitment to workgroup (Chen et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2003). In this Chinese work-context study, as Chinese culture emphasis and Cheng’s compatible hypothesis (2003), we hypothesized that person-based commitments, that is, commitment to supervisor and commitment to workgroup, would be more important, which not only would have stronger relationship with behaviors beneficiary to supervisor or workgroup, but also to with organizationally-focused citizenship behaviors. In the results of this study, even though we no found significant effect of commitment to supervisor to any outcomes, the findings supported our hypothesis regard to the significantly positive relationship between commitment to workgroup and both work group related behaviors and organizationally-focused behaviors, which showed evidence to the China relationship oriented culture (Cheng et al., 2003; Farh et al., 1997), and the emphasizes of “in-group” identity and commitment to group member in China collectivist culture (Hofstede, 2001). One possible explanation for the failure of commitment to supervisor to predict job related outcomes in this Chinese service frontline group is that in the FLSE team work context, their immediate team leader (we called supervisor in the survey) are taking more daily administration work such as adjusting different shift of call time, giving new hired training and coach, handling escalation
rather than exercising leadership role such as career coach, promotion, giving
salary raise and approving annual leave. Thus, for most of FLSE, their
immediate team leader is more like part of senior peers instead of a leader. On
the other hand, during daily service work in the workgroup consisting with
team members (closest co-workers), FLSEs usually share and receive the most
useful information, instant quick help via instant communication application
when they are on the line, team member is the first contact they would be
approaching when they meet some difficulties instead of their supervisors or
managers. Consistently the findings had led us believe that for Chinese service
frontline employees’ better job related behaviors and wellbeing in
organization, the commitment to workgroup could be very critical.

**Limitations**

While the study makes both theoretical and practical contributions,
there are some limitations and some areas for improvement in future research.
First, there are limitations in terms of generalizability. We assessed the validity
of the KUT model only for customer-encounter service frontline employees in
Chinese (mainland) service organization context, and this study was based on
service frontline employee’s working boundary’s six focal commitments and
six work related outcomes. Although we have made significant progress in this
regard, there is still a need to evaluate KUT’s generalizability to other types of
service context, such as tele-sales, sales, technical support etc.

In assessing the generalizability of the KUT model to the Chinese
cultural context, the current study examined Chinese workers only. Future studies may provide a more complete test of cultural hypotheses using comparative samples, from Chinese and western cultures, perhaps also theorizing and assessing the role of culture or values-related constructs such as those of Wasti and Can (2008) and Snape et al. (2006).

Second, in this study, concerning the influence of multiple commitments to work-related outcomes, we made no attempt to directly compare the KUT model and the measures with other conceptualizations of commitment. In future research, as Klein et al. (2014) have done in the western context, the four items of KUT can be compared with other measures of commitment in the Chinese context, such as the 18-item TCM scales and the 15-item OCQ to examine the inheritance and brevity of KUT in different work or cultural contexts.

Third, there may be limitations arising from the measurement of constructs. We used employee self-reported data for intention to quit along with their commitments. This may result in “halo effects” from the common method bias point of view. Moreover, in our study, even though both self-reported data such as the KUT commitment measurement and independent supervisor ratings such as in-role performance and OCB behaviours were used, future studies should consider using additional independent data (e.g., peer or customer) ratings. Furthermore, we asked immediate team leaders, who are closer to FLSEs than any other managers, to report on work-related outcomes such as in-role performance in the role as work supervisor foci. The findings did not show any influence of the supervisor’s commitment to
work-related outcomes. This result may be because the team leaders in these organizations mostly focus on administrative tasks and basic support rather than on a full leadership role. Future studies might therefore assess the role of different manager levels.

Fourth, in assessing the joint or interactive effects of focal commitments, this study, with both a variable-centred and a people-centred approach, adopted a cross-sectional design with data collected at a single point in time, which might make the discussion of causality difficult. In the future, as Meyer et al. (2013) suggest, it would be worthwhile to design longitudinal studies to investigate the change in patterns of commitments and profile membership over time. Adding this longitudinal perspective to the person-centred approach may help us better understand the impact of organizational change initiatives. It would also be interesting to apply a similar investigation to various occupational groups and work contexts. Moreover, a longitudinal survey design is expected to investigate the dynamic change in commitment before and after certain major initiatives, such as when major strategy changes or culture change initiatives are intervened or when there is a change in the organizations’ acquisitions.

Finally, in our assessment of commitment profiles, we applied a cluster analysis to identify subgroups consisting of individuals having similar values on the selected variable. In the future, it might be worthwhile to attempt the operation of latent profile analysis, a model-based technique with the same basic objective as a cluster analysis but with more strength in the following three ways: allowing for the
comparison of controls or other parameters within/between group variance (Pastor et al., 2007); strict statistical criteria such as bootstrapped likelihood ratio tests (Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthen, 2007) to select subgroup members; allowing for comparison of profiles’ not only consequences but also other variables such as antecedents, correlation, etc. (Muthén, 2002; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009).

**Conclusion**

Overall this study sought to address a critical question of how multiple commitments influence frontline service employees’ work related outcomes in a Chinese service organization context. The study applied the KUT model as commitment construct to examine the relationship between multiple commitments and related outcomes, and the generalizability and validity of KUT have been supported in this particular study of China service frontline context.

Meanwhile the study demonstrated the synergistic and compensatory interaction of multiple foci and joint effect with respect to certain outcomes (discretionary outcomes) by testing Johnson (2009)’s interaction model in multiple foci perspective with a new commitment construct (KUT). Moreover, the patterns of multiple commitments have been found in different subgroup show the support to that individual difference should be taken accounted into interactive effect of multiple foci commitment, and qualitative and quantitative difference of subgroups make the study of commitment compatible for management practical application.

Last but not least, this study is important because it validated the KUT model in the Chinese context, specifically into Chinese service frontline work context, and
extended the operation of KUT in the interdependency analysis of multiple commitment foci (variable-centred and person-centred approach) for a particular customer-encounter service job position, which is frontline service job. In future, we urge scholars to continue the examination of multiple foci commitment in different working contexts and to take a longitudinal approach to further understanding the antecedent role of multiple commitments to some critical behaviours for service organizations.
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Appendix A

Preliminary Interview Transcript

Hi, thank you for coming to this interview. This interview is a preliminary interview for doctoral research regarding frontline service employees’ commitment. In this research, we would like to explore how the multiple commitment foci influence employees’ work attitudes and behaviours, which can help our organisations realise where to make more efforts in improving employees’ commitment so as to optimise the organisation’s effectiveness. Today’s interview is preliminary, to ask your view of the work foci around your daily occupation, which can help us identify the real work around FLSEs. We will collect all feedback from every participant, and use it to adjustment forthcoming questionnaires. Any questions so far? Shall we begin now?

1. If I followed you around during a typical day, who would I see you talking to or working with?

2. What kinds of groups exist in this company?

3. Do you know of the union? What do you know about it?

4. Could you name top managers (function directors)? How do you know them?

5. Could you name a supervisor?

6. Do you know all of the people in your workgroup?

Okay, that is all of my questions, and I thank you for your time today. The interview should finish within 30 minutes.
Appendix B

The Intention to Quit (ItQ)

It is a 7-point response scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree), and three questions refer to Lichtenstein’s (2012) paper.

(Thinking about your own situation, to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements)

1. I am likely to leave this job in the next year or so.
2. I frequently think of quitting this job.
3. I will probably look for a new job in the coming year.
Appendix C

In-role Performance (Supervisor Rating)

Based on Williams and Anderson’s (1991) six items, and Becker’s (2003) suggestions regarding additional performance quality, the 7-point response scale includes: Not at All, Slightly, Somewhat, Moderately, Mostly, and Very Completely.

1. Adequately completes assigned duties.

2. Meets the job’s formal performance requirements.

3. Neglects aspects of the job he or she is obligated to perform (reverse-scored).

4. Fulfils responsibilities specified in the job description.

5. Engages in activities that can positively affect his or her performance evaluation.

6. Performs tasks that are expected of him or her.

7. Consistently performs work tasks in a high quality manner (new).
Appendix D

OCB (Supervisor Rating)

Based on Farh et al.'s (1997) Chinese OCB scale, the 7-point response scale includes:

Not at All, Slightly, Somewhat, Moderately, Mostly, and Very Completely.

Conscientiousness (OCB-O)

1. Complies with company rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced.
2. Takes one's job seriously and rarely makes mistakes.
3. Does not mind taking on new or challenging assignments.
4. Tries hard to self-study and increase work output quality.
5. Often arrives early and starts to work immediately.

Altruism toward colleagues (OCB-I)

1. Willing to assist new colleagues to adjust to work environments.
2. Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems.
3. Willing to cover work assignments for colleagues when needed.
4. Willing to coordinate and communicate with colleagues.

Service-Oriented OCB with a Customer Focus Only (Customer-Oriented OCB)

Based on Bettencourt's (2001) service-oriented OCB, we choose customer focus items as customer oriented OCB.

1. Follows customer service guidelines with extreme care.
2. Follows up in a timely manner to customer requests and problems.
3. Exceptionally courteous and respectful to customers, regardless of circumstances.

4. Contributes many ideas for customer promotions and communications.

5. Frequently presents other creative solutions to customer problems.

6. Conscientiously follows customer promotion guidelines.
Appendix E

Emotional Exhaustion (Warton, 1993)

Measured using a 7-point response scale, including: Not at All, Slightly, Somewhat, Moderately, Mostly, and Very Completely.

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. I feel used up at the end of the work day.
3. I dread getting up in the morning and having to face another day on the job.
4. I feel burned out from my work.
5. I feel frustrated by my job.
6. I feel I am working too hard at my job.
### Appendix F: Rotated Component Matrix

**Rotated Component Matrix**

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Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.
录音 4

主持人：Nick 今天很高兴邀请你来，我们这个是一个研究项目，主要是研究员工投入度对员工工作行为和态度的影响，和员工投入度对相互之间的关系，你会知道员工在你们的职业里可能有很多方面，可能投入度也会有不同方面，那么我们这个研究主要就是做这些方面的，就是投入度之间怎么相关，一起对于我们的工作态度和工作行为做影响的。那么其实对于企业来讲也是有很好的帮助，企业就会知道我怎么能够提高我们员工的投入度，我主要把资源和精力都放到哪方面，所以我们是希望给到企业这样的一些指标，让企业更有信心或者更有想法来做投入度，而不是很多企业经常说，我做了我也不知道它能有啥帮助。这就是我们的研究方向，那么我想先请你介绍下你原来哪个部门，主要工作内容是什么？

受访者：现在是在 TXT 的 SPS 部门，主要负责华南地区的空运和一些其他的 special surface 的业务。

主持人：那然后你原来也是在服务团队待的，是吧？你在服务团队待了几年？

受访者：我是 09 年在 24X7 的那个 team 入住的，然后 11 年转入 main team，负责夜班客服，一直做到 13 年。

主持人：那才，三年前，两年多前，

受访者：对，两年多前离开 CS 部门。

主持人：今天我会有几个问题是关于你在 CS 的一些体验，其实因为工作内容比较相近，你也可以说现在的工作内容进行参照。第一个就是，你原来在 CS，
我如果跟你一天，你工作一般是跟谁沟通，跟谁在一起工作？

受访者：我一般的话，当然我们这边客服中心肯定是跟我们 team 的人一起工作，因为工作内容每天都是要跟客户以及不同的 operation team 的人，以及国外的同事一起去协商解决一些问题，也是跟很多不同部门的人去沟通。

主持人：跟你们沟通比较多的是第一个是同事，第二个是客户，第三个是各个部门，还有其他的吗？

受访者：没有了，最主要就……

主持人：有其他的吗，比如你的主管？

受访者：主管的话也会有沟通，但是坦白说我们日常工作之中更多是和同事去沟通，或者和 senoir 同事沟通。

主持人：就是每天的工作是吧？

受访者：你知道我们是有个 buddy 项目，一入职肯定是对 buddy 的同事先有个接触，会比较 close

主持人：看来这个项目还是蛮成功的

受访者：那我觉得这个项目对于新入职的同事来说是非常好的项目，起码你不是跟 teamleader 去学习东西，始终的话我觉得一开始跟 teamleader 会有一种无形的隔阂，始终是存在的，但是如果你是跟一个 senoir 同事的话，可能会有更多的沟通，他身上学到具体的我们日常工作的具体方法，他始终是有一定的工作经验，他身上学的话会比较快。

主持人：那接下来就是，你能叫得出你当时组员的每个人的名字吗？

受访者：可以啊，当时的话我们组应该有 7,8 个人，我们的 teamleader 是
Ke，我们有两个非常 senior 的是 Jonny Cui 还有 Mark Mao，还有几个普通的组
员是 Tabby Lu，还有……还有什么？一个名字想不起来了。

主持人：我知道，堵在嘴里。

受访者：对对对。

主持人：说你想起来的。

受访者：有些，突然你这样问的话我就……

主持人：没关系，你刚才已经把你领导名字说起来了对吧？实际上，你对于公
司的高管，你能说出几个人？

受访者：高管的话，最主要的话是我们这边的是 Nikita 啦，Jonathan，中国区的
总经理应该是 Eric 吧，其他的话不是很知道了……哦，还有杨总。

主持人：杨总是哪个杨？是男杨总还是？

受访者：CC Yang。

主持人：CC 走了知道吗？

受访者：哦肯定知道。

主持人：然后还有哪些？比如说部门总监能叫得上名字吗？

受访者：部门总监的话，就比如说接触比较多的广州的 operation 是 Rock，还
有香港机场的同事，他应该也是主管吧，是叫 More，还有那个 Richard，接触
比较多的话可能会记得。

主持人：那如果是上海的总监，还能叫得出谁吗？那些大总监？

受访者：换了一批又一批，已经不记得了。

主持人：那你有印象的那些大总监有谁吗？

受访者：当时好像应该是你吧？
主持人：我是服务总监嘛，客服嘛。其他部门的大总监还记得吗？
受访者：其他销售那些部门的大总监就不记得了。
主持人：一般你了解这些大总监都通过什么机会了解到他们？
受访者：对于客服部门的跟她沟通的机会，一线员工可能是没什么机会的，你说了解的话可能就是职位变动的时候，HR 发出来的那些 announcement 可能会看一下，其他的话都不会有什么接触。
主持人：I see，OK。谢谢你还记得我哦，我对你们夜班是比较熟。在公司不是有各种各样的群体嘛？比如说球队也算个群体，对公司来讲，你在 TNT 你觉得有哪些群体存在呢？
受访者：群体？
主持人：就是有哪些 group？
受访者：坦白说我觉得我们现在每个小 team 都是一个独立的 group，它其实是很受 leader 氛围影响，而且他们也是 leader 面试进来的，有经过他们的筛选。
给我感觉就是每个 team 都有不同，而且你进来这个的话也会受到每个不同部门或每个 team 的影响，慢慢的话不论是从你的工作方式或是有时候对于职业规划肯定会受到影响。你说分成很多 group，那确实是很多。每个 team 都是小团体。根据每个人的兴趣爱好我们日常沟通起来也会有很多私下的交流。
主持人：但是你有没有关注到公司里有那种 group，不同的群体，就比如说球队也算是个群体嘛，你有没有注意到公司有那些这样的群体？
受访者：有啊！
主持人：比如说？
受访者：比如说，你说喜欢足球的话呢，我知道有一群人呢有时间的话就会聚
一起讨论，另外的话喜欢抽烟的人也会经常在后楼梯那边有自己的一个交流的群体

主持人：喜欢什么的人？
受访者：抽烟。
主持人：哦，抽烟的人。
受访者：对啊，都是有的。我了解最多的话，就是这两个群体。
主持人：就是工作群
受访者：工作群的话，就……
主持人：哦你刚刚说就是一个球队的群和一个吸烟的群。
受访者：对啊，因为我就经常是看见他们嘛，然后你说他们内部可能有什么其他的群体，可能女生比较多嘛，少数的男生在这里的话，就不是很知道。
主持人：OK。然后还有一个就是，你了解工会？
受访者：工会？不了解。
主持人：不了解？
受访者：对
主持人：那你知不知道在 TNT 有工会？
受访者：我知道。
主持人：哦，你刚才说不太了解嘛，那从你的了解里你觉得他们是干啥的？
受访者：坦白说工会的话，这边的工会其实没有去主动介绍过自己，是有什么地方可以帮到我们。我们最经常，就是最要了解的是，他们最了解的地方只是邮件或者是什么节日的时候，他们会准备些小礼物，但对他们的日常工作或他们负责什么方面或他们什么方面可以帮到你的话，就始终不是很了解。
主持人：OK 明白。就这个项目，你还有什么要问到我的吗？

受访者：这个的话，我觉得公司文化或是员工那些忠诚度或专注度那些……

Appendix H

Questionnaire (Chinese Version)

问卷调查（服务行业）

关于问卷调查：

该问卷是关于服务员工组织承诺度的影响力模型研究的一部分。非常感谢您抽出10分钟左右的时间参与问卷调查。在问卷中的选择，没有对错之分，只是做出符合自身情况的选择即可。问卷是以匿名的形式作答，您的问卷会直接被收集并送到数据处理组进行模型分析，个人问卷的反馈信息不会被披露。感谢您的参与。

对公司的组织承诺度：
根据你自身的情况，选择以下问题你认同的程度。

问题：
1. 您目前对公司组织承诺度如何？
   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
完全不      中等     完全
2. 您对公司有多在乎？
   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
完全不      中等     完全
3. 您选择致力于公司的程度如何？
   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
完全不      中等     完全
4. 您对公司（时间和精力等）付出如何？
   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
完全不      中等     完全

对直接上司的承诺度：
根据你自身的情况，选择以下问题你认同的程度。
问题：
5. 您目前对您的直接上司的承诺度如何？
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7
   完全不  中等  完全

6. 您对您直接上司有多在乎？
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7
   完全不  中等  完全

7. 您选择致力于支持直接上司的程度如何？
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7
   完全不  中等  完全

8. 您对您直接上司的（时间与精力等）付出如何
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7
   完全不  中等  完全

对工作小组的承诺度：
根据你自身的情况，选择以下有关你所在的工作小组方面的问题您认同的程度。

问题
9. 您对您所在的工作小组的承诺度如何？
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7
   完全不  中等  完全

10. 您对您所在的工作小组有多在乎？
    1  2  3  4  5  6  7
    完全不  中等  完全

11. 您选择致力于您所在的工作小组的程度如何？
    1  2  3  4  5  6  7
    完全不  中等  完全

12. 您对您所在的工作小组的（时间与精力等）付出如何？
    1  2  3  4  5  6  7
    完全不  中等  完全

对公司工会的承诺度：
根据你自身的情况，选择以下问题您认同的程度。

问题
13. 您对工会的承诺度如何？
    1  2  3  4  5  6  7
完全不    中等    完全

14. 您对工会有多在乎？
1  2  3  4  5  6  7
完全不    中等    完全

15. 您选择致力于工会的程度如何？
1  2  3  4  5  6  7
完全不    中等    完全

16. 您对工会的（时间和精力等）付出如何？
1  2  3  4  5  6  7
完全不    中等    完全

对一线服务工作的承诺度：
根据你自身的情况，选择以下问题您认同的程度。

问题：
17. 您对从事一线服务工作的承诺度如何？
1  2  3  4  5  6  7
完全不    中等    完全

18. 您对从事一线服务工作有多在乎？
1  2  3  4  5  6  7
完全不    中等    完全

19. 您选择致力于从事一线服务工作的程度如何？
1  2  3  4  5  6  7
完全不    中等    完全

20. 您对一线服务工作的（时间和精力等）付出如何？
1  2  3  4  5  6  7
完全不    中等    完全

对客户的承诺度：
根据你自身的情况，选择以下问题您认同的程度。

问题：
21. 您对您服务的客户的投入度如何？
1  2  3  4  5  6  7
完全不    中等    完全
22. 您对您的客户有多在乎？
1完全不  2 中等  3 完全

23. 您选择致力于服务您的客户的程度如何？
1完全不  2 中等  3 完全

24. 您对您的客户的（时间和精力等）付出如何？
1完全不  2 中等  3 完全

离职意向
请结合自身情况，你在多大程度上同意或不同意以下陈述？

25. 在接下来大概一年的时间里，我很可能会离职。
1完全不同意  2 中等  3 完全同意

26. 我经常想辞去这份工作。
1完全不同意  2 中等  3 完全同意

27. 我可能会在明年找一份新的工作。
1完全不同意  2 中等  3 完全同意

关于您的工作行为：
请结合自身情况，你在多大程度上同意或不同意以下陈述？

28. 我总是充分完成分配给我的任务。
1完全不同意  2 中等  3 完全同意

29. 我总是满足工作中的正式绩效要求。
1完全不同意  2 中等  3 完全同意

30. 我总是忽略应该完成的工作的一些方面。
1完全不同意  2 中等  3 完全同意
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<tr>
<td>31. 我总是履行岗位描述中所说明的职责。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
<td>中等</td>
<td>完全同意</td>
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<td>32. 我总是参与能积极地影响他人绩效评估的活动。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
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<td>33. 我总是按照对我的期望完成任务。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
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<td>34. 我总是会持续高质量的完成工作任务</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
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<td>35. 我总是遵守公司规定与流程，即使在无人监管和无可查证的情况下。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
<td>中等</td>
<td>完全同意</td>
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<td>36. 我总是认真对待工作并很少犯错。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
<td>中等</td>
<td>完全同意</td>
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<td>37. 我总是不介意接受新的或有挑战的工作。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
<td>中等</td>
<td>完全同意</td>
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<td>38. 我总是努力自学，提高工作产出的质量。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
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<td>完全同意</td>
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<td>39. 我经常早到并立即开始工作。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
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<td>40. 我愿意帮助新同事适应工作环境。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
<td>中等</td>
<td>完全同意</td>
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<td>41. 我愿意帮助同事解决与工作相关的问题。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
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<td>完全同意</td>
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<td>42. 我愿意在需要的时候替同事完成工作任务。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
<td>中等</td>
<td>完全同意</td>
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<td>43. 我愿意和同事协调沟通。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
<td>中等</td>
<td>完全同意</td>
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<td>44. 我在客户推广中遵循客户服务手册</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
<td>中等</td>
<td>完全同意</td>
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<td>45. 我会及时的跟进客户要求与问题。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
<td>中等</td>
<td>完全同意</td>
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<tr>
<td>46. 在任何情况下我都十分尊重客户，彬彬有礼。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
<td>中等</td>
<td>完全同意</td>
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<td>47. 我认真遵循工作指引进行客户服务。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
<td>中等</td>
<td>完全同意</td>
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<tr>
<td>48. 我为客户提供产品与沟通贡献了很多想法。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
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<td>完全同意</td>
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<tr>
<td>49. 我经常在解决客户问题时提出其他创造性方案。</td>
<td>完全不同意</td>
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您对工作的感受：
请结合自身情况，你在多大程度上同意或不同意以下陈述？

<p>| | | | | | | | |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 50. 我在工作中感觉心力憔悴。 | 完全不同意 | 中等 | 完全同意 |
| 51. 在一天工作结束时我感觉被掏空 | 完全不同意 | 中等 | 完全同意 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>52. 我害怕早上起床不得不面对又一天的工作。</th>
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<tr>
<th>53. 我感觉被工作弄得筋疲力尽。</th>
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<tr>
<th>54. 工作让我很沮丧。</th>
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<tr>
<th>55. 我觉得我对于工作过于努力。</th>
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关于你的背景信息，请在适合你的选项数字上打 √

请填写您的分机号（）

性别：
1 男性 2 女性

婚姻状况：
1 已婚 2 未婚 3 丧偶 4 离异

年龄：
1=20-25，2=26-30，3=31-35，4=36-40，5=40 以上

教育程度
1=高中，2=中专技校，3=大专学历，4=大学本科，5=研究生

当前职位工作年限
1=1年或一年以下，2=1年到3年，3=3年到5年，4=5年以上

请选择您18岁前户口所在地
1 = 北京，上海，广州，深圳，天津
2 = 天津，杭州，南京，济南，重庆，青岛，大连，宁波，厦门，成都，武汉，哈尔滨，沈阳，西安，长春，长沙，福州，郑州，石家庄，苏州，佛山，东莞，无锡，烟台，太原，合
肥、南昌、南宁、昆明、温州、淄博、唐山。

3 = 其他城市（不在以上列表的城市）