On the Antecedents of Career Commitment

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ABSTRACT: Organisational commitment, as a subset of the psychological contract, is an important consideration for organisational leaders to foster. Strong positive commitment can lead to increased levels of devotion, loyalty, and effort and can reduce costs associated with turnover. This paper provides a brief overview of the development of commitment, with a particular focus on career commitment. Following this, a review of current research into the antecedents of career commitment is provided. Next, it discusses seven of the most relevant antecedent factors. The paper concludes by identifying the implications of these antecedents for future research.

KEY WORDS: *Career Commitment; Organisational Commitment*

INTRODUCTION

Career commitment can be considered *one's attitude towards one's profession or vocation, where career commitment involves the development of personal career goals and an identification with and involvement in those goals, such that one is willing to exert effort in support of their career, congruent with its values* (Blau 1985: 278; Goulet and Singh 2002: 75; Kalleberg and Berg 1987: 159; Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian 1974: 604). This paper intends to provide a review of the literature and empirical studies which focus on the antecedents to career commitment. The paper will begin with a brief introduction to the area of literature, leading into a more focused discussion on career commitment and the factors which drive commitment in career committed people. This study provides two important objectives. Firstly, it provides a summary of contemporary research in the area, and secondly it identifies a consolidated list of antecedents which may assist researchers and practitioners in better management of career committed workers.

WHAT IS COMMITMENT?

When a person decides to work for an organisation an exchange relationship is established where each party exchanges something of value, both economic and non-economic. This exchange constitutes what many researchers (Goulet and Singh 2002; Herscovitch and Meyer 2002; Rousseau 1995; Sturges and Guest 2001) refer to as a 'psychological contract'. A major part of this contract "is the nature of the employee's connection to the organization, in terms of both membership status and quality of membership" (Mowday, Porter and Steers 1982: 3). Connection to one's organisation, in these terms, is considered by Mowday et al (1982) as organisational commitment. Strong

organisational commitment can have both advantages and disadvantages for the employee and the organisation. However, strong organisational commitment is generally encouraged by organisations.

Commitment is a 'state of mind' through which an individual becomes bound to their actions and beliefs towards their involvement to an object or activity. Commitment is so ordinary that the constraining effects and subtle control it has on our behaviour often goes without notice: "Commitment is what makes us like what we do and continue doing it, even when the payoffs are not obvious" (Salancik 1977: 62).

Organisations endeavour to develop strong commitment from their employees so that they can minimise turnover and absences, and reduce recruitment and training costs (Camilleri 2002: 2). Employee turnover can be costly to all organisations. Committed employees have been found more likely to stay in their chosen organisation, and thus will reduce turnover statistics (Brief and Aldag 1980: 211; Chang 1999: 1258; Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe 2004: 991). Committed employees are also more likely to apply themselves to their job through increased identification with organisational goals and values, through the desire to maintain and conform with social forces and because it may be too costly not to apply themselves. At times however, commitment in employees can be undesirable. Committed employees who do not perform may be difficult to remove and may reduce unit effectiveness. Over-commitment can also lead to high levels of zealousness which can result in dysfunctional behaviour (Mowday, Porter et al. 1982: 4-5).

Research on commitment has sparked a great deal of interest for many reasons (Mowday, Porter et al. 1982: 4-5). Primary among these is the thought that understanding commitment can be a good predictor of certain employee behaviours like turnover, attendance, quality and quantity of work, loyalty and job performance (Somers and Birnbaum 1998: 621). An understanding of commitment is important because it provides organisations with an appreciation of how and why staff apply themselves to their work, and how this can be leveraged toward better working outcomes for all parties.

The next section of this paper will review the origins of organisational commitment along with the various definitions of each type. Following this, various foci of organisational commitment will be discussed, concentrating on career commitment which has greatest salience to the study which this review forms a part.

A BACKGROUND TO COMMITMENT

Although a popular sociological term at the time (Becker 1960; Kanter 1968), 'commitment' wasn't effectively applied to organisation until it was grasped by two theorists in the 1960s – Howard Becker (1960) and Amitai Etzioni (1961). By 'commitment' Becker refers to *consistent lines of activity in human behaviour*. He explains the principle of commitment using a concept of 'side-bets':

> Suppose that you are bargaining to buy a house; you offer sixteen thousand dollars, but the seller insists on twenty thousand. Now suppose that you offer your antagonist in the bargaining certified proof that you have bet a third party five thousand dollars that you will not pay more than sixteen thousand dollars for the house. Your opponent must admit defeat because you would lose money by raising your bid; you have committed yourself to pay no more than you originally offered. (Becker 1960: 35)

Using this analogy, the buyer has committed to an activity by making a side-bet. Inconsistency in a chosen line of action will result in the extraction of a personal cost. Therefore the person's behaviour is committed to a cause as a consequence of what they stand to lose. Becker's concept of commitment utilises a type of attachment that centralises on material gain and loss, focussing on the consequences of human behaviour. This analogy applies to organisational commitment.

Building on some early work by Chris Argyris (1957) and Elliot G Mishler (1953), Etzioni (1961; 1975) takes a more psychological approach to commitment: "An individual is committed to an organization to the extent that central tensions are integrated though organizationally relevant acts"

These early debates on commitment saw a divergence of thought, where commitment was unidimensional – people could exhibit one type of commitment or another, but could not exhibit multiple types of commitment. The Becker line of discussion headed down the path of *continuance*

commitment, where commitment was regarded as calculative, recognising the material ties of a person to an organisation. This direction of thought sees commitment as a behavioural concept (Becker 1960; Halaby 1986; Hunt and Morgan 1994; Staw and Ross 1978). The second line of thought is known as *affective commitment*, where a person is attached to an organisation due to their identification with the organisation and through shared or mutual beliefs and values. This conceptualisation of commitment follows an attitudinal construct (Etzioni 1975; Mowday, Porter and Dubin 1974; Mowday, Steers and Porter 1979; Steers 1977). A third line of discussion appeared through the work of Allen and Meyer (1990). Referred to as *normative commitment*, this definition refers to an employee's obligation to stay with an organisation due to normative pressures developed through familial, cultural or organisational socialisation (Allen and Meyer 1990; Dunham, Grube and Castaneda 1994; Hackett, Bycio and Hausdorf 1994; Snape and Redman 2003). With normative commitment, people attach themselves to an organisation due to a pressure to conform.

Commitment thought has now moved away from a unidimensional concept to what is now largely acknowledged as a multidimensional view (Allen and Meyer 1990; Angle and Lawson 1993; Becker, Randall and Riegel 1995; Iverson and Buttigieg 1999; Mathieu and Zajac 1990). This view was most avidly advocated by Allen and Meyer (1990) in the early days, and is now widely accepted (Allen and Meyer 1996). The multidimensional view holds that the three types of commitment – *continuance*, *affective* and *normative* – have different implications for behaviour. While they all tend to bind a person to their organisation, their relationships to behaviour can be quite different (Meyer and Allen 1991; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky 2002).

This section has provided a background to commitment, explaining its early roots and how it relates to organisational commitment. Since this early work, researchers now generally embrace the more recent work from Allen and Meyer (1990) as the adopted standard for the *three different types of commitment*. The next section will discuss the various *foci of commitment*.

FOCI OF COMMITMENT

The above discussion explains that commitment can be broken into three general types – *continuance*, *affective* and *normative*. While this discussion has tended to focus on commitment as one's commitment to their organisation (including commitment to one's employer), the term has been used fairly loosely from this perspective. Research into the various foci of commitment abounds. The table which follows (Table 1) provides a breakdown of some of these different foci and the research which has been done in this area over the last fifty years.

Foci of Commitment	Researcher(s)
A General Approach	Becker 1960; Brickman 1987; Brown 1996; Oliver 1990; Salancik 1977; Scholl 1981
• Organisation(al) Commitment • Firm Commitment • Commitment to Employer	Allen and Meyer 1990a, b, 1996; Angle and Lawson 1993; Aryee, Chay and Chew 1994; Bateman and Strasser 1984; Buchanan 1974; Clugston et al. 2000; Cohen 1991, 1992; Coopey and Hartley 1991; DeCotiis and Summers 1987; Dunham et al. 1994; Eisenberger et al. 1990; Hunt and Morgan 1994; Iverson and Buttigieg 1999; Kidron 1978; Marsh and Mannari 1977; Mathieu and Zajac 1990; Mayer and Schoorman 1992; McGee and Ford 1987; Meyer et al. 1990; Meyer et al. 1993; Meyer et al. 2004; Meyer et al. 1989; Morris and Sherman 1981; Morrow 1993; Mowday et al. 1979; Mueller et al. 1992; O'Reilly and Chatman 1986; Salancik 1977; Snape and Redman 2003; Somers and Birnbaum 1998; Steers 1977; Sturges and Guest 2001; Swailes 2002; Wiener 1982
• Job Commitment • Work Commitment • Job Involvement	Bielby 1992; Bielby and Bielby 1984; Blau and Boal 1989; Blau 1985b, 1986; Blau, Allison and St John 1993; Blau and Boal 1987; Brooke, Russell and Price 1988; Colarelli and Bishop 1990; Farrell and Rusbult 1981; Huselid and Day 1991; Lefkowitz, Somers and Weinberg 1984; Lodahl and Kejner 1965; Morris and Koch 1979; Morrow 1983, 1993; Morrow and Goetz 1988; Morrow and McElroy 1986; Morrow and Wirth 1989; Mueller et al. 1992; Rabinowitz and Hall 1977; Randall and Cote 1991; Rusbult and Farrell 1983; Somers and Birnbaum 1998; Wiener and Vardi 1980
• Career Commitment • Occupational Commitment • Professional Commitment • Career Salience	Adams, 1999; Aranya and Ferris 1984; Aranya, Pollock and Amernic 1981; Aryee et al. 1994; Aryee and Tan 1992; Bartol 1979; Bedeian, Kemery and Pizzolatto 1991; Blau and Lunz 1998; Blau 1985a, 1988a, b, 1989; Blau et al. 1993; Brierley 1996; Carson, 1998; Carson and Bedeian 1994; Cherniss 1991; Cohen 1993; Colarelli and Bishop 1990; Darden, Hampton and Howell 1989; Ellemers et al. 1998; Farmer and Chung 1995; Gaither, 1999; Gardner, 1992; Greenhaus 1971; Iles, Mabey and Robertson 1990; Irving, Coleman and Cooper 1997; Lee, Carswell and Allen 2000; Lam, 1995; Lee 1977; London 1983; Meyer et al. 1993; Morrow 1993; Morrow and Goetz 1988; Morrow and McElroy 1986; Morrow and Wirth 1989; Noordin, Williams and Zimmer 2002; Parasuraman and Nachman 1987; Randall and Cote 1991; Shoemaker, Snizek and Bryant 1977; Snape and Redman 2003; Suutari, 2003; Wallace 1993, 1995; Welsch and LaVan 1981; Wiener and Vardi 1980

Table 1 – Foci of Commitment

There are also a number of other foci which have received research attention: *goal commitment* (Allen and Nora 1995; Donovan and Radosevich 1998; Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, Wright et al. 2001; Locke, Latham and Erez 1988; Tubbs 1993), *commitment to organisational change* (Herscovitch and

Meyer 2002; Swailes 2004), *commitment to a strategy* (Bishop, Scott and Burroughs 2000; Whyte 1986), *commitment to supervisor* (Becker, Billings, Eveleth and Gilbert 1996; Becker and Kernan 2003; Bentein, Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe 2002; Siders, George and Dharwadkar 2001), *commitment to team or workgroup* (Bentein, Stinglhamber et al. 2002; Lee 2004; Swailes 2004), *commitment to customer* (Boshoff and Allen 2000; Joshi and Randall 2001), *commitment to project or program* (Barczak and McDonough 2003; Hoegl, Weinkauf and Gemuenden 2004), *commitment to unions* (Aryee, Chay and Chew 1994; Cohen 1993; Morrow 1983).

The three categories of commitment which have been focussed on here have been selected because they represent the major areas of interest for researchers. They are also the most applicable areas of study to organisations in general. The emphasis of this paper will be on career commitment. Therefore, after a brief introduction to the first two categories, the paper will move to a deeper explanation of career commitment.

Organisational Commitment

The specific view of organisational commitment has employees bound to their place of employment, wanting to stay and compliantly abiding to at least minimal job and organisational requirements, including organisational goals and values (Mowday, Steers et al. 1979: 226). Such commitment is an enduring psychological link which works to evoke feelings of obligation beyond those required through job expectations and rewards (Somers and Birnbaum 1998: 623).

While organisational commitment induces an attachment to the person's chosen organisation which sees the person applying additional levels of effort toward their job and the organisation, the likelihood of additional engagement and commitment is a product of the type of commitment which drives greatest compulsion. This occurs most predominantly with affective and normative commitment (Hackett, Bycio et al. 1994; Herscovitch and Meyer 2002; Konovsky and Cropanzano 1991; Mayer and Schoorman 1992; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin et al. 1989; Somers and Birnbaum 1998).

Job Commitment

Both job and work commitment have been combined here, as they are similar areas of study (Blau, Allison and St John 1993; Cohen 1993; Morrow and Wirth 1989). This redundancy in terms is

explained by Morrow and McElroy (1986: 139) as a result of "the use of the words *job* and *work* within the various measures of commitment".

Job commitment is defined as a "psychological absorption in work activities" (Somers and Birnbaum 1998: 622) which arises through intrinsically satisfying work. Relative to the amount of research being undertaken on organisational commitment, this area of commitment has received little attention over the last few decades, with most research in areas such as job satisfaction and motivation.

Job commitment and organisational commitment share similar outcomes and consequences in terms of job satisfaction, absenteeism and turnover, and therefore have been considered similar constructs (Blau and Boal 1987; Huselid and Day 1991; Morrow 1983). However, job commitment varies from organisational commitment because it is the role of the person within the organisation which is the important driver for job commitment. What the organisation does, the social environment, and the goals and values of the organisation matter less to the person driven by job commitment.

Career Commitment

This category of commitment includes: occupational commitment and professional commitment. While each of these areas have some small differences most researchers consider them to be quite similar, and each of them can be used to coin the entire category, and are thus interchangeable (Mueller, Wallace et al. 1992; Meyer, Allen et al. 1993; Wallace 1993; Snape and Redman 2003). There is, however, significant argument for the use of career commitment in place of professional commitment (Aryee and Tan 1992; Mueller, Wallace et al. 1992; Morrow 1993; Wallace 1993; Blau and Lunz 1998; Snape and Redman 2003), for many reasons. Most apposite among them is the fact that the word *professional* may seem to exclude many job types. *Career* is thus occupationally non-specific. In addition, Morrow (1993: 47-48) explains that the pattern of employment is changing, and workers are now more focussed on career rather than job or profession. She also finds that the research on career *vis-à-vis* profession is much more cohesive, reliable and valid (Blau and Lunz 1998: 264; Morrow 1993: 48).

Commitment to one's career is an important value for several reasons (Colarelli and Bishop 1990: 158-159). Careers take time to develop; they are a sequence of separate but related positions that accumulate over time through career progression. Only through the strategic development of career is a worker able to evolve and hone specialised and high level skills. Career commitment also provides the endurance necessary to cultivate business networks and professional relationships. Career commitment can also lead to a potential for greater income and higher self-esteem (Kalbers and Fogarty 1995: 68). Finally, the business world is no longer an assemblage of discrete and secure positions. Today's job climate is dynamic and perpetually altering: "commitment to an internally defined career may become an important source of occupational meaning and continuity as organizations become more fluid and less able to guarantee employment security" (Colarelli and Bishop 1990: 159).

Various foci of commitment have been discussed in this section. These foci are not mutually exclusive. People can have multiple commitments (Meyer, Allen et al. 1993: 546; Swailes 2002: 156-157; Vandenberg and Scarpello 1994: 544), for example to their career and their organisation – as discussed above. Other commitments, external to the organisation, can also take preference. The next section will look at the antecedents of career commitment.

ANTECEDENTS OF CAREER COMMITMENT

Welsch and LaVan (1981) suggest that antecedents of organisational commitment, especially with regard to professionals, can be placed into five categories, these are listed below. While their study tested for commitment to organisation, it was among the first empirical studies to consider a professional dimension, and therefore is of particular value here:

1. Demographic Characteristics – age, organisational level, education, tenure, and length of professional employment.

2. Job Satisfaction – pay satisfaction, work, and promotion.

3. Job Characteristics – role conflict, role ambiguity, power, and teamwork.

4. Professional Behaviour – membership in professional organisations, professional meetings attended, professional journals read, and seminars attended.

5. Organisational Climate – communication, decision-making, leadership, motivation, and goal setting.

When Welsch and LaVan tested these five factors in a healthcare institution, they found that not all were strongly correlated to organisational commitment. Of the demographic characteristics, age and length of professional employment had a strong positive correlation (0.28 and 0.25), and tenure and organisational level had a moderate positive correlation (0.14 and 0.19). All of the job satisfaction, job characteristics and organisational climate variables had strong positive correlation (0.29 to 0.62) except for pay satisfaction which found no correlation, however role conflict and role ambiguity were negatively associated. Of the professional behaviour variables only professional journals read had any correlation towards commitment (+0.23).[1]

In a study of nurses' commitment to their organisation and profession, Brief and Aldag (1980) found that education is negatively associated with commitment, while age and tenure have a positive association, however the largest correlate they found was job satisfaction. In another study of nurses Meyer et al (1993) proceeded to test for organisational and occupational antecedents and their relation to the three types of commitment – continuance, affective and normative. They found that continuance commitment was strongly associated with variables which increased investment, like tenure and position; affective commitment related to work satisfaction; and normative commitment related to both work satisfaction (similar to affective) and to a general sense of obligation to others.

To determine a list of useful antecedents and correlates 35 research papers on career commitment (Table 2) were analysed to assess the effect of these antecedents for career commitment. A distillation of these various studies and meta-analyses (see Table 3) has identified seven antecedents as having an effect, positive or negative, on career commitment. These are: locus of control; length of service; job satisfaction; collegiality; feedback and support; role states; remuneration. Each of these will be discussed below.

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[1] Pearson Correlation Coefficients. All with a significance of p<.001, except length of professional employment, satisfaction with employment, and professional journals read which are p<.01

Nº	Name	Study	Country	Sample	Analysis[2]
1	Aranya et al. 1981	Professional commitment of chartered accountants	Canada	1206	ANOVA
2	Aryee and Tan 1992	Career commitment in teachers and nurses	Singapore	510	LISREL
3	Aryee et al. 1994	Career commitment of managerial and professional employees in public and private sector employment	Singapore	396	HRA
4	Bedeian et al 1991	Career commitment of nurses	USA	244	FA
5	Blau and Lunz 1998	Professional commitment of medical technologists	USA	457	HRA
6	Blau 1985a	Career commitment of nurses	USA	119	FA
7	Blau 1989b	Career commitment of fulltime bank tellers in a large bank	USA	133	FA
8	Carson et al 1997	The effects of organisation-based self-esteem on Medical technicians	USA	46	ANOVA
9	Carson and Bedeian 1994	Career commitment in MBA Students and Undergraduates	USA	567+ 476	FA
10	Carson et al 2002	Empowerment and career commitment in Medical Librarians	USA	128	CA
11	Colarelli and Bishop 1990	Career commitment of MBA students with full-time employment and professional chemists	USA	426	CRA
12	Darden et al. 1989	Career commitment of retail salespeople	USA	261	LISREL
13	Ellemers et al. 1998	Career commitment of the general population and a financial service organisation	Netherlands + Belgium	690 + 287	FA
14	Gould 1979	Career commitment of professional and semi-professional workers	USA	277	CRA
15	Goulet and Singh 2002	Career commitment in profit and not-for-profit companies	USA	228	CRA
16	Irving et al. 1997	Occupational commitment in regional Government employees	Canada	232	FA
17	Kalbers and Fogarty 1995	Professionalism and commit-ment in professional auditors	USA	498	LISREL
18	Kidd and Smewing 2001	Supervisor affect on career commitment of part-time students	UK	265	FA
19	Lee et al. 2000	Occupational and career Commitment	N/A	76	MA
20	Lee 1971	Professional commitment of health scientists	USA	170	MSR
21	Meyer et al. 1993	Occupational commitment of student and registered nurses	Canada	662	LISREL
22	Meyer et al. 2002	Occupational commitment	N/A	155	MA
23	Morrow and Wirth 1989	Professional commitment of academics	USA	728	TCA
24	Norris and Niebuhr 1983	Professionalism of accountants	USA	62	ANOVA
25	Parasuraman and Nachman 1987	Professional commitment of musicians	USA	65	CRA
26	Phillips et al. 1994	The effect of age on career in professional academic librarians	USA	109	HRA
27	Shafer et al. 2002	Professionalism of certified management accountants	USA	319	SEM
28	Sheldon 1971	Professional commitment of scientists and Engineers with Doctoral degrees	USA	136	GTGS
29	Shoemaker et al. 1977	Occupational commitment of park and forest workers	USA	120	CA
30	Snape and Redman 2003	Occupational commitment of HRM specialists	UK	678	FRA
31	Somech and Bogler 2002	Professional commitment & organisational citizenship behaviour of middle and high school Teachers	Israel	983	SEM
32	Stevens et al. 1978	Professional commitment of Government managers	USA	634	MRA
33	Sturges and Guest 2001	Career commitment of graduate workers	USA	50	GT
34	Vandenberg and Scarpello 1994	Occupational commitment of Management information systems professionals	USA	100	SEM
35	Wallace 1995	Professional commitment of attorneys	Canada	730	ANCOVA

Table 2 – Research Papers on Career Commitment.

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[2] ANCOVA–Analysis of Covariance; ANOVA–Analysis of Variance; CA–Correlation Analysis; CRA–Correlation and Regression Analysis; FA–Factor Analysis; FRA–Factor and Regression Analysis; GT–Grounded Theory; GTGS–Good Enough Technique utilising the Guttman Scale; HRA–Hierarchical Regression Analyses; LISREL–Linear Structural Relationship Analysis; MA–Meta-Analysis; MRA–Multiple Regression Analysis; MSR–Multiple Stepwise Regression; SEM–Structural Equation Modelling; TCA–Trait Correlation Analysis.

Antecedents & Correlates of Career Commitment [A]	Significant [B] - Positive	Significant [B] - Negative	Not - Significant [B]
Personal Variables			
Age	5, 11, 23, 26	13, 20	9, 16, 22, 25, 29
Education	3, 9, 11, 15, 32		14, 16, 23, 27, 29
Gender [C]	16		14, 19, 23, 25, 27
Marital Status [D]	11	6	3, 5
Locus of Control [E]		6, 11, 14, 16, 19	
Need for Achievement	15		
Occupational Variables – Individual			
Esteem & Importance [F]	2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 12, 14, 19, 23, 25, 31, 34	4, 20	
Expectations of Reward	12		32
Level in Organisation	14, 23		
Tenure [G]	6	13, 30	9, 14, 25
Length of Service [H]	2, 17, 19, 20, 24, 25, 29		14, 23
Job Satisfaction [J]	10, 17, 19, 21, 29		
Occupational Variables – Social			
Collegiality [K]	28, 35		17
Group Attitudes	29		
Challenge	33		
Feedback & Support [L]	3, 12, 19, 25, 35		18
Occupational Variables – Institutional			
Role States [M]		6, 11, 12, 15, 19, 25	
Organisation Dependency [N]	34	15	
Autonomy [O]	10, 19, 27		
Character of Work	3		
Remuneration & Benefits [P]	1, 2, 3, 11, 14, 28		
Leadership [R]	11, 25		

Table 3 – Significance of Proposed Antecedents and Correlates

Notes on the development of Table 3:

A: 1. The classification for these major categories is constructed according to the following criteria. Personal variables are those characteristics a person brings into their work environment and which influence the nature of that work. Occupational variables are influences which exist within the work environment that have an effect on the character of work – individual variables are influenced or controlled by the individual; social variables are influenced by people within the workplace; and, institutional variables are influences controlled by the company or career. This framework is similar to a framework proposed by (Cohen 1992).

   2. Unless otherwise stated the antecedents in this table have a positive relationship to the outcomes specified, for example 'Age' relates to an increase in age, therefore if researchers' report a positive correlation, they find that an increase in age would increase career commitment.

B: The attribution of significance on the reported value was generally ascribed by the reporting author.

C: Gender was generally not found to be a significant factor, however in the one study where it was (Irving, Coleman and Cooper 1997) it was found that men would have greater career commitment, however the authors explain that this may be an anomaly.

D: Marital status refers to a person being married.

F: Esteem & Importance also takes into account career and job involvement, and utility of current job.

G: Tenure includes both of Meyer et al's (2002) dimensions – position and organisation.

H: Length of service means, where data exists, time served in career or career stage. Additionally since one's investment in career is a product of length of service, these two criteria have been combined (see Welsch and LaVan 1981: 1081). Length of service also includes career experience.

J: The measure of job satisfaction is taken as satisfaction with one's current organisation. Results have shown that job and career satisfaction are closely related, as is job satisfaction with regard to organisational commitment and career commitment, however in most cases job satisfaction with regard to career commitment rates marginally higher.

K: Collegiality refers to professional socialisation. A clear distinction needs to be made on socialisation. Much of the literature deals with socialisation of the professional within the organisation. However, here the construct is for career related socialisation – collegiality. The outcomes of each of these constructs is opposite as organisational socialisation tends to reduce career commitment and career socialisation strengthens career bonds. There is also a great deal of discussion, in the literature, on social exchange theory, which posits that an individual will be bound to a group or organisation through a need for reciprocity.

L: Feedback and support refers to support from supervisors as well as co-workers. The few studies that looked at these variables separately concluded that they were both very similar.

M: Role states are similar to those adopted by Camilleri (2002) and include: ambiguity, conflict, strain, overload and stress. Also included is job fit and inter-role conflict – when a person experiences a poor match between career and current job, they are more likely to leave the job in pursuit of career congruence elsewhere - (Goulet and Singh 2002: 80)

N: The studies indicated that a professional would maintain career commitment with income increases, but professionals may also leave the career if pay is reduced (see: Shafer, Park and Liao 2002).

P: Leadership refers to the quality of leadership in a similar vein to Meyer et al's (2002) use of transformational leadership. Leadership also includes mentoring, which was found by Colarelli and Bishop (1990: 158) to be a very strong antecedent to career commitment.

Locus of control

Locus of control indicates the extent to which a person perceives they have control over their future. The two opposing dimensions declare a person's attitude toward control and destiny. An internal locus of control indicates that the person has a propensity to decide their own behaviour and take responsibility for the consequences. Conversely, external indicates a belief in a power outside of their control which determines fate and outcomes (Colarelli and Bishop 1990: 160; Gould 1979: 540).

Research finds that people with an external locus of control will be less committed to their career. This indicates that people who are committed to their career require an internal locus of control, and subsequently an ability to take control of their destiny and to make active career choices.

Length of service

Length of service indicates a measure of investment a person has sunk into their career. Following the principles of continuance commitment (Becker 1960), the greater the investment the more committed a person is to their career due to the costs associated with leaving (Lee, Carswell and Allen 2000).

Job satisfaction

As noted above (J), this measure takes into account the professional's satisfaction with their current job, given that commitment to one's career can often countervail similar feelings for the organisation a negative correlation was expected. However it has been found that satisfaction with one's current job can actually enhance career commitment. Lee et al (2000: 799) suggest that this relationship occurs because "attitudes toward the job itself may be a central concern in committing to one's occupation".

Collegiality

Professional socialisation is an important element in maintaining and furthering career commitment. In a study of professional lawyers, Wallace (1995) found that the lawyers who tended more toward professional commitment were more likely to cultivate co-worker support for the object of maintaining career connection and in order to cope with uncertainties. Wallace (1995) also comments that there tends to be more solidarity among professionals because of a sense of estrangement they feel when they are in mixed occupational company.

Feedback and support

Receiving support from co-workers and supervisors helps to provide a sense of community and professionalism and contributes to collective experience. "Collegiality and support among fellow professionals are central to the norms of professionalism" (Wallace 1995: 253). The receipt of collegial and supervisory support reduces vulnerability and proletarianism. Supervisory support has also been found to reduce role stress, which in itself is a negative correlate towards career commitment, and to increase job satisfaction (Darden, Hampton and Howell 1989).

Role states

This correlate comprises various factors (ambiguity, conflict, strain, overload, stress, fit and inter-role conflict) which all work to destabilise the career environment to varying degrees: "Commitment to a career requires focused energy. To the extent that one's mental and physical energies are diverted to other matters, it would be difficult to develop and maintain commitment to a career" (Colarelli and Bishop 1990: 162). The more that these factors exist in a person's career, the less they will commit to their career. *Role ambiguity* occurs when a person is uncertain of what tasks they should perform (Colarelli

and Bishop 1990: 162). *Role conflict* occurs when a person is faced with incompatible demands upon their role to such a degree that the strain reduces career satisfaction. This situation is exacerbated when the person faces competing roles and multiple commitments – for instance the needs of the career versus the needs of the job (Reichers 1985: 474). These two factors – conflict and ambiguity comprise *role strain*. *Role overload* can damage social cohesion (Blau and Boal 1987: 295), and as discussed above, socialization is an important factor for positive career commitment, therefore excess of overload will reduce commitment. The above factors have been conveniently combined to form *role stress* (Mathieu and Zajac 1990: 180). The final elements – fit and inter-role conflict – have been used to discuss the same phenomena (Colarelli and Bishop 1990: 162; Goulet and Singh 2002: 87; Netemeyer, Boles, McKee and McMurrian 1997: 88). Inter-role conflict arises through a mismatch with the demands and goals of competing interests. It is similar to role conflict except the perspective is larger taking into account demands other than just work:

> Inter-role conflict is a job condition that negatively affects career commitment. Inter-role conflict involves incompatible role demands from different spheres of life. This typically involves conflict between family and work roles … the greater the inter-role conflict, the more distracted one may become from career priorities. (Colarelli and Bishop 1990: 162)

Remuneration

As would be expected, high pay and attractive benefits have a positive effect on commitment. Benefits are especially important for career-oriented people due to esteem, as these people have been found to hold themselves in higher regard (as compared to non-professional workers) and they therefore expect greater benefits for the work that they do (Aranya, Pollock and Amernic 1981; Lee, Carswell et al. 2000: 802). A more reasonable test for remuneration is the effect of a reduction in pay and benefits, which found that given the choice of career commitment with reduced pay or organisational commitment with the current level of income, most people would opt for the latter (Shafer, Park et al. 2002).

CONCLUSION

Organisational commitment is an important consideration for organisational leaders to foster. Strong positive commitment can lead to increased levels of devotion, loyalty, and effort and can reduce costs associated with turnover.

From the three types of commitment – continuance commitment – affective commitment – normative commitment and the three foci of commitment: organisational commitment – job commitment – career commitment, the discussion focuses on career commitment which is the commitment of a person to a progression of related jobs in such a way that there is a direct benefit to the employee above and beyond that for the organisation and occupation. An analysis of contemporary research on the antecedents of career commitment finds seven factors of greater relevance to organisations.

These *seven factors* provide the drivers for organisation leaders which foster commitment in career oriented workers and professions. Through the establishment of a work environment which supports strong *collegiality*, *job satisfaction* and *feedback and support*, workers are more likely to develop a strong connection with their current place of work, and to their career. In addition, workers with an *internal locus of control*, and who have accumulated a number of *years in their profession* are also more likely to develop strong career commitment. Finally, *remuneration* and *roles states* will also impact on career commitment. Remuneration has a direct bearing on both career and organisational commitment. Role states have a negative effect on career commitment, as career committed people require a large degree of stability and continuity in their current job. Therefore enhancing commitment in career committed workers means carefully managing these factors relating to role states.

As career committed workers are much more mobile than organisationally committed workers due to a greater focus on internal drivers to satisfaction rather than organisationally determined drivers, poor management of a supportive work environment in accordance with these antecedents may lead to the loss of these valuable members to the next job in their career ascension. It is therefore important for management practitioners to understand the value and ubiquity of career commitment, and to know how to stimulate and retain career committed workers.

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