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Assessing the impact of human resource management (HRM) practices on organizational commitment: An examination of the role of temporal focus

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ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (HRM) PRACTICES ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: AN EXAMINATION OF THE ROLE OF TEMPORAL FOCUS

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Approval of Dissertation

We, the faculty supervising the work of Monty Clint Taylor, affirm that the dissertation, *Assessing the Impact of Human Resource Management (HRM) Practices on Organizational Commitment: An Examination of the Role of Temporal Focus*, meets the high academic standards for original scholarship and creative work established by the Brad D. Smith Graduate School of Business and the Lewis College of Business. The work also conforms to the requirements and formatting guidelines of Marshall University. With our signatures, we approve the manuscript for publication.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Abstract

This study explores how organizational commitment is associated with employee satisfaction regarding the human resource management (HRM) practices of training/development and compensation. Drawing on Affective Events Theory (AET), this research also examines the role of past temporal focus as a moderating variable of the proposed relationships. During times of historically low unemployment rates below 4% in the United States (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2024), organizations face major challenges in hiring and retaining employees to fill existing job vacancies (Conklin, 2022). Overall organizational stability (i.e., productivity and financial capabilities) is maintained when skilled employees are successfully recruited and trained as employees of the organization (Faloye, 2014). However, tens of millions of workers in the U.S resigned from their jobs as part of the "Great Resignation" seeking better working conditions, higher wages, and improved career prospects (Iacurci, 2023; Kaplan, 2021). Meanwhile, the labor force participation rate of 62.5 percent (Statista, 2024) remains "persistently low" (Hornstein et al., 2023). This study uses a cross-sectional survey design to assess how HRM functions (training/development and compensation) are associated with affective commitment and continuance commitment. The survey was created in Qualtrics and distributed via Prolific. For this study, it is predicted that employee satisfaction with training programs and compensation policies is positively associated with higher levels of affective commitment and continuance commitment. The analysis also assesses whether the individual's past temporal focus moderates the relationships between HRM practices and organizational commitment. The four hypotheses regarding direct relationships between satisfaction with HRM practices and organizational commitment were supported. Also, the moderating variable (past temporal focus) significantly weakened the relationship between compensation satisfaction and

affective commitment. Post hoc analysis was conducted using the control variables of age, education, and tenure. Overall, the results of this study offer practical direction for utilizing HRM strategies to improve organizational commitment, while also increasing understanding of the potential role of certain aspects of the individual's disposition (i.e., temporal focus). Interpretations of this study's findings, in relation to HRM and employee engagement literature, are presented. Managerial implications and suggestions for future research are also provided.

Keywords: Training, Compensation, Pay, Benefits, Organizational Commitment, Temporal Focus

Chapter 1: Introduction

Background to the Problem

As unemployment rates in the U.S. remain near historic lows (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2024), it is essential that organizations recruit and retain valuable human resources (cf. Barney, 1991; Wright et al., 1994). A high turnover rate of employees is associated with reduced productivity, loss of job knowledge, and lower motivation of employees who remain with the organization (Gan & Voon, 2021; Racz, 2000). Organizational commitment has been a primary research area for decades (cf. Buchanan, 1974; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Wołowska, 2014). Likewise, human resource management (HRM) practices (e.g., recruitment, training programs, performance evaluations, compensation policies) and their association with organizational commitment have been studied in various contexts (cf. Bulut & Culha, 2010).

Previous research (Jex & Britt, 2008) shows that the training function can increase employee commitment levels, thereby maintaining a valuable organizational resource (Barney, 1991). Notably, training is among the most common strategies for implementing changes within organizations (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Ideally, training initiatives promote commitment toward future change efforts.

However, Cullen et al. (2014) note that individual predispositions, along with employee perceptions of the work environment, are relevant to understanding employee reactions to organizational change. Their findings show that perceptions impact the performance levels and work attitudes of employees. In short, the success of an organizational change initiative is likely influenced by both the organization itself and individual employee differences (Cullen et al., 2014).

Additionally, HRM practices related to compensation may increase employees' organizational commitment. Lower satisfaction with pay is commonly associated with turnover intention. However, Lum et al. (1998) maintain that the underlying dynamics of the relationship between compensation and commitment should continue to be investigated. Likewise, other research (Gaertner, 1999) shows that pay level does not have a significant effect on organizational commitment.

Thus, offering adequate training to employees, while providing appropriate pay and benefits, is essential to maintaining an effective workforce. Previous researchers (Bastida et al., 2018) have examined how other factors (i.e. education, perceptions of pay, job characteristics) impact employee attitudes. Therefore, a study on organizational commitment levels of the current U.S. workforce should be informative to managers and employees within various organizational contexts.

Research Question

This study's primary research question addresses how an organization's HRM functions (namely, training/development programs and compensation practices) are associated with employees' organizational commitment levels, as moderated by the individual's temporal focus. The research model developed for this study is supported and explained through Affective Events Theory (AET) based on the work of Weiss & Cropanzano (1996).

Research Motivation

This study seeks to address the need for systematic HRM practices to achieve higher levels of organizational commitment among employees. Notably, certain dispositional factors (i.e. temporal focus) of this study's participants are potential moderating variables. Ideally, important practitioner insights of the ways in which HRM practices impact organizational

commitment can be gained, while considering the individual's temporal focus. More broadly, the results of this study will increase awareness of the interactions between an individual's dispositional characteristics (e.g. demographics, temporal focus) and situational factors (e.g. work environment, HRM practices) and their association with organizational commitment levels.

Engaged employees are more likely to drive innovation within the organization (Reilly, 2014); therefore, to improve employee engagement levels and achieve higher rates of employee retention, managers and leaders should demonstrate commitment to HRM functions. Nevertheless, Dessler (2020) notes that typically 30% of the U.S. workforce is engaged at their jobs; thus, many employees report a lack of engagement in their current work roles.

During the "Great Resignation" of 2021, over 38 million people in the U.S. quit their jobs in search of improved working conditions, higher wages, and better career opportunities (Kaplan, 2021). Furthermore, Iacurci (2023) states that over 50 million Americans quit a job in 2022 thereby surpassing the 2021 record. As of February 2024, the U.S. has a national unemployment rate of 3.9% (BLS, 2024). With unemployment rates in the U.S. near historic lows, many organizations struggle to fill available jobs. Hence, it is anticipated that organizations of all types may face difficulties in finding employees with necessary skills during periods of unusually high job vacancies (Conklin, 2022).

The U.S. labor force participation rate peaked at 67.1% in 1999-2000 (Statista, 2024). More recent figures reveal that the rate decreased slightly from 63.7 percent in 2012 to 62.2 percent in 2022. Notably, figures for early 2024 indicate that the labor force participation rate remains steady at 62.5 percent (Statista, 2024). These levels of workforce participation are "persistently low" (Hornstein et al., 2023). While stabilization in the labor market is a positive indicator, overall trends in the U.S. indicate that finding and hiring the right employees will

remain a challenge. As such, organizations must utilize best practices in their efforts to maintain sufficient human resources (Barney, 1991; Wright et al., 1994).

Importantly, cost estimates of employee turnover reveal that a comparatively small portion (15-30%) of the direct costs are related to recruiting and training expenses; however, the remaining 70-85% of employee turnover costs are due to reduced productivity, loss of job knowledge, as well as lower motivation levels of current employees (Gan & Voon, 2021; Racz, 2000).

Key components of effective HRM practices include selective recruiting, training and development, and competitive compensation policies for employees throughout the organization. Selective recruiting ensures the acquisition of top talent, while the training and development function ensures the continuous improvement of employee knowledge and skills. Furthermore, competitive compensation serves as a motivational tool, aligning employee efforts with organizational goals. When multiple HRM functions are used in a reinforcing way to improve organizational results, such practices comprise high performance work systems, often referred to as HPWS (Huselid, 1995; Zhai & Tian, 2022). Notably, dealing with unsuitable employees is often distressing for managers (Sareen, 2018). Thus, a more thoughtful process of hiring and retaining the most suitable employees may be associated with higher commitment levels among all members of the organization.

Purpose of the Study

To evaluate the effect of temporal focus on HRM practices, this study empirically assesses the theoretical research model presented in Figure 1. This model posits that an individual's temporal focus negatively moderates the positive relationships between human resource practices (e.g. training/development and compensation) and organizational commitment

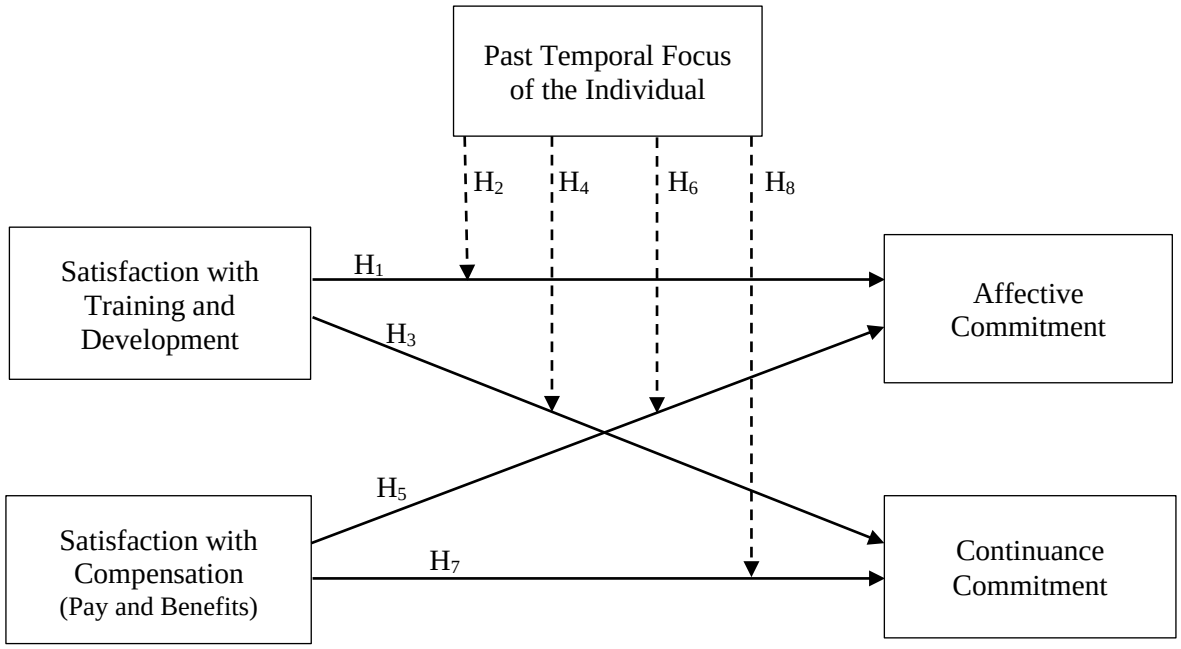
(affective commitment, continuance commitment). A list of the terminology is provided in Appendix C.

Research Model

This study examines the relationship between HRM practices and organizational commitment of employees. Employing a moderation model, the study proposes that an individual employee's attribution of past temporal focus reduces the main effect of HRM practices on organizational commitment. Moreover, the research model asserts that an individual's past temporal focus moderates the positive relationships between human resource management practices (e.g., training, development, pay, benefits) and two forms of organizational commitment (affective and continuance). The hypothesized variable relationships will be tested based on primary survey data. The research model for this study is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Research Model: Assessing Satisfaction with HRM Practices and Organizational Commitment with Moderation by Past Temporal Focus



Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter 1 provides the background to the research problem, the statement of the problem, and the purpose of this study. Additionally, Chapter 1 briefly describes the theoretical underpinnings of this research and presents a model which illustrates the constructs and proposed relationships involved in this study. One of the central tenets of this framework is the link between satisfaction with HRM practices and organizational commitment of employees. Chapter 2 comprises the Literature Review and Theoretical Framework. The chapter includes a review of the relevant literature, as related to training/development, compensation (pay and benefits), temporal focus, and organizational commitment. A discussion of employee satisfaction with HRM practices, along with a description of the study's supporting theory is also included in Chapter 2. Afterwards, the research hypotheses are provided in Chapter 3. Afterwards, Chapter 4 describes the design of the main study, including the population, sample frame, and measurement instruments. Additionally, demographic variables, survey design, data collection and analysis procedures to ensure reliability and validity, along with limitations of the study, are provided in Chapter 4. The methodology of the study is also detailed in Chapter 4, including a description of the sample and the methods of data collection and analysis. The results of the study are provided in Chapter 5. Next, Chapter 6 is comprised of the Discussion. Finally, Chapter 7 offers the Conclusion and implications of the study's findings.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

In Chapter 2, an overview of the literature related to the main constructs is provided, along with a description of the relevant theory – Affective Events Theory (AET) – which supports this study.

Literature on Satisfaction with HRM practices

Several intrinsic and extrinsic factors—described as "emotional catalysts" for organizational members—impact job satisfaction (Morgan et al., 1995). Intrinsic factors involve the nature of the work, specialization of tasks, availability of equipment to perform the job, etc. Extrinsic factors, on the other hand, influence job satisfaction as components which exist beyond (i.e. outside) the actual performance of the job's expected duties. Examples of extrinsic factors include compensation, organizational culture, and the broader work environment which may impact overall job satisfaction levels of employees.

Previous studies (Staw et al., 1986; Chordiya et al., 2019; Weiss & Adler, 1984) assess job satisfaction with an emphasis on "dispositional variables" while considering the contextual and situational factors (e.g. working conditions, supervision, job expectations) as moderators. Dispositional sources of job satisfaction are often explained by core self-evaluations (CSE) which is comprised of the following fundamental components: (1) self-esteem, (2) generalized self-efficacy, (3) locus of control, and (4) non-neuroticism (Judge et al., 1998).

Education level influences job satisfaction (Ganzach, 2003); specifically, higher education levels may affect the likelihood of securing more fulfilling job opportunities, potentially elevating job satisfaction levels. Nevertheless, individuals with higher education levels may experience reduced job satisfaction if their positions fail to meet expectations regarding rewards like salary and benefits (Ganzach, 2003).

While an employee's dispositional factors (i.e. traits, personality factors, education level) may affect job satisfaction, suitable HRM practices also positively impact job satisfaction levels. Notably, using data from the National Longitudinal Surveys of Labor Market Experience (NLS), Gerhart (1987) identifies that pay levels, status, and job complexity predict job satisfaction. As such, Gerhart emphasizes *"the importance of situational factors"* (p. 372) and their effects on job satisfaction.

Satisfaction with Training

The concept of training satisfaction involves *"how people feel about the different aspects of the job training they receive"* (Schmidt, 2009, p. 299). Thus, job training satisfaction is the extent to which people like the organization's training programs, as designed to increase knowledge and skills required for their jobs. Moreover, organizations seeking overall stability in productivity and finances must successfully train and retain knowledgeable and skilled employees (Faloye, 2014).

Previous researchers have explored the relationship between training satisfaction and its impact on various organizational outcomes. Training satisfaction increases organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) of employees (Rahman et al., 2021), whereas Memon et al. (2017) note that training satisfaction positively impacts OCB and reduces turnover intentions. Other research (Rahim Zumrah, 2013) assesses the mediating role of job satisfaction levels, as related to transfer of training and overall service quality. Likewise, Zubairi and Khan (2018) state that a positive correlation exists between training and job satisfaction and skill enhancement. This finding suggests that an emphasis on training boosts job satisfaction, motivates organizational members, and enhances employee skills.

Likewise, Bulut and Culha (2010) assess employees' overall perceptions of training programs, motivation for training, access to training, benefits from training and support for training. Their findings indicate that each of the training components included in their study positively impacts employees' organizational commitment levels.

Satisfaction with Compensation

Pay satisfaction is the *"amount of overall positive or negative affect (or feelings) that individuals have toward their pay"* (Miceli & Lane, 1991, p. 246). Pay satisfaction comprises independent elements of compensation, such as satisfaction with pay level, benefits, pay administration, and structure (Heneman & Schwab, 1985.)

Tella et al. (2007) state that four major components of pay structure exist to relative degrees within any organization: (a) job rate, which reflects the importance the organization attaches to each job; (b) payment which rewards employees according to their performance; (c) personal or special allowances which may be associated with scarcity of particular skills; and (d) fringe benefits (e.g., paid time off, paid holidays, pensions, retirement plans). Notably, Barber (1992) states that the implementation of a flexible benefit plan is often followed by higher levels of employee satisfaction with the benefits offered by an organization.

Literature on Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment refers to the degree of an individual's involvement and identification with a specific entity (Mowday et al., 1982). It aligns an employee's identification with the values and goals of the organization. Organizational commitment reflects a psychological state that defines the employee's relationship with the organization and impacts decisions of whether to continue membership with that organization. Typically, organizational commitment refers to a sense of belonging to an organization, a desire to remain a part of the

organization, and a willingness to work toward the organization's success. The affective dimension of organizational commitment involves an acceptance of organizational goals, employee's willingness to put forth substantial effort in workplace performance, as well as emotional attachment to the organization (Mowday et al., 1979).

Various and distinct models of organizational commitment exist. For example, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) offer a three-part model of organizational commitment with the following aspects: compliance, identification, and internalization. In their model, *compliance* refers to the adoption of attitudes to obtain certain rewards, whereas the component of *identification* involves individuals staying committed to an organization via positive, beneficial relationships. Conversely, *internalization* takes place when employees are dedicated to an employer because the attitudes and behaviors of the larger organization are perceived as being in line with one's own.

Predictors of organizational commitment may include the individual characteristics of an employee, organizational structure, and previous work experience (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Evidence exists for a link between organizational commitment and employee turnover as *"…employees who are strongly committed are those who are least likely to leave the organization"* (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1). Employees remaining at an organization typically wish to continue to be part of that organization (Simons & Roberson, 2003) and those employees displaying commitment to an organization are often more productive (Chao, 2018).

The conceptualization of organizational commitment most frequently used in research is the three-component model developed by Meyer and Allen (1987). Their construct of organizational commitment was further developed (Meyer & Allen, 1991) as a multidimensional construct derived from the psychological states of desire (i.e. "want to remain"), necessity (i.e.

"need to remain", and obligation (i.e. "ought to remain"). Their model for assessing organizational commitment is comprised of three separate components—namely, affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

The three dimensions of organizational commitment may be strengthened based on individual employee perceptions (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006). For example, responsibility, autonomy, and meaningful work are positively associated with increased commitment levels. Likewise, an individual's role (i.e. job position) within an organization is strongly associated with commitment levels (Sisodia & Das, 2013); significantly higher levels of organizational commitment occur among higher-ranking employees, as compared to employees of the lower hierarchical group. Additionally, a significant interaction effect of job autonomy and hierarchical level was discovered (Sisodia & Das, 2013), as related to job commitment among employees. However, their study reveals that higher levels of job autonomy among employees of the lower ranking employees does not improve overall organizational commitment.

An early study (Walton, 1985) notes that developing and increasing commitment levels of an organization's employees is of strategic importance. More recently, Knotts and Houghton (2021) posit that an individual's emotional attachment to an organization is associated with the utilization of motivation strategies (e.g., self-leadership). Furthermore, such strategies tend to be associated with increased work engagement levels (Knotts & Houghton, 2021).

To better understand the diversity among organizations and their employees, a meta-analysis (Cohen, 1992) explores whether organizational commitment and its antecedents—both personal and organizational—varied across distinct occupational groups. Results illustrate a stronger connection between organizational commitment and personal antecedents (e.g., education, marital status, tenure) for nonprofessional white-collar workers and blue-collar

workers, in comparison to professionals. However, differences across occupational groups are less consistent for the organization model—as reflected via role-related, structural, and work experience antecedents. Overall, Cohen's (1992) findings highlight the contrasting operation of two models within different occupational contexts, emphasizing the need for further development of the organizational commitment construct.

Gellatly et al. (2009) maintain that employee commitment based on the organization's HRM practices is not well understood for two primary reasons: limitations of prior research studies and the complex nature of employee commitment.

Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is *"the strength of people's desires to continue working for an organization because they agree with its underlying goals and values"* (Greenberg & Baron, 2008, p. 236). Affective commitment is associated with a desire to remain a member of the organization due to an individual's endorsement of the organization's values. Specifically, affective commitment is often reflected in a willingness to help the organization achieve its mission.

Schneider (1987) states that an organization's employees behave in specific ways for various reasons: 1) they are initially attracted to the organization because they perceive it as being similar to themselves; 2) they are selected by the organization because of such similarities; and 3) they maintain employment with the organization based on perceived a fit within that setting.

Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment reflects an employee's awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In some situations, employees are concerned that *"the losses of leaving a role, team or company are greater than the benefits of leaving (or*

losses due to staying)" (Envision Partners, 2022, p. 1); notably, continuance commitment often increases based on years of service, as well as promotions and pay raises which may have been received over several years. However, once the individual's minimum requirements of the job have been met, the effects of continuance commitment on workplace behavior are minimized (Luchak & Gellatly, 2007).

Normative Commitment

The concept of normative commitment involves a perceived or "felt" obligation to remain with an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Overall, normative commitment has received comparatively less attention by researchers (cf. Abdullah & Ramay, 2012). There are several reasons why normative commitment has been studied less. One such cause is that normative commitment is often considered conceptually complex, as compared to affective and continuance commitment. Ghosh et al., (2016) assessed employee engagement as a potential mediator between rewards and normative commitment. Notably, normative commitment is based on internalized norms and values, which appears to be more subjective and less straightforward to measure. As reflected in the research model, the focus of this study is on the two other components of affective commitment and continuance commitment.

Literature on Temporal Focus

Lewin (1951) notes the existence of an overarching "time perspective" as an aid to better understand individual behavior. Such a time perspective represents a fundamental psychological construct that permeates human motivation and numerous decision-making processes (Gonzalez & Zimbardo, 1985). Temporal focus reflects the natural inclination of people to reflect upon the various phases of their lives. Furthermore, the construct of temporal focus involves the extent to which individuals devote attention to the past, present, and/or future (Bluedorn, 2002). Similarly,

the definition and concept of temporal focus by Shipp et al. (2009) encompasses multiple forms of the dimension of time; notably, individuals may allocate their attention to the past, present, and/or the future (cf. Lewin, 1943; McGrath & Rotchford, 1983; Nuttin, 1985; Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999).

Time perspective can be conceptualized as an individual's distinctive cognitive style of processing information, shaped by a learned and preferred focus on one of the temporal dimensions: past, present, or future (Zimbardo, Keough, & Boyd, 1997). As this preference becomes ingrained over time, individuals tend to adopt a narrower temporal frame for engaging with the world; thus, a person's time perspective may eventually function as an enduring personality trait.

Previous studies on temporal focus traditionally categorize individuals into past, present, and future orientations. To describe the varying ways in which people allocate their attention, Shipp et al. (2009) maintain that the three types of temporal focus (i.e., past, present, and future) may exist at different levels within an individual. For example, one person may be equally focused on the present and future, whereas another individual may focus primarily on the future. Notably, using a single category to classify someone tends to create an artificial boundary which restricts a comprehensive understanding of the dynamic nature of temporal focus at the individual level (Shipp et al., 2009).

Indeed, people can consciously direct their attention based on various factors, such as roles, external stimuli, and experiences (Nuttin, 1985). As part of the human growth process, however, individuals tend to develop a general inclination towards focusing on specific time periods with varying degrees of intensity (Keough et al., 1999). The differing dimensions of temporal focus can be simultaneously low or high; thus, temporal focus dimensions have been

conceptualized as orthogonal variables (Shipp et al., 2009).

Shipp and Aeon (2019) state that research on temporal focus has become increasingly important. Fundamental questions exist with regard to the ideal way individuals allocate their attention (i.e. to the past, present, or future). Previous research (Fried & Slowik, 2004; Nuttin, 1985) reveals that an individual's current attitudes, behaviors, and decisions are impacted by temporal focus. For example, individuals having stronger future orientation may be more willing to engage in simpler, nonchallenging workplace assignments for longer periods of time (Fried & Slowik, 2004); this may be associated with a perception that such menial tasks are transitory and temporary. In sum, individuals with higher future orientations may have a relatively longer-term career perspective, as compared to those with lower future orientations.

An individual who overemphasizes one of the three temporal frames (i.e., past, present, or future) may develop a cognitive temporal bias (Zimbardo & Boyd, 2014). Eventually, this bias develops into the person's dispositional style which may reflect how an individual makes decisions in response to daily life events. Similarly, personality traits may reflect an interaction of environmental factors and biological influences on an individual (Gray & Watson, 2001).

The operation of a "time perspective" exists in people's lives, but most are unaware of its subtle influence. Zimbardo and Boyd (2014) maintain that such a time perspective provides the foundation on which other constructs are founded, including goal setting, risk taking, and achievement. Past focus is associated with neuroticism, trait anxiety, and external locus of control (Shipp et al., 2009; Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). Other studies (Drake et al., 2008; Rush & Grouzet, 2012; Zhang & Howell, 2011) link past focus with diminished self-esteem, increased depression, and overall life dissatisfaction.

Cernas Ortiz and Davis (2016) examine the impact of future and past negative time perspectives on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Their findings indicate that a future time perspective is positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, while a past negative time perspective is negatively associated with these measures of job attitudes. Furthermore, the effect of future time perspective on job satisfaction is stronger in Mexico compared to the U.S. Furthermore, individual dispositions of employees may influence their work-related attitudes and organizational effectiveness (Cernas Ortiz & Davis, 2016); hence, understanding the importance of time perspectives in the workplace deserves further attention of researchers.

Various forms of temporal focus are associated with a variety of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Previous research (Przepiorka & Blachnio, 2016; Rush & Grouzet, 2012) shows that past temporal focus is often linked to unfavorable outcomes. In a comprehensive review of past-focused literature, Shipp and Aeon (2019, pp. 38-39) conclude that "*higher past focus may be maladaptive, causing various types of emotional stress*."

Theoretical Framework

This study is guided by Affective Events Theory (AET) which provides a framework for understanding *"the role of work events as proximal causes of affective reactions"* (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996, p. 1). The basic tenet of AET is that workplace events often cause emotional reactions in employees, which in turn influence their attitudes and behaviors within the organizational context; notably, favorable work events tend to produce positive moods and emotions, whereas adverse events in the workplace are followed by negative moods and emotions. As an example, individuals with different dispositional traits may perceive (and respond to) the same workplace event in distinct ways. Thus, a person with a generally positive

disposition may react more favorably to a challenging task, while someone with a more negative disposition might find the same task overly stressful or frustrating.

An affective work event is *"an incident that stimulates appraisal of and emotional reaction to a transitory or ongoing job-related agent, object or event"* (Basch & Fisher, 1998, pp. 3-4). Within AET, desirable events (either temporary or continuous) are expected to produce positive emotional responses. For example, a positive scenario occurs when tasks that are perceived as being rewarding increase positive affect and improve job satisfaction levels (Wegge et al., 2006).

Likewise, unfavorable workplace events often trigger negative emotional reactions among the organization's employees. Situations such as an argument with a coworker, a visit from a supervisor to discuss a workplace issue, or a colleague's comment about other employment opportunities may influence one's feelings about a job (Miner et al., 2001). Thus, managers should be aware that job characteristics, job demands, emotional labor requirements, and work environments (e.g. physical and virtual) impact work attitudes and job satisfaction levels of employees (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). As an example, tasks that are perceived as being rewarding, challenging, and allow individuals to gain new skills tend to increase positive affect and improve job satisfaction levels (Wegge et al., 2006).

The focus of AET involves the *"structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work."* Accordingly, AET posits that affective experiences will lead to changes in attitudes and behaviors. Hence, both positive and negative emotions (as experienced by an individual) will influence workplace attitudes, such as loyalty, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Eventually, an individual's attitudes will begin to impact *judgement-driven behaviors* (Weiss & Cropanzano,

1996) with regard to HRM practices. Examples of such work-related behaviors are productive work, engaging in prosocial (or anti-social actions), or choosing to resign one's position in an organization. Likewise, the emotions experienced by an individual tend to influence *affect-driven behaviors* (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002), such as spontaneously helping a colleague, expending additional energy on job tasks, or other impulsive actions.

An individual's disposition can impact the manner in which workplace events produce affective reactions and responses (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). As a fundamental component of AET, affect levels will likely fluctuate over time. Therefore, the underlying causes of such patterns (with regard to affect) should be *"examined in terms of endogenous components, such as known cycles in mood or affective dispositions, and exogenous components, such affectively relevant events which constitute shocks to existing patterns"* (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996, p. 12).

Logan (2022) asserts that AET has gained widespread acceptance by researchers (cf. Tews & Noe, 2019). Accordingly, AET is used extensively as a theoretical foundation for research studies. By focusing on specific workplace experiences, AET encompasses employee cognitions, behaviors, and attitudes as related to events occurring within the work environment (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). As a component of the broader work environment, training programs which include enjoyable and engaging elements as part of their design and delivery are more likely to elicit positive reactions from the trainees (Tews & Noe, 2019). Hence, training environments which incorporate an entertaining format will likely provide a positive experience for employees.

Notably, AET states that environmental events often trigger affective (i.e. emotional) responses which impact the outcomes (both cognitive and behavioral) occurring within the organization and its employees (Logan, 2022). In other words, events occurring in the workplace

are known to affect employee moods and emotions which thereby have a substantial impact on employee attitudes and their workplace behaviors. In sum, AET emphasizes the ongoing, dynamic interplay between situational factors, individual dispositions, and emotional responses. AET contributes to an overall understanding of how an individual's emotions impact job satisfaction and employee performance in the workplace.

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has provided an overview of literature on Satisfaction with HRM practices, organizational commitment, temporal focus, and Affective Events Theory (AET).

Chapter 3: Research Hypotheses

This study empirically examines the relationships among HRM practices and organizational commitment levels. Eight hypotheses are tested in this study. With a foundation in Affective Events Theory (AET), this research assesses the interaction of HRM practices on organizational commitment, as moderated by the individual's past temporal focus. Specifically, the independent variables (IV) are satisfaction with training/development and satisfaction with compensation. The dependent variables (DV) are affective commitment and continuance commitment. The moderating variable of the proposed relationships is the individual's level of past temporal focus.

Research on HRM practices and the effects of employees' dispositional factors on organizational commitment remains an area worthy of further study. Brown and Petersen (1993) point out that individual differences may involve dispositional variables, as well as demographic aspects; they note that few studies exist on dispositional variables in relation to job satisfaction. In industries which experience frequent or ongoing change, organizations should develop ways to recruit and employ individuals with the dispositional tendency to adapt to changing environments and situations (Brown & Petersen, 1993).

Wołowska (2014) investigates whether dispositional variables (specifically, work locus of control and self-appraisal) substantially predict organizational commitment; results were mixed. Findings reveal that work environments (private vs. public) impact how organizations can increase commitment levels of employees. Thus, organizations should consider dispositional traits and utilize suitable personality measures to evaluate job applicants for various available positions of employment (Nikolaou et al., 2007).

Satisfaction with Training/Development and Affective Commitment

Successful human resource planning involves a coordinated, sustainable training function within the organization (Tanova & Nadiri, 2005). Meyer and Allen (1997) note that the availability of training opportunities may influence an employee's commitment to an organization; specifically, the perception of training as a form of organizational support enhances affective commitment, while perceiving training as a contractual obligation raises normative commitment. Additionally, employee perceptions of training as an investment in essential job skills may strengthen the individual's continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Historically, the role of training and its impact on job satisfaction received minimal attention until the correlation between employee training programs and increased job satisfaction became apparent (Siebern-Thomas, 2005). An emphasis on training and developing employees is generally viewed as a key component of HRM practices of successful organizations (Bartel, 1994; Huselid, 1995). Higher performing organizations provide a greater number of hours of training for new employees at 117 hours, as compared to lower performing companies which offer 35 training hours (on average) to new employees (Dessler, 2020). According to Hassett (2022), access to training and development is positively correlated with increased work engagement among federal employees; such correlations may exist within other industries, as well.

According to Mohd et al., (2020), employees expect a needs assessment to be conducted prior to the implementation of training activities; also, suitable training techniques are essential components of corporate training programs. As such, career development should be emphasized as part of mandatory training scenarios (Mohd et al., 2020). Similarly, the training component of an organization's HRM practices is often part of the broader socialization process (Meyer, 1997,

as cited in Robertson & Cooper, 2001). Hence, affective commitment is associated with employee perceptions of efforts that organizations with regard to training, as opposed to actual training experiences (Gaertner & Nollen, 1989).

Based on a study of millennials, Castro et al. (2023) state that organizations should offer adequate opportunities for employees to increase workplace responsibilities and improve skillsets for professional growth. Accordingly, such demands can be accommodated by increasing training and allowing employees to work on meaningful projects with more experienced employees as part of long-term development strategies (Brant & Castro, 2019; Mahmoud et al., 2021)

Thus, based on the research design and findings of the previous studies mentioned above, satisfaction with the training and development initiatives offered by an organization is predicted to be associated with affective commitment of employees. Likewise, it is predicted that an individual's past temporal focus will weaken the relationship between training satisfaction and affective commitment. As such, Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 are presented, as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Satisfaction with an organization's training/development program is positively related to affective commitment**.**

Hypothesis 2: A higher level of past temporal focus weakens the positive relationship between training satisfaction and affective commitment.

Satisfaction with Training/Development and Continuance Commitment

According to Day et al. (1998), employees with comparatively lower levels of job satisfaction are more likely to quit their positions and seek employment with other organizations. In a study of sales representatives, Brown and Petersen (1993) show that job satisfaction levels impact organizational commitment. Likewise, research (Johnston et al., 1990; Sager et al., 1988)

consistently reveals that a negative relationship exists between job satisfaction and turnover. Similarly, Steel and Rentsch (1995) demonstrate that job dissatisfaction is correlated with higher rates of employee turnover and absenteeism.

Ben Mansour et al. (2017) report that the construct for training satisfaction served as the independent variable and was measured via five statements adapted from the Schmidt (2007) scale. In their study, instead of asking participants about a specific training session or certain training materials, satisfaction with training reflects satisfaction with the overall training efforts of the organization. Such an approach accounts for employee needs and expectations at different points, including on-boarding, applicability of training, and employee development.

Wołowska (2014) examines locus of control as a dispositional variable. Results show that higher levels of work locus of control are a significant predictor of continuance commitment among employees in privately-owned companies, as well as state-run organizations. Similarly, this study assesses the individual's past temporal focus as a dispositional variable that may impact continuance commitment. Therefore, in accordance with previous studies (cf. Ben Mansour et al., 2017; Wołowska, 2014), satisfaction with training and development is predicted to be associated with the individual's level of continuance commitment. Likewise, it is predicted that an individual's past temporal focus will weaken the relationship between training satisfaction and continuance commitment. As such, Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4 are as follows:

Hypothesis 3: Satisfaction with an organization's training/development program is positively related to continuance commitment**.**

Hypothesis 4: A higher level of past temporal focus weakens the positive relationship between training satisfaction and continuance commitment.

Satisfaction with Compensation and Affective Commitment

Compensation positively influences organizational commitment and motivates employee performance (Awis & Indrayani, 2020). Thus, Awis and Indrayani (2020) emphasize the crucial role of fair compensation in enhancing employee satisfaction and commitment. Compensation is significantly associated with organizational commitment, as well as overall job satisfaction levels of employees (Nawab, 2011). Therefore, well-developed, appropriate compensation plans ensure that employees receive fair pay and benefits for their efforts within the workplace.

Luna-Arocas et al. (2020) show support for the partial mediating role of pay satisfaction in the relationship between HRM ("talent management") practices and organizational commitment. Thus, successful talent management involves matching appropriate compensation systems within a talent management system in order to retain skilled employees (Luna-Arocas et al., 2020). Additionally, Grover and Crooker (1995) demonstrate a positive relationship between family-responsive benefits and affective commitment. Such workplaces are perceived as having greater care and concern, as well as being fair to organizational members.

Thus, in accordance with the previous studies on employee compensation and affective commitment mentioned above, this study seeks to better understand the relationships among these components of the workplace. For this study, an individual's satisfaction with the compensation (pay and benefits) offered by an organization is predicted to be associated with affective commitment. Likewise, it is predicted that an individual's past temporal focus will weaken the relationship between compensation satisfaction and affective commitment. As such, Hypothesis 5 and Hypothesis 6 are presented, as follows:

Hypothesis 5: Satisfaction with compensation is positively related to affective commitment**.**

Hypothesis 6: A higher level of past temporal focus weakens the positive relationship between compensation satisfaction and affective commitment.

Satisfaction with Compensation and Continuance Commitment

Satisfaction with pay is associated with decreased intentions to leave an organization (Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008). Affective commitment and "perceived sacrifice" (as a component of continuance commitment) fully mediate the impact of comprehensive pay satisfaction (i.e., satisfaction with pay level, raises, benefits, and structure) on turnover intentions. This finding aligns with expectations, thereby emphasizing the role of compensation. Specifically, an employee's satisfaction with compensation is associated with feelings of support and justice—which are fundamental elements of organizational bonds.

A four-dimensional solution (level, benefits, raises, and structure/administration) provides a better representation of the variance for research in compensation (Heneman & Schwab, 1985). Their research explores the relationships among pay satisfaction and various dependent variables. Specific dimensions of pay satisfaction may correlate with certain variables but not others; likewise, the impact of the four pay satisfaction dimensions (combined) might exceed that of individual pay satisfaction dimensions on a given dependent variable (Heneman & Schwab, 1985).

In a study of employment relationships and values of Millennials, Castro et al. (2023) state that accurate job descriptions, as well as communicating the values and benefits of working for an organization, are essential aspects of retaining talented employees; likewise, health insurance, as well as indirect financial benefits, tend to impact the retention of employees. Citing a New York Times and CBS poll, Newman and Gerhart (2020) state that approximately 30

percent of U.S. employees have remained at a job they wanted to leave due to their unwillingness to forego the benefit of employer-provided health insurance.

Previous research on pay transparency as related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment has produced conflicting results. Belogolovsky and Bamberger (2014) find that participants are less inclined to remain in a group to complete any additional tasks when "pay secrecy" policies are established. Nevertheless, Day (2012) states that pay transparency and organizational commitment are not associated.

Overall, previous research has shown inconclusive findings regarding employee satisfaction with the pay and benefits offered by an organization and their impact on continuance commitment. This study predicts that higher levels of compensation satisfaction are associated with higher levels of continuance commitment. Likewise, it is predicted that an individual's past temporal focus will weaken the relationship between compensation satisfaction and continuance commitment. As such, Hypothesis 7 and Hypothesis 8 are presented, as follows:

Hypothesis 7: Satisfaction with compensation is positively related to continuance commitment**.**

Hypothesis 8: A higher level of past temporal focus weakens the positive relationship between compensation satisfaction and continuance commitment.

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has provided the hypotheses of this study. The research will assess the following relationships: (1) satisfaction with training/development activities and organizational commitment (affective and continuance), as moderated by past temporal focus of the individual; and (2) satisfaction with compensation policies and organizational commitment (affective and continuance), as moderated by past temporal focus of the individual.

Chapter 4: Methodology

This chapter describes the design and methods of this research, including an overview of the study, survey development, measurement instruments, description of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) process, and a brief description of the data analysis procedures.

Overview of the Study

This study utilizes a cross-sectional, quantitative, and nonexperimental research design to better understand the interrelationships among the variables of interest (Fowler, 2014). A quantitative study design is appropriate when established theories exist, as related to the concepts being studied (Bryman & Bell, 2011); additionally, a quantitative approach is suitable because the data obtained via surveys is structured and can be numerically measured (Bryman & Bell). This correlational study will reveal the degree of relationships among the relevant variables, in order to assist managers in making predictions (cf. Christensen et al., 2015).

Surveys typically include a predetermined set of questions and/or statements designed to capture data from participants regarding their beliefs and individual characteristics (Hair et al., 2016). According to Hair et al. (2020), a survey-based study allows researchers to better understand these variable relationships. For this study, responses are obtained via Likert scales, multiple-choice items, and open-ended questions to gather data from the research participants.

Survey Development

An online survey was the primary source of collecting data for this study. Data for items included in this analysis were collected via a single-source, self-report questionnaire. According to Podsakoff et al. (2012), a single-source data collection method is appropriate when both the independent variables and dependent variables reflect the participant's beliefs, feelings, and perceptions. Likewise, self-report survey items are appropriate measures based on the expectation that *"...people are able to report many internal states including attitudes, emotions,*

perceptions, and values" (Spector, 2006, p. 229). Furthermore, self-rated scales provide respondents with an opportunity to describe their own characteristic behaviors, psychological states, as well as future behavioral intentions (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986); likewise, self-reports allow participants to engage in higher-order cognitive processing by transcending the mere reporting of facts or describing specific situations.

The majority of questions in this survey are Likert-scale questions. Demographic questions are included, as well as questions regarding debt levels, home ownership status, and marital status. The survey has work-related questions about overall job satisfaction levels and the presence of flexible work arrangements. The survey instrument also includes three (3) open-ended questions which offer participants an opportunity to provide additional input via written comments, particularly regarding affective workplace events.

Analysis of the survey data is expected to reveal the extent to which statistically significant relationships exist among the variables, the direction of the relationships, as well as the strength of the association between the variables. For this study, the data that were analyzed include perceptions about HRM practices (namely, training/development, pay and benefits), organizational commitment, and the predicted moderating variable of temporal focus. The survey instrument was created in Qualtrics and disseminated via Prolific.

Measurement Instruments

The survey items analyzed for this study are based on previously established scales. With regard to measuring satisfaction with HRM practices as the independent variables for this study, the constructs of 'Satisfaction with Training/Development' and 'Satisfaction with Compensation' were measured via the Job Training and Job Satisfaction Survey (JTJSS) developed by Schmidt (2007) which measures employee attitudes regarding job training and job

satisfaction. Consisting of three parts: 1) organizational support for training, 2) employee feelings about training and development, and 3) employee satisfaction with training, the JTJSS includes Likert-style questions to measure employee attitudes.

To assess the construct of 'Past Temporal Focus' as the moderator, this study uses the Temporal Focus Scale (TFS). See Shipp et al. (2009). Selected items from the Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI) are also utilized. See Zimbardo & Boyd (1999). This survey includes items associated with the past-positive and past-negative perspectives of the ZPTI.

For the dependent variables in this research study, the constructs of 'Affective Commitment' and 'Continuance Commitment' are assessed using the Organizational Commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1997). Their scale is a well-established method for determining an individual employee's level of organizational commitment across three dimensions: affective, continuance, and normative. The Organizational Commitment scale is comprised of twenty-three (23) items. In accordance with their original design, this study utilizes the 7-point Likert type response format for participants' responses.

The survey includes eight (8) items from the established scales noted above to represent each of the following five (5) constructs for this study: "Satisfaction with Training (TRS)", "Satisfaction with Compensation (COM)", "Affective Commitment (AFFC)", "Continuance Commitment (CONC)", and "Temporal Focus: Past Focus (PAF)." Survey items are based on a 7-point Likert type response format. Each of the constructs for the independent variables (TRS, COM) and the dependent variables (AFFC and CONC) utilizes a seven-point scale (e.g., 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7= Strongly Agree). The scale for the moderator (PAF) is also measured on a seven-point scale (namely, 1 = Never to 7 = Constantly). Minor modifications were made to the original scale items, which is consistent with current practices in research. See Appendix D for

the full scales utilized in creating the survey items for this study.

According to Hair et al. (2019), scales originally developed with five response points should be revised to a minimum of seven points to increase the variability in participant responses, thereby strengthening the accuracy of statistical analyses. Hence, some measures in this study were modified from the original Likert scales to a seven-point Likert scale. The five constructs and the corresponding scale items for this survey are provided in Table 1.

Table 1

Survey Questions - Scale Items for the Five Constructs

Affective Commitment (AFFC): Meyer and Allen (1997); Allen and Meyer (1990 & 1996)	
AFFC 1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
AFFC 2	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
AFFC 3	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
AFFC 4	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (R)
AFFC 5	I feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.
AFFC 6	I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.
AFFC 7	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
AFFC 8	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.
Continuance Commitment (CONC): Meyer and Allen (1997); Allen and Meyer (1990 & 1996)	
CONC 1	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.
CONC 2	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
CONC 3	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.
CONC 4	It would be too costly for me to leave my organization now.
CONC 5	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
CONC 6	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
CONC 7	One of the consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
CONC 8	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

Satisfaction with Training (TRS): Schmidt (2007)

TRS 1	My department provides learning/training opportunities to meet the changing needs of my workplace.
TRS 2	I view my education on-the-job as a continuous, lifelong endeavor.
TRS 3	In my department, learning is planned and purposeful rather than accidental.
TRS 4	The on-the-job training that I receive is applicable to my job.
TRS 5	The training that I receive on the job meets my needs.
TRS 6	I am proactive in seeking ways to improve what I do.
TRS 7	Training and development are encouraged and rewarded in my department.
TRS 8	I am generally able to use what I learn in on-the-job training in my job.

Satisfaction with Compensation (COM): Schmidt (2007)

COM 1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.
COM 2	There is too little chance for promotion at my organization. (R)
COM 3	I am satisfied with the benefits I receive.
COM 4	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.
COM 5	Raises are too few and far between. (R)
COM 6	Those who do well on the job have a fair chance of being promoted.
COM 7	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.
COM 8	I feel appreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.

Past Focus (PAF): Shipp et. al (2009); Zimbardo and Boyd (1999)

PAF 1	I replay memories of the past in my mind.
PAF 2	I reflect on what has happened in my life.
PAF 3	I think about things from my past.
PAF 4	I think back to my earlier days.
PAF 5	I think about what I should have done differently in my life.
PAF 6	I get nostalgic about my childhood.
PAF 7	I find myself tuning out when coworkers talk about the way things used to be. (R)
PAF 8	I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.

Control Variables

Control variables are often included in research studies in an effort to rule out alternative explanations of findings (Schmitt & Klimoski, 1991) and to increase statistical power while reducing error terms (cf. Schwab, 1999). Although researchers may wish to rule out the possibility of any alternative causes, it is impossible to observe the effect of every potential

variable on the correlation between the IV and the DV (Zikmund et al., 2010). Therefore, researchers seek to identify the most likely "third variable" that significantly impacts the proposed relationships; in doing so, the researcher statistically controls for such variables in a manner that is based on research and logic (Zikmund et al., 2010). Nevertheless, Becker (2005) states research studies often include control variables without providing sufficient rationale for their inclusion into the models and analysis. Ideally, control variables are based on substantial relation to the independent and dependent variables within a given study, as a way of eliminating alternative explanations for variance within the dependent variables (Spector, 2019).

Previous researchers (Bernerth et al., 2018; Mondy, 2023) maintain that common demographic variables such as gender, age, and education should not be used as control variables unless a clear and compelling theoretical rationale exists which aligns with the purpose of the research study. Notably, such variables are frequently used as convenient proxies in place of conceptually meaningful variables (Bernerth et al., 2018).

One goal of this present study is to provide a more nuanced understanding of workplace diversity, not confined to traditional concepts of race, gender, and generational differences (i.e. Baby Boomers, Generation X, Millennials, Gen Z, and Alpha). Notably, the survey instrument created for this study does not include questions regarding the race or ethnicity of participants, nor was gender a survey question in this research. The demographic data regarding gender was provided by Prolific, having been obtained from individuals when establishing their online account profiles within the platform.

Thus, following the recommendations of Bernerth et al. (2018) and other researchers (Xu et al., 2021), consideration was given to the necessity of controlling age and gender in analyzing the primary data obtained in this study. Preliminary data analysis reveals that common socio-

demographic variables such as these are not significantly associated with temporal focus; therefore, the primary analysis of this study did not control for such common demographic variables when testing the research hypotheses. It is hoped that a broader view of temporal focus (a form of deep-level diversity, as opposed to surface-level aspects) will result from this procedure.

Post hoc analysis will be conducted to assess the influence of demographic variables (specifically, age, education, and tenure) as control variables impacting the relationships assessed in this study. Cohen (1993) conducted a meta-analysis to assess the relationships between age and tenure on levels of organizational commitment across different time frames of employment stages. Findings indicate that the associations between age, tenure, and organizational commitment tend to differ depending on the individual's stage of employment. In the early career stage, organizational commitment levels vary based on opportunities and attractive alternatives (Mowday et al., 1982; Rusbult & Farrel, 1983). For example, individuals who are *"…in the early career stage face the contradictory tasks of making commitments and keeping options open"* (Cohen, 1993, p.146). Thus, employees in the early stages of their careers may seek establishment in a current role, but they remain willing to switch organizations if necessary (Ornstein, Cron, & Slocum, 1989; Ornstein & Isabella, 1990). As such, age may significantly influence organizational commitment during early stages, thereby reflecting an impact on commitment levels based on perceived opportunities and alternative employment options.

Data Collection Procedures

In addition to the forty (40) items provided above, participants were asked to indicate the following about their work settings: the industry in which they are currently employed, length of employment at the organization, how long they have worked in their current position in the

organization, size of the organization (i.e. total number of employees at their location), and average number of hours worked per week. Participants were pre-screened via available parameters in Prolific before being invited to this research study.

At the beginning of the survey, instructions state that the individual is to complete the survey based upon his or her experience as a full-time employee residing in the U.S. Furthermore, the instructions inform participants that one's current and primary job/workplace should be considered while completing this survey. Additional clarifying statements indicate that the term "organization" refers to the organization where the individual is currently employed. For this study, individuals employed at any type of organization were eligible to complete the survey. This method increases external validity and minimizes the inherent bias of including participants from a single organization (Geddes, 1993).

Institutional Review Board (IRB) Process

This study received approval (IRB #2083717-2) from Marshall University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). Data collection procedures and the maintenance of collected survey data comply with IRB requirements. The IRB approval letters are in Appendix A. The participant consent form is in Appendix B.

Pilot Study

The survey instrument was developed within the Qualtrics platform. Before sending the survey link to the actual participants in this study, the survey (in a 'beta' format) was sent to several business professionals for their feedback. This initial phase of the pilot study provided an opportunity to gather suggestions for improving the data collection processes. Likewise, the adequacy and feasibility of this research were confirmed. During this stage of the pilot study, respondents provided suggestions for minor modifications. Based on the overall positive

feedback, the second phase of the pilot study (N = 30) was conducted in Prolific to ensure the appropriateness of the questionnaire and reliability of the measurement scales.

Design of Main Study

A cross-sectional survey design based on self-reported responses was utilized to test the conceptual model. The primary data collection process utilized an online survey administered in Qualtrics. Participants were recruited via Prolific (www.prolific.com), a large-scale online data collection platform founded in 2014. Prolific was developed by researchers to carefully vet and appropriately compensate individuals who agree to participate in survey-based research. Prolific allows researchers to select participants from a pool of more than 120,000 trusted individuals by choosing among 250 demographic filters. For this study, individuals were pre-screened before selection and self-reported as having employment status of at least 31 hours per week. Furthermore, the sample frame was limited to individuals who had completed between 50 and 500 surveys within the Prolific platform.

Respondents matching the inclusionary conditions via the Prolific platform and criteria for this study were invited to participate and directed to the survey in Qualtrics. The survey begins with a consent form that introduces the study. The consent form provides information about the purpose and potential research value of the study, indicates the estimated survey completion time, and describes how the survey results would be used. Respondents were informed that they would be compensated $5 (five US dollars) for participating in the study. Participants were also advised that they maintained the right to refuse to answer any question, could withdraw from the survey at any time, and that no risks were anticipated for participation in the survey. To proceed with the survey, respondents were required to indicate their consent to participate in the study and affirm that they are at least 18 years of age.

Sampling frame

In the context of behavioral research, the population is comprised of the specific group to which a researcher intends to generalize their findings, and from which a sample is subsequently chosen (Thompson, 2006). Due to the nature of most sampling selection processes, not all individuals within the population have a chance to be included in the sample. As such, individuals who have a chance of inclusion for the research project constitute the study's sampling frame (Fowler, 2014).

The survey obtains demographic information of the respondents. Staw (1984) states that *"…pension plans, number of children in school, home ownership, and friendship patterns…" (p. 643)* are examples of the potential bonds (economic and psychological) which may impact organizational commitment. These elements may be considered when evaluating employee attitudes due to the potential impact of experiences and individual values on organizational commitment levels (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). For this study, the demographic data requested from participants consisted of the respondent's age, highest level of education, family size, occupation, annual income, home ownership status, marital status, and consumer debt levels, total years of employment with the organization, and employer size (i.e. number of employees).

Data Analysis Methods

Data was analyzed using SPSS / AMOS software packages. SPSS was utilized for the initial descriptive analysis, bivariate correlation analysis, and exploratory factor analysis. Smart PLS was used for determining validity and reliability. Afterwards, AMOS was used for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Each hypothesis was tested using SPSS for simple regression analysis (H1, H3, H5, and H7) and multiple regression analysis (H2, H4, H6, and H8).

Respondents were asked to provide information regarding their individual work settings:

the industry in which they are currently employed, length of employment at the organization (i.e. tenure), how long they have held their current position in the organization, size of the organization (total number of employees at their location), and average number of hours worked per week. With regard to gender, the demographic information provided by Prolific reveals that 52.1% of the respondents are female, 45.8% are male, and 2.1% responded with n/a.

The two largest age groups of respondents (35.9% and 28.4%) are 25-34 years of age and 35-44 years of age, respectively. As for participants' education status, 3.9% had completed high school only, while 44.3% held bachelor's degrees, and 20.3% had obtained a master's degree. The analysis also reveals that 36.2% of participants are employed in front-line positions, 24.5% are employed as mid-level managers, and 20.3% work as supervisor/team leaders. For additional information, refer to Table 2 which includes demographic characteristics of survey participants.

For this study, a total of 400 responses were obtained. Following the guidelines of Curran (2016) surveys were checked for straight lining of responses. None of the surveys in this study indicated that straight lining had occurred. However, sixteen (16) surveys contained more than 20% missing values of survey items and were removed from the dataset. Thus, 384 survey responses were utilized for the data analysis. Among the remaining 384 surveys, none exceeded 15% of missing data (c.f. Hair et al., 2019); thus, these surveys were retained. However, a small quantity of missing data items were replaced with average scale scores (cf. Chen, 2013).

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of Survey Participants

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Age		
Under 25 years	26	6.8%

25-34 years	138	35.9%
35-44 years	109	28.4%
45-54 years	71	18.5%
55-64 years	34	8.9%
65 years or older	6	1.6%
Highest Education Level Obtained		
High School/GED	15	3.9%
Some college	61	15.9%
Associate degree	32	8.3%
Bachelor's Degree	170	44.3%
Some Graduate-level coursework	11	2.9%
Master's Degree	78	20.3%
Doctoral Degree	17	4.4%
Gender		
Female	200	52.1%
Male	176	45.8%
n/a	8	2.1%
Marital Status		
Single	159	41%
Engaged	26	7%
Married	164	43%
Other	35	9%
Industry Sector		
Education	38	9.9%
Energy	5	1.3%
Entertainment	9	2.3%
Financial	38	9.9%
Government	19	4.9%
Healthcare	50	13.0%
Manufacturing	25	6.5%
Nonprofit	12	3.1%
Production	9	2.3%

Professional	23	6.0%
Restaurant	4	1.0%
Retail	35	9.1%
Technology	59	15.4%
Other (please specify)	58	15.1%

Current Job Level

Front line employee	139	36.2%
Mid-level manager	94	24.5%
Self-employed	29	7.6%
Senior/executive manager	22	5.7%
Supervisor/team leader	78	20.3%
Other (please specify)	22	5.7%

Workplace/Organization Number of Employees

Under 10 employees	44	11.5%
10 to 39 employees	52	13.5%
40 to 99 employees	50	13.0%
100 to 299 employees	72	18.8%
300 to 499 employees	27	7.0%
500 or more employees	139	36.2%

Length of Time at current organization (Tenure)

1 to 3 years	169	44%
4 to 6 years	74	19%
7 to 10 years	63	16%
11 to 15 years	34	9%
Over 15 years	44	11%

Hours per week work

1-15 hours per week	4	1%
16-30 hours per week	12	3%
31-40 hours per week	173	45%
40+ hours per week	195	51%

Annual Salary		
Under $20,000	15	4%
Between $20,000 and 39,999	48	13%
Between $40,000 and 59,999	90	23%
Between $60,000 and 79,999	91	24%
Between $80,000 and 99,999	50	13%
$100,000 or higher	90	23%
	n = 384	

Data Analysis Procedures

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and regression were implemented to examine the eight hypotheses. The five constructs and their corresponding labels are Satisfaction with Training (TRS), Satisfaction with Compensation (COM), Affective Commitment (AFFC), Continuance Commitment (CONC), and Past Focus (PAF).

In exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, the sample size should be at least five times the number of survey items (Tanaka, 1987). Each construct noted above included eight (8) scale items for a total of 40 items. For this research, a minimum of 200 observations would be required. The final number of survey respondents includes 384 valid responses which exceeds the requirements for conducting exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Notably, the five constructs for this study are reflective constructs (instead of formative constructs) for conducting the confirmatory factor analysis. To test the hypotheses, regression analysis (along with moderation analysis) was utilized to determine the results for this study. SPSS is utilized to run exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and regression analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is performed using AMOS.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was applied to determine if the set of items from "Affective commitment: AFFC", "Continuance Committee: CONC", "Satisfaction with Training: TRS", "Satisfaction with Compensation: COM", and "Past Focus: PAF" could be statistically supported. Initially, a total of 40 items in the survey questionnaire for this study comprised the following constructs: AFFC (8 survey items), CONC (8 survey items), TRS (8 survey items), COM (8 survey items), and PAF (8 survey items).

Principal components analysis (PCA) technique was utilized for this research by using Oblique-Promax rotations to extract the constructs. Some of the advantages of PCA include the following: the assumption that no errors are present in the items, precise mathematical solutions are produced, no assumption of underlying constructs, as well as obtaining factors with maximize variance explained. Deleting internally inconsistent items strengthens internal consistency among the variables (Dess & Beard, 1984). The cut point is determined at 0.4. Thus, items with less than 0.4 factor loadings are deleted. Some items had cross-loadings on multiple factors/components. Likewise, survey items (i.e. variables) with high cross-loadings of above 0.3 on more than one factor were removed.

One of the outputs for PCA is the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of multicollinearity as a measure of sampling adequacy. Higher values of KMO ensure that there are enough shared variances to affirm a factor analysis. For this study, the output for KMO value of 0.897 satisfies the principal components analysis.

Furthermore, PCA requires that probability related to Bartlett's Test of Sphericity be less than the level of significance. The value of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for this output is <0.001 less than the level of significance. Therefore, the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix. To

determine how many factors are extracted from the data, this study examines both Kaiser criterion of eigenvalues (greater than 1) and Scree plot (i.e., looking for bend).

Kaiser criterion of eigenvalues demonstrate that a total of seven factors/components which are extracted from the data to explain 67% of total variance. While many values are close to each other, a value of seven is obtained as the value when the Scree plot-line bends. The table of Rotated Component Matrix (Promax) is inspected so that only five factors/components are extracted. Thus, the pattern matrix component table provides the five interpreted constructs, along with three to seven items for each construct. Thus, a total of 28 items are included in the statistical analysis: affective commitment (7), continuance commitment (7), satisfaction with training (3), satisfaction with compensation (5), and past focus (6). Please see Table 3 below for detailed information regarding the loading of each item for exploratory factor analysis.

To improve Cronbach's Alpha and prevent potential cross-loading issues, twelve (12) items were removed from the constructs. Specifically, the twelve (12) items removed are: Affective Commitment: AFFC4; Past Focus: PAF6, PAF7; Continuance Commitment: CONC1; Compensation Satisfaction: COM2, COM5, COM6; Training Satisfaction: TRS1, TRS2, TRS3, TRS6, TRS7. The remaining twenty-eight (28) items included in the analysis are presented below in Table 3.

Table 3

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Pattern Matrix

Scale Items	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1: AFFC					
AFFC 6	0.952				
AFFC 7	0.908				
AFFC 8	0.877				
AFFC 5	0.874				

AFFC 3	0.834			
AFFC 2	0.628			
AFFC 1	0.604			
Factor 2: PAF				
PAF4		0.865		
PAF3		0.860		
PAF1		0.833		
PAF2		0.809		
PAF5		0.735		
PAF8		0.654		
Factor 3: CONC				
CONC4			0.864	
CONC3			0.847	
CONC2			0.739	
CONC7			0.737	
CONC6			0.726	
CONC8			0.646	
CONC5			0.602	
Factor 4: COM				
COM3				0.962
COM7				0.933
COM1				0.846
COM8				0.701
COM4				0.598
Factor 5: TRS				
TRS4				0.946
TRS8				0.902
TRS5				0.833

First, multicollinearity is calculated to determine the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) for the predictor variables. This allows researchers to observe any collinearity issues which might affect the latent variables. Generally, the VIF should be lower than ten to assure independence of errors (Hair et al., 1998). If the VIF is higher than 10, multicollinearity would cause a concern. In

this study, the VIF values for all indicators ranged from 1.557 to 5.622. As these values are lower than 10, it appears that no collinearity problems exist among the items/constructs of this study.

Reliability and Validity

In research studies using primary quantitative data, the concepts of validity and reliability must be properly addressed. When a measure accurately assesses the concept which it is designed to measure, the assessment tool is described as valid (Bryman & Bell, 2011), whereas a reliable measure is consistent. The survey scales utilized in this study have been previously validated and tested for internal reliability via measures of Cronbach's alpha. The items chosen for this survey appear to accurately reflect the concepts investigated, thereby providing face validity for this research. Face validity is sufficient when the *"...measure apparently reflects the content of the concept in question…"* (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 160).

The survey scale components utilized in this study were previously validated and tested for internal reliability using Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha values for this study's sample were computed as well. Construct reliability was assessed via Cronbach's coefficient alpha and composite reliability (CR) on the five constructs. The general principle for Cronbach's alpha is recommended as at least 0.70 as the lower limit for reliability (Hair et al., 2006).

Cronbach's alpha is often utilized to evaluate the inter-item reliability of multi-item scales with the desired goal of $\alpha \geq 0.70$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In this study, Cronbach's alpha (CA) values for all five constructs (AFFC, CONC, TRS, COM, and PAF) ranged from 0.930 to 0.810 which is greater than the criteria of 0.70. Moreover, composite reliability values are from 0.937 to 0.886, which indicates acceptable reliability, as these values exceed 0.70.

Convergent validity was assessed to determine how well the items load on the respective latent variables. Average variance extracted (AVE) was implemented to calculate the amount of variance in each construct relative to the amount of variance caused by measurement error. In other words, AVE reveals how much of the variance is explained by a specific construct, as opposed to variance explained by measurement error.

To ensure convergent validity at the indicator and construct levels, the AVE should be greater than 0.5. The AVE values in this study ranged from 0.924 to 0.709 (at the construct level) which are greater than 0.5. The square root of each AVE is observed for the discriminant validity. The AVE should be greater than 0.5 and exceed the related inter-construct correlations for reflective constructs. For this study, the square roots of AVE are greater than the related inter-construct correlations.

Additionally, the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlation is produced to verify the discriminant validity based on the variance-based view. An HTMT value higher than .85 indicates a lack of discriminant validity. For this study, all of the HTMT values (ranging from 0.628 to 0.111) from the comparison constructs are below the HTMT threshold of 0.85. This further confirmed that no discriminant validity issues were present among the latent constructs. Thus, construct reliability (Cronbach alpha and composite reliability), convergent validity (AVE), and discriminant validity (HTMT) are acceptable and meet the necessary criteria. See Table 4: Summary of Validity Measurements.

Table 4

Summary of Validity Measurements

	CA	CR	AVE	AFFC	CONC	TRS	COM	PAF
Affective Comm. (AFFC)	0.930	0.937	0.709	**0.842**				

Continuance Comm. (CONC)	0.881	0.887	0.582	0.326	**0.762**			
Sat. with Training (TRS)	0.810	0.856	0.722	0.429	0.122	**0.878**		
Sat. with Compen. (COM)	0.875	0.898	0.663	0.628	0.148	0.485	**0.814**	
Past Focus (PAF)	0.903	0.923	0.669	0.116	0.231	0.111	0.318	**0.817**

CA=Cronbach alpha, CR=composite reliability, AVE=average variance extracted

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Prior to testing the research hypotheses, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were conducted to test the discriminant validity of the variables/construct measures in this study. Estimating the measurement model for latent variable using the observed indicators involves specifying the relationship between the latent variable and its indicators (e.g. factor loadings) and estimating the model parameters using techniques such as maximum likelihood estimation. Field (2009) recommends that scales produce factor loadings which are higher than 0.30. Thus, certain items were removed from further analysis. A total of 28 items comprises the five latent constructs (AFFC: 7, CONC: 7, TRS: 3, COM: 5, and PAF: 6). Item loadings exceeded 0.7 with significant t-values. Thus, the measurement scales and loadings for the five constructs provide a model fit for the estimated hypotheses model. See Table 5: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for item loadings.

Table 5

Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Measurement Scales and Loadings

Constructs/Indicators	Outer Loading	T-Stat
Affective Commitment: AFFC		
AFFC 8	0.933	29.418

AFFC 7	0.908	27.512
AFFC 6	0.892	27.027
AFFC 5	0.881	25.612
AFFC 3	0.715	17.278
AFFC 1	0.692	16.406
AFFC 2	0.621	14.015
Continuance Commitment: CONC		
CONC2	0.740	13.178
CONC4	0.733	19.313
CONC3	0.717	18.892
CONC6	0.704	12.516
CONC5	0.681	12.214
CONC7	0.669	11.901
CONC8	0.662	11.886
Satisfaction with Training: TRS		
TRS5	0.828	14.413
TRS4	0.822	14.308
TRS8	0.650	12.246
Satisfaction with Compensation: COM		
COM8	0.871	12.085
COM1	0.812	11.674
COM4	0.750	11.130
COM7	0.668	16.352
COM3	0.588	8.725
Past Focus: PAF		
PAF3	0.829	23.155
PAF1	0.795	15.203
PAF8	0.760	14.662
PAF4	0.776	16.657
PAF2	0.726	13.713
PAF5	0.704	13.524

To further determine the estimated model fit, chi-square, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), normed fit index (NFI), goodness of fit

index (GFI), and incremental fit index (IFI) for measurement model are included. A normed Chi-square value of 2.0 indicates the model adequately represents the data. The normed Chi-square value for this study is 2.07 which confirms that the model adequately represents the data.

The common practice for determining a good model fit (CFI, NFI, GFI, and IFI) is that values should be greater than 0.9. The comparative fit index (CFI), normed fit index (NFI), goodness of fit index (GFI), and incremental fit index (IFI) are 0.949, 0.907, 0.884, and 0.949, respectively. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is an assessment of model fit that is not dependent on sample size (Hair et al., 1998). With a value of 0.053 (between 0.05 and 0.1), this represents a reasonable model fit for this study (Browne & Mels, 1994). The measurement model statistics are reported in Table 6: Measurement Model Fit.

Table 6

Measurement Model Fit

Model fit measure	CFA
Degree of freedom (d.f.)	334
χ^2 – Test statistic	692.325
Normed χ^2 (χ^2 /d.f.)	2.07
RMSEA Point Est	0.053
Comparative fit index (CFI)	0.949
Normed fit index (NFI)	0.907
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	0.884
Incremental fit index (IFI)	0.949

Latent constructs are verified with confirmatory factor analysis for five constructs from the above procedures. Next, data imputation is performed to extract the latent variables into five composite variables: AFFC, CONC, TRS, COM, and PAF. Data imputation should only be implemented after completing and verifying CFA. Regression imputation is performed for the data imputation to develop the latent variables.

Summary of the Chapter

At the beginning of this chapter, demographic information of the survey respondents was presented. Next, a description of the exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis procedures was provided. These procedures determined the five constructs: Affective Commitment (AFFC), Continuance Commitment (CONC), Training (TRS), Compensation (COM), and Past Temporal Focus (PAF). The reliability and validity for the measurement model were verified via construct reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. The estimated model fit was confirmed with confirmatory factor analysis.

Chapter 5 – Results

Hypotheses tests were implemented using regression analysis to examine the relationships among this study's variables of interest. The results of each hypothesis test are provided in this chapter. Also, post hoc analyses using control variables (age, education, and tenure) were conducted to determine the extent to which the baseline model's relationships are impacted by dispositional characteristics other than past temporal focus.

Hypothesis Tests with Regression Analysis

Regression analysis was implemented to examine the eight hypotheses using SPSS. The five composite variables (AFFC, CONC, TRS, COM, and PAF) were centered (c.f. Aiken & West, 1991) before testing the eight hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that a positive relationship exists between training satisfaction and affective commitment. A simple linear regression analysis was conducted to assess this relationship. The overall regression was statistically significant (R^2 = 0.214, F (1, 382) =104.139, p = <0.001). The R^2 value of 0.214 indicates that 21.4% of variation in "Affective Commitment" (AFFC) is explained by "Training Satisfaction" (TRS). Additional information is provided in Table 7: Path Relationships and Results of Regression Analysis. The coefficient results indicate that "Training" is a positive predictor of "Affective Commitment" (β = 0.463, p = <0.001). See Table 8: Regression Coefficients Results of Hypotheses Tests for more information. Thus, Hypothesis 1: 'Satisfaction with an organization's training program is positively related to affective commitment' is supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the positive relationship between training satisfaction and affective commitment is moderated by past temporal focus. A multiple linear regression analysis with interaction procedure was tested to investigate these relationships. The predictor (Training: TRS), the moderator (Past Focus: PAF) and the interactor (TRS_x_PAF) were examined via a

simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically significant (R^2 = 0.219, F (3, 380) =35.481, p = <0.001). The R^2 value of 0.219 shows that 21.9% of variation in "Affective Commitment" can be explained by "Training Satisfaction" and "Past Focus." See Table 7: Path Relationships for Regression Analysis for more information. With regard to the interaction model, the coefficient results indicated that "Training Satisfaction" was a positive predictor of "Affective Commitment" (β = 0.455, p = <0.001). However, the coefficient outputs showed a non-significance of beta for "Past Focus" and "Affective Commitment" (β = -0.068, p = 0.136).

The relationship between "Past Focus" and "Affective Commitment" indicates a negative direction which means higher "Past Focus" is somewhat associated with lower "Affective Commitment"; however, the values are non-significant. The interaction between "Training" and "Past Focus" was non-significant (β = -0.003, p = 0.952). See Table 8: Regression Coefficients Results for Hypotheses Tests for more information. This suggests that the effect of "Training Satisfaction" on "Affective Commitment" is not dependent on the level of "Past Focus". See Figure 2: Hypothesis 2 Interaction which indicates no interaction effect for "Training Satisfaction" and "Past Focus" on "Affective Commitment" as both "Low Past Focus" and "High Past Focus" lines are parallel with regard to "Training Satisfaction". Thus, Hypothesis 2 is not supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that a positive relationship exists between training satisfaction and continuance commitment. A simple linear regression analysis was conducted to assess this relationship. The overall regression was statistically significant (R^2 = 0.018, F (1, 382) =7.089, p = 0.008). The R^2 value of 0.018 stated that 1.8% of variation in "Continuance Commitment" (CONC) can be explained by "Training Satisfaction" (TRS). See Table 7: Path Relationships for Regression Analysis for more information. The coefficient results indicated that "Training

Satisfaction" was a positive predictor to "Continuance Commitment" ($\beta = 0.135$, $p = 0.008$). See Table 8: Regression Coefficients Results of Hypotheses Tests for more information. Thus, *Hypothesis 3*: 'Satisfaction with an organization's training program is positively related to continuance commitment' is supported.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that the positive relationship between training satisfaction and continuance commitment is moderated by past temporal focus. A multiple linear regression analysis with interaction procedure was tested to investigate these relationships. The predictor (Training Satisfaction: TRS), the moderator (Past Focus: PAF) and the interactor (TRS_x_PAF) were examined in a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression is statistically significant ($R^2 = 0.108$, $F(3, 380) = 15.351$, $p = <0.001$). The R^2 value of 0.108 indicates that 10.8% of variation in "Continuance Commitment" can be explained by "Training Satisfaction" and "Past Focus". See Table 7: Path Relationships for Regression Analysis for more information.

With regard to the interaction model, the results indicate that greater "Training Satisfaction" ($\beta = 0.168$, $p = <0.001$) and higher "Past Focus" ($\beta = 0.299$ $p = <0.001$) were both associated with higher "Continuance Commitment". However, the interaction between "Training Satisfaction" and "Past Focus" was non-significant ($\beta = 0.041$, $p = 0.395$). The information in Table 8: Regression Coefficients Results of Hypotheses Tests suggests that the effect of "Training Satisfaction" on "Continuance Commitment" is not dependent on the level of "Past Focus". See Figure 3: Hypothesis 4 Interaction which indicates no interaction effect for "Training Satisfaction" and "Past Focus" on "Continuance Commitment" in that both "Low Past Focus" and "High Past Focus" lines are parallel with regard to "Training Satisfaction". Thus, *Hypothesis 4* is not supported.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that a positive relationship exists between compensation satisfaction and affective commitment. A simple linear regression analysis was conducted to assess this relationship. The overall regression was statistically significant (R^2 = 0.473, F (1, 382) =342.358, p = <0.001). The R^2 value of 0.473 indicates that 47.3% of variation in "Affective Commitment" (AFFC) can be explained by "Compensation Satisfaction" (COM). See Table 7: Path Relationships for Regression Analysis for additional information. The coefficient results reveals that "Compensation Satisfaction" is a positive predictor to "Affective Commitment" (β = 0.687, p = <0.001). Further details are provided in Table 8: Regression Coefficients: Results of Hypotheses Tests. Thus, *Hypothesis 5*: 'Satisfaction with an organization's compensation policy is positively related to affective commitment' is supported.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that the positive relationship between compensation satisfaction and affective commitment is moderated by past temporal focus. A multiple linear regression analysis with interaction procedure was utilized to test these relationships. The predictor (Compensation Satisfaction: COM), the moderator (Past Focus: PAF) and the interactor (COM_x_PAF) were examined within a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically significant (R^2 = 0.498, F (3, 380) =125.875, p = <0.001), indicating that past focus moderates the effect of compensation satisfaction on affective commitment. The R^2 value of 0.498 states that 49.8% of variation in "Affective Commitment" can be explained by "Compensation Satisfaction" and "Past Focus". See Table 7: Path Relationships for Regression Analysis for more information.

With regard to the interaction model, the results indicate that greater "Compensation Satisfaction" (β = 0.765, p = <0.001) and higher "Past Temporal Focus" (β = 0.158, p = <0.001) were both associated with higher "Affective Commitment". Furthermore, the interaction between

"Compensation Satisfaction" and "Past Focus" was also significant (β = -0.075, p = 0.047). More information is provided in Table 8: Regression Coefficients: Results of Hypotheses Tests. This suggests that the effect of "Compensation Satisfaction" on "Affective Commitment" depends on the level of "Past Focus". See Figure 4: Hypothesis 6 Interaction which indicates an interaction effect for "Compensation Satisfaction" and "Past Focus" on "Affective Commitment" due to the interaction p value of less than 0.05. Simple slopes for the association between "Compensation Satisfaction" and "Affective Commitment" were tested for low and high levels of "Past Focus." The slopes reveal that both low and high past focus provide a significant positive effect for compensation satisfaction and affective commitment. As indicated, "Low Past Focus" and "High Past Focus" lines are approaching an intercept with regard to "Compensation". Results indicate that Compensation Satisfaction has a comparatively strong effect on Affective Commitment when Past focus is lower, as indicated by a steeper slope, as compared to the slope for high Past focus. Hypothesis 6 states that 'A higher level of past temporal focus weakens the positive relationship between compensation satisfaction and affective commitment.'. Thus, Hypothesis 6 is supported.

Hypothesis 7 proposed that compensation satisfaction is associated with continuance commitment. A simple linear regression analysis was conducted to assess this relationship. The overall regression was statistically significant (R^2 = 0.026, F (1, 382) =10.366, p = 0.001). The R^2 value of 0.026 reveals that 2.6% of variation in "Continuance Commitment" (CONC) is explained by "Compensation Satisfaction" (COM). See Table 7: Path Relationships for Regression Analysis for more information. The coefficient results indicate that "Compensation Satisfaction" was a positive predictor to "Continuance Commitment" (β = 0.163, p = 0.001). See

Table 8 Regression Coefficients: Results for Hypotheses Tests for more information. As such, *Hypothesis 7* is supported.

Hypothesis 8 predicted that the association between compensation satisfaction and continuance commitment is moderated by past temporal focus. A multiple linear regression analysis with interaction was used to assess these relationships. The predictor (Compensation Satisfaction: COM), the moderator (Past Focus: PAF) and the interactor (COM_x_PAF) were examined in a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically significant (R^2 = 0.162, F (3, 380) =24.529, p = <0.001). The R^2 value of 0.162 indicates that 16.2% of variation in "Continuance Commitment" is explained by "Compensation Satisfaction" and "Past Focus". See Table 7*:* Path Relationships for Regression Analysis for more information.

With regard to the interaction model, the results indicate that greater "Compensation Satisfaction" (β = 0.297, p = <0.001) and higher "Past Temporal Focus" (β = 0.392, p = <0.001) were both associated with higher "Continuance Commitment". However, the interaction between "Compensation Satisfaction" and "Past Focus" was non-significant (β = 0.050, p = 0.308). See Table 8: Regression Coefficients: Results of Hypotheses Tests for more information. This suggests that the effect of "Compensation Satisfaction" on "Continuance Commitment" is not dependent on the level of "Past Focus". See Figure 5: *Hypothesis 8 Interaction* which indicates no significant interaction of "Compensation" and "Past Focus" on "Continuance Commitment" due to both "Low Past Focus" and "High Past Focus" lines are parallel in relation to "Compensation". Thus, *Hypothesis 8* is not supported.

Table 7

Path Relationships for Regression Analysis

Hypothesis	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F-value	Sig.
H1: TRS → AFFC	0.214	0.212	0.887	104.139	<0.001
H2: TRS_x_PAF → AFFC	0.219	0.213	0.887	35.481	<0.001
H3: TRS → CONC	0.018	0.016	0.992	7.089	0.008
H4: TRS_x_PAF → CONC	0.108	0.101	0.948	15.351	<0.001
H5: COM → AFFC	0.473	0.471	0.727	342.358	<0.001
H6: COM_x_PAF → AFFC	0.498	0.494	0.711	125.875	<0.001
H7: COM → CONC	0.026	0.024	0.987	10.366	0.001
H8: COM_x_PAF → CONC	0.162	0.156	0.918	24.529	<0.001

Table 8

Regression Coefficients Results of Hypotheses Tests

	Variables	Coefficient	Std. Error	*t*-value	*p* value
H1: (DV: AFFC)	TRS	0.463	0.045	10.205	<0.001*
H2: (DV: AFFC)	TRS	0.455	0.046	9.908	<0.001
	PAF	-0.068	0.046	-1.496	0.136
	TRS_x_PAF	-0.003	0.044	-0.060	0.952
H3: (DV: CONC)	TRS	0.135	0.051	2.662	0.008*
H4: (DV: CONC)	TRS	0.168	0.049	3.423	<0.001

	PAF	0.299	0.049	6.131	<0.001
	TRS_x_PAF	0.041	0.047	0.851	0.395
H5: (DV: AFFC)	COM	0.687	0.037	18.503	<0.001*
H6: (DV: AFFC)	COM	0.765	0.040	18.922	<0.001
	PAF	0.158	0.039	4.035	<0.001
	COM_x_PAF	-0.075	0.035	-1.995	0.047*
H7: (DV: CONC)	COM	0.163	0.050	3.220	0.001*
H8: (DV: CONC)	COM	0.297	0.052	5.673	<0.001
	PAF	0.392	0.051	7.725	<0.001
	COM_x_PAF	0.050	0.046	1.020	0.308

*Hypothesis supported

Figure 2

Hypothesis 2 Interaction

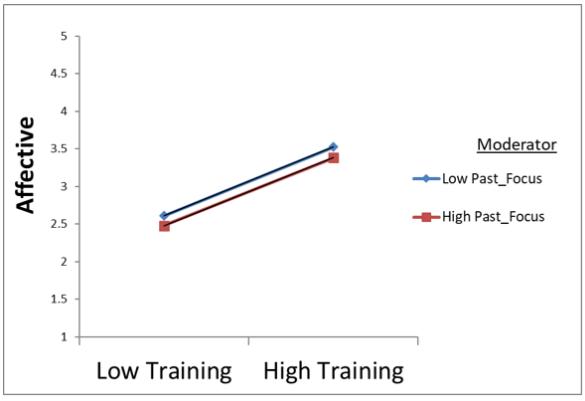


Figure 3

Hypothesis 4 Interaction

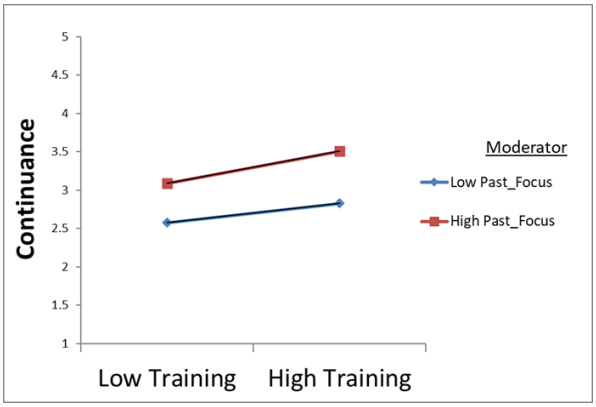


Figure 4

Hypothesis 6 Interaction

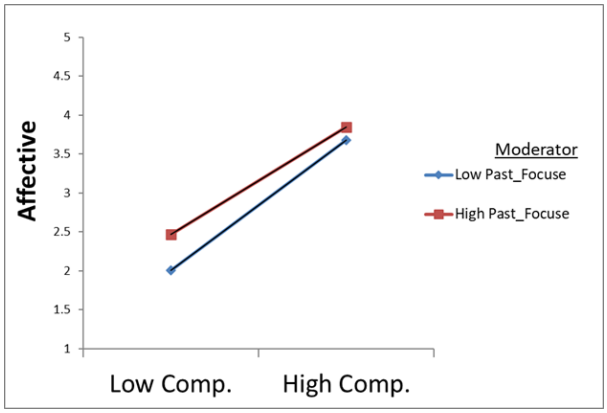


Figure 5

Hypothesis 8 Interaction

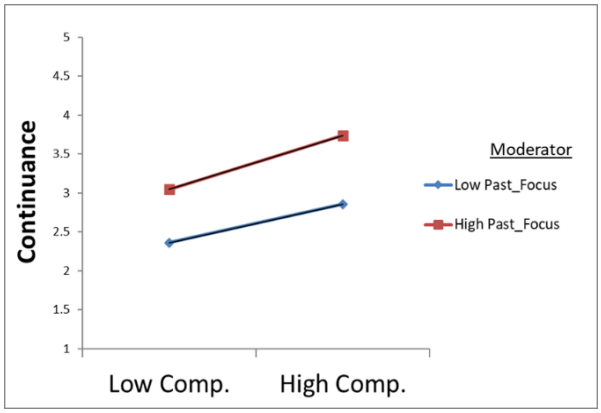


Table 9

Summary of Findings

	Hypothesis	**Findings**
H1	Satisfaction with an organization's training/development program is positively related to affective commitment.	Supported
H2	A higher level of past temporal focus weakens the positive relationship between training satisfaction and affective commitment.	Not supported
H3	Satisfaction with an organization's training/development program is positively related to continuance commitment**.**	Supported
H4	A higher level of past temporal focus weakens the positive relationship between training satisfaction and continuance commitment.	Not supported

H5	Satisfaction with compensation is positively related to affective commitment**.**	Supported
H6	A higher level of past temporal focus weakens the positive relationship between compensation satisfaction and affective commitment.	Supported
H7	Satisfaction with compensation is positively related to continuance commitment**.**	Supported
H8	A higher level of past temporal focus weakens the positive relationship between compensation satisfaction and continuance commitment.	Not supported

Supplemental Analyses

In order to more fully explore the potential impact of other dispositional characteristics, *post hoc* analyses were conducted in SPSS to determine the effects of including age, education, and tenure (i.e. years with the organization) as control variables for further analysis.

Results show that both affective commitment and continuance commitment are positively associated with 'Age' for Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 8. These results indicate that employees who are older may have stronger affective commitment and continuance commitment toward the organization. However, the relationship between compensation satisfaction and continuance commitment (H7) was not affected by age. Refer to Table 10 for detailed regression coefficient results using 'Age' as the control variable.

Table 10

Regression Coefficients: Results of Post hoc Tests with Control Variable Age

	Variables	Coefficient	Std. Error	*t*-value	*p* value
H1: (DV: AFFC)	TRS	0.444	0.045	9.931	<0.001
	Age	0.181	0.045	4.046	<0.001
H2: (DV: AFFC)	TRS	0.440	0.045	9.713	<0.001
	PAF	-0.038	0.046	-0.831	0.406
	TRS_x_PAF	0.005	0.043	0.102	0.919
	Age	0.174	0.046	3.833	<0.001
H3: (DV: CONC)	TRS	0.124	0.051	2.446	0.015
	Age	0.104	0.051	2.049	0.041
H4: (DV: CONC)	TRS	0.154	0.049	3.165	0.002
	PAF	0.328	0.049	6.698	<0.001
	TRS_x_PAF	0.048	0.046	1.003	0.317
	Age	0.163	0.049	3.334	<0.001
H5: (DV: AFFC)	COM	0.668	0.037	17.996	<0.001
	Age	0.123	0.037	3.306	0.001
H6: (DV: AFFC)	COM	0.750	0.040	18.795	<0.001
	PAF	0.179	0.039	4.610	<0.001
	COM_x_PAF	-0.071	0.035	-1.929	0.054
	Age	0.144	0.036	3.940	<0.001
H7: (DV: CONC)	COM	0.148	0.051	2.903	0.004
	Age	0.094	0.051	1.842	0.066
H8: (DV: CONC)	COM	0.280	0.052	5.400	<0.001
	PAF	0.413	0.051	8.170	<0.001

COM_x_PAF	0.053	0.045	1.114	0.266
Age	0.149	0.047	3.139	0.002

Control Variable: Age

Regarding ‘Education’ as the control variable, affective commitment is positively related to ‘Education’ as seen in the results for Hypotheses 1, 2, 5, and 6. These results indicate that employees with higher education will have stronger affective commitment toward the organization. However, the results indicate that ‘Education’ does not have a significant relationship with continuance commitment (Hypotheses 3, 4, 7, and 8). Table 11 includes details on the regression coefficient results with ‘Education’ as the control variable.

Table 11

Regression Coefficients: Results of Post hoc Tests with Control variable Education

	Variables	Coefficient	Std. Error	*t*-value	*p* value
H1: (DV: AFFC)	TRS	0.457	0.045	10.202	<0.001
	Edu	0.151	0.045	3.378	<0.001
H2: (DV: AFFC)	TRS	0.450	0.045	9.915	<0.001
	PAF	-0.059	0.045	-1.303	0.193
	TRS_x_PAF	0.003	0.043	0.059	0.953
	Edu	0.148	0.045	3.287	0.001
H3: (DV: CONC)	TRS	0.134	0.051	2.635	0.009
	Edu	0.303	0.051	0.600	0.549

H4: (DV: CONC)	TRS	0.166	0.049	3.385	<0.001
	PAF	0.303	0.049	6.186	<0.001
	TRS_x_PAF	0.043	0.047	0.889	0.375
	Edu	0.051	0.049	1.051	0.294
H5: (DV: AFFC)	COM	0.677	0.037	18.248	<0.001
	Edu	0.096	0.037	2.576	0.010
H6: (DV: AFFC)	COM	0.755	0.040	18.747	<0.001
	PAF	0.161	0.039	4.143	<0.001
	COM_x_PAF	-0.073	0.035	-1.956	0.051
	Edu	0.098	0.036	2.715	0.007
H7: (DV: CONC)	COM	0.161	0.051	3.158	0.002
	Edu	0.018	0.051	0.359	0.719
H8: (DV: CONC)	COM	0.294	0.053	5.586	<0.001
	PAF	0.392	0.051	7.734	<0.001
	COM_x_PAF	0.050	0.046	1.032	0.303
	Edu	0.030	0.047	0.635	0.526

Control Variable: Education

In the post hoc analysis, ‘Tenure’ was also used as a control variable. For Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 8, both affective commitment and continuance commitment are positively associated with ‘Tenure’ which reveals that employees who stay with an organization for a

longer period of time tend to display higher affective commitment and continuance commitment toward the organization. However, the relationship between compensation satisfaction and continuance commitment (H7) was not affected by the control variable of organizational 'Tenure' (i.e. years of employment with the organization) See Table 12 for detailed regression coefficient results regarding 'Tenure' as the control variable.

Table 12

Regression Coefficients: Results of Post hoc Tests with Control variable Tenure

	Variables	Coefficient	Std. Error	*t*-value	*p* value
H1: (DV: AFFC)	TRS	0.455	0.042	10.761	<0.001
	Tenure	0.326	0.042	7.727	<0.001
H2: (DV: AFFC)	TRS	0.450	0.043	10.500	<0.001
	PAF	-0.017	0.043	-0.400	0.689
	TRS_x_PAF	0.030	0.043	0.695	0.487
	Tenure	0.327	0.041	7.587	<0.001
H3: (DV: CONC)	TRS	0.132	0.050	2.619	0.009
	Tenure	0.110	0.050	2.185	0.030
H4: (DV: CONC)	TRS	0.165	0.048	3.417	<0.001
	PAF	0.325	0.049	6.673	<0.001
	TRS_x_PAF	0.058	0.047	1.200	0.231
	Tenure	0.166	0.049	3.413	<0.001
H5: (DV: AFFC)	COM	0.651	0.036	18.277	<0.001
	Tenure	0.238	0.036	6.686	<0.001
H6: (DV: AFFC)	COM	0.729	0.038	19.002	<0.001
	PAF	0.186	0.037	5.013	<0.001
	COM_x_PAF	-0.041	0.033	-1.156	0.248
	Tenure	0.252	0.035	7.177	<0.001

H7: (DV: CONC)	COM	0.149	0.051	2.917	0.004
	Tenure	0.091	0.051	1.783	0.075
H8: (DV: CONC)	COM	0.276	0.052	5.284	<0.001
	PAF	0.407	0.050	8.068	<0.001
	COM_x_PAF	0.069	0.046	1.413	0.158
	Tenure	0.141	0.048	2.964	0.003

Control Variable: Tenure

Lastly, the three control variables (Age, Education, and Tenure) are simultaneously included in the analysis of the hypotheses. The control variable 'Age' does not show a significant relationship with affective commitment or continuance commitment when the three control variables are entered simultaneously, as p-values ranged from 0.54 to 0.921. The control variable 'Education' shows significant relationships with Affective Commitment with all p-values lower than .05 when the three control variables are entered simultaneously.

Conversely, 'Education' shows no relationships with Continuance Commitment when the three control variables are entered simultaneously, as p-values ranged from 0.374 to 0.789. The control variable 'Tenure' has a positive, significant relationship with affective commitment (Hypotheses 1, 2, 5, 6). 'Tenure' shows no relationship on Continuance Commitment as p-values ranged from 0.099 to 0.315 for Hypotheses 3, 7, and 8 when the three control variables were entered simultaneously. Notably, Tenure shows a significant relationship with continuance commitment on Hypothesis 4 with a p-value 0.042 when the three control variables were entered simultaneously. Table 13 provides information on regression coefficient results regarding "Age, Education, and Tenure" as the simultaneous control variables.

Table 13

Regression Coefficients: Results of post hoc Tests with Control variables Age, Education, Tenure

	Variables	Coefficient	Std. Error	*t*-value	*p* value
H1: (DV: AFFC)	TRS	0.457	0.042	10.662	<0.001
	Age	0.015	0.049	0.301	0.764
	Edu	0.136	0.042	3.256	0.001
	Tenure	0.313	0.048	6.475	<0.001
H2: (DV: AFFC)	TRS	0.444	0.043	10.436	<0.001
	PAF	-0.008	0.043	-0.184	0.854
	TRS_x_PAF	0.034	0.041	0.808	0.420
	Age	0.013	0.049	0.270	0.787
	Edu	0.137	0.042	3.260	0.001
	Tenure	0.316	0.049	6.475	<0.001
H3: (DV: CONC)	TRS	0.125	0.051	2.470	0.014
	Age	0.064	0.059	1.081	0.281
	Edu	0.023	0.051	0.460	0.646
	Tenure	0.077	0.058	1.324	0.186
H4: (DV: CONC)	TRS	0.155	0.048	3.210	0.001
	PAF	0.338	0.049	6.906	<0.001
	TRS_x_PAF	0.059	0.046	1.218	0.224
	Age	0.105	0.056	1.887	0.060
	Edu	0.043	0.048	0.890	0.374

	Tenure	0.113	0.056	2.042	0.042
H5: (DV: AFFC)	COM	0.641	0.036	17.945	<0.001
	Age	0.004	0.041	0.099	0.921
	Edu	0.088	0.035	2.510	0.013
	Tenure	0.234	0.041	5.745	<0.001
H6: (DV: AFFC)	COM	0.719	0.038	18.796	<0.001
	PAF	0.191	0.037	5.157	<0.001
	COM_x_PAF	-0.041	0.033	-1.146	0.252
	Age	0.026	0.040	0.646	0.519
	Edu	0.092	0.034	2.687	0.008
	Tenure	0.237	0.040	5.957	<0.001
H7: (DV: CONC)	COM	0.142	0.051	2.759	0.006
	Age	0.064	0.059	1.098	0.273
	Edu	0.014	0.051	0.267	0.789
	Tenure	0.059	0.059	1.006	0.315
H8: (DV: CONC)	COM	0.270	0.052	5.155	<0.001
	PAF	0.417	0.051	8.252	<0.001
	COM_x_PAF	0.065	0.046	1.340	0.181
	Age	0.105	0.054	1.929	0.054
	Edu	0.024	0.047	0.504	0.615
	Tenure	0.090	0.054	1.655	0.099

Control variables: Age, Education, and Tenure

Summary of the Chapter

Hypotheses tests were implemented using regression analysis to examine the relationships among the constructs (AFFC, CONC, TRS, COM, and PAF) along with potential interaction effects. The output indicates that significant positive relationships exist between HRM practices (Training, Compensation) and Organizational Commitment (Affective Commitment and Continuance Commitment). Additionally, a significant interaction effect was observed among "Compensation Satisfaction" and "Past Temporal Focus" on "Affective Commitment." Support was found for five of the eight hypotheses proposed for this study, as reflected in the research model (Figure 1). Results of the post hoc analysis including control variables (age, education, and tenure) are also provided.

Chapter 6 – Discussion

This chapter comprises a discussion of the study, including its contributions and limitations. The findings of this study demonstrate the benefits of effective human resource management (HRM) practices on organizational commitment. Hypotheses regarding the main effects of the independent variables (Hypothesis 1, 3, 5, 7) were supported. Also, one hypothesis regarding 'past focus' as a moderating variable (Hypothesis 6) was supported.

The chapter concludes with suggestions for future study. Researchers may wish to evaluate the possible relationships among employees' various dispositional factors (e.g., personality traits, gender, age, education level) and levels of organizational commitment.

Contributions of the Study

This research is among the first formal studies to include the component of temporal focus as a variable in order to assess its impact on the relationship between HRM practices and employee attitudes. Training satisfaction was found to be a significant predictor of affective commitment to the organization. Thus, organizations should make additional efforts to ensure that onboarding and training opportunities are perceived as positive affective events for employees. Nevertheless, Bauer (2010) reports that only 20% of organizations achieve "connection" as part of the onboarding process. New employees have the opportunity to establish both formal and informal relationships within the organization. Thus, organizations may achieve such "connection" by taking time to describe the organizational hierarchy, introducing new employees to senior leadership, or having line managers and colleagues take recently-hired employee(s) out to lunch to learn more about them (Meyer & Bartels, 2017).

Additionally, the findings of this study offer guidance to practitioners concerning the potential influence of dispositional factors (e.g., personality, attitude, temporal focus of individual) on the organizational commitment levels of employees. Practitioners should consider

various methods to enhance organizational culture by improving the work environment and employee relationships.

As part of the recruiting and selection process, the applicants' profiles could be detected via direct assessment (e.g., administering the Temporal Focus Scale to applicants) or indirectly. During an interview or other pre-employment discussions, managers would give attention to the time periods referenced by interviewees. For example, individuals may devote more time to describe lessons from previous jobs, as opposed to opinions about current jobs, or future career aspirations and life goals (Shipp et al., 2022); specifically, an interviewee who is unable to clearly describe past experiences (i.e. lessons learned), current interests, or future goals may hold a weak temporal focus profile, which may be associated with lower levels of organizational commitment.

The results of this study offer important insights to better understand the interactions between dispositional characteristics (e.g. past temporal focus, personality) and situational factors (e.g. work environment, HRM practices) and their effects on organizational commitment levels of employees. Taken together, these two elements comprise the *"organizational fit"* (Datta, 1991) between organizations and employees.

Limitations of the Study

A potential limitation of this study is that respondents were asked to share their perceptions of their employer's human resource management practices with regard to training/development and compensation (pay and benefits); hence, this survey requires the engagement of higher-order cognitive processes which were not verified by further procedures (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Also, concerns may exist regarding the use of single-source, self-reported data. Concepts in this study (e.g. satisfaction with HRM, organizational commitment,

temporal focus) were measured by self-report. Therefore, common method variance may lead to the strengthening of certain correlations (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, Doty and Glick (1998) assert that such bias typically does not affect the findings of survey-based research studies. Nevertheless, common variance issues may exist since data on both the independent variables and dependent variables were collected at the same time via a single survey instrument. A longitudinal research approach could minimize the effects of this potential bias (cf. Dohrenwend & Shrout, 1985; Lazarus, et al., 1985).

Likewise, another possible constraint of this study is that research participants tend to respond to survey questions in ways which *"…present themselves favorably with respect to current social norms and standards…"* (Zerbe & Paulhus, 1987, p. 250). This phenomenon is referred to as socially desirable responding. Scales using self-descriptions (i.e., "I") often have a larger socially desirable component than scales describing others' behaviors (Ganster et al., 1983). Therefore, the potential issue of participants providing socially desirable responses in their evaluation of the organization's HRM practices is a constraint of this study.

Directions for future research

This study focuses on past temporal focus as a potential moderator of the relationships among HRM practices and organizational commitment. Future research could assess the potential impact of employees' present temporal focus, as well as future temporal focus, as relevant dispositional characteristics. Other possible dispositional factors (e.g. personality traits, problem-solving aptitude, conscientiousness, task orientation vs. relationship orientation) could be assessed via the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), the Wonderlic Contemporary Cognitive Ability Test, the Big Five personality test, and the DISC test (cf. Nikolaou et al., 2007).

In a recent study, Shipp et al., (2022) call for additional empirical and theoretical research of the "weak temporal focus" profile which may reflect employee withdrawal and/or a lack of individual motivation. With up to 20% of participants in their study displaying weak temporal focus, additional theoretical development is needed to better understand this dimension of temporal focus. Moreover, the findings of Shipp et al. (2022) indicate that organizations may wish to recruit and hire individuals with higher levels of present focus, as such employees tend to be more satisfied and committed to the organization. Thus, employees with a *carpe diem* (i.e. "seize the day") focus are less likely to quit.

This study focuses on affective commitment and continuance commitment, as two of the primary components of organizational commitment model developed by Meyer and Allen (1997). Normative commitment is the other component. Normative commitment is evident when individuals internalize beliefs of loyalty towards toward one's organization (Woloska, 2014). Hence, future studies which include normative commitment will be beneficial to practitioners and academic researchers. This may occur in response to investment undertaken by the organization on behalf of the employees; as such, investments that are perceived as difficult to return may foster normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Examples of such actions by the organization may include investments in training and development, as well as tuition reimbursement programs (as a component of the employee's overall compensation package).

An additional area of future research could involve assessing participants in various global contexts and international employment settings. The availability of online translation tools (such as Google Translate) would make the process of translating online survey questions into other languages feasible when necessary. Thus, future researchers may be able to further investigate how national culture influences the relationships proposed in this study. Notably,

Hofstede's (1984) cultural dimensions theory describes differences among various nations, based on categories including power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation vs. short-term orientation. Empirical studies could assess the impact of such constructs on organizational commitment levels of employees.

Other avenues of future research on organizational commitment may involve the quality of work relationships within the organization. This study does not capture data on the participants' perceived quality of relationships with top leadership, mid-level managers, subordinates, or fellow employees in the organization. Such relationships often impact an employee's mood at work, as well as overall emotional well-being. Thus, future researchers may wish to explore the overall quality and impact of workplace relationships and the possible association with organizational commitment levels of employees.

The HRM component of performance appraisals is another area for future research. Performance appraisal is a sensitive matter which often leads to negative psychological responses, such as denial, resistance, and discouragement, particularly when the assessment is negative (Drenth, 1984). Criticizing employees, as is often done as part of appraisals, typically causes defensiveness and rationalization which usually result in nonconstructive reactions and responses (Blau, 1964; Meyer et al., 1965). Moreover, such negative feelings tend to adversely impact relationships between managers conducting the performance appraisals and the individuals who are being evaluated (Blau, 1964; Drenth, 1984). By removing the evaluative role from the immediate supervisor, Boswell & Boudreau (2002) predicts that cooperation and a less adversarial relationship between the employees being evaluated and their supervisor would develop. However, the results of their experimental study indicate that maintaining a more personal relationship between the direct manager and subordinate is equally appropriate for the

performance appraisal process. Therefore, organizations should focus on developing positive relationships between managers and the employes they supervise, especially in the performance appraisal process. Ideally, such coaching (i.e. mentoring) sessions and feedback will lead to positive affective events (cf. Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) which enhance the various components of organizational commitment.

Future research on organizational commitment might also focus on a single industry, or even more specifically, a single organization within an industry. This study was designed to gather data from a large sample of participants employed in various industries and organizations. Such an approach tends to increase the generalizability of the findings. Nevertheless, a study in which all participants are employed at a single organization (or perhaps a large group of individuals employed in a specific industry) would likely produce more nuanced findings.

In the future, researchers may seek to more fully assess differences in organizational commitment levels with regard to individual's age category. As Gen X members enter retirement age, the younger generations (Millennials, Gen Z, and Alpha) comprise larger and larger components of the workforce (Castro et al., 2023). In Cohen's (1993) study, the relationship between age and organizational commitment was found to be most pronounced during the early stages of employment; conversely, the link between tenure and organizational commitment was strongest in the later stages of employment (Cohen, 1993). These findings reveal the dynamic nature of the relationship between individual characteristics of age, tenure, and organizational commitment across various career stages.

Other areas of diversity (i.e. individual differences) which may impact organizational commitment include education levels, marital status, tenure with the organization, income levels, and debt levels. Likewise, industry type and size of the organization may impact the relationships

among HRM practices and employees' organizational commitment levels. Future researchers can answer the call by Jansen & Searle (2021) to assess the impact of surface-level diversity and deep-level diversity from various perspectives (i.e. simultaneously, over longer periods of time, and including various contextual moderators). Future studies could utilize the job demands-resources (JD-R) model developed by Bakker and Demerouti (2007) to better understand the impact of differences among employees on a broad range of organizational outcomes.

Another important aspect not addressed in this study is organizational performance. The compensation (i.e. pay and benefits) offered to employees is not solely a function of HRM practices. Various factors affect how well an organization performs, which could affect employee compensation. For example, global economic conditions, interest rates, type of industry, marketing efforts, along with internal finance and accounting procedures, impact the performance levels of organizations. Future researchers may wish to focus on certain industries and/or specific organizations. In such studies, financial measures and ratios could be assessed, in conjunction with HRM practices and the organizational commitment levels of employees. Ultimately, it is hoped that the limitations of this study mentioned above, along with other possible constraints of this research, will provide worthwhile opportunities for future studies.

Chapter 7 – Conclusion and Implications

The primary research question addresses how an organization's HRM functions are associated with employees' organizational commitment levels using Affective Events Theory (AET) as the theoretical underpinning of this dissertation. A gap in research exists in understanding how an individual's temporal focus influences organizational commitment. This dissertation has addressed this gap by providing a unique and important contribution by incorporating temporal focus as a moderating variable to assess the manner in which HRM practices are associated with affective commitment and continuance commitment. AET suggests that an individual's dispositional factors (e.g., personality traits and mood tendencies) influence how the person interprets and reacts to workplace events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Within the AET framework, dispositional factors are expected to play a significant role in shaping an individual's emotional responses to work-related events.

Hence, managers should be aware that job characteristics, job demands, emotional labor requirements, and work environments (e.g. physical and virtual) often have a direct impact on work attitudes and job satisfaction levels of employees (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). This dissertation finds that temporal focus influences organizational commitment and related aspects of job satisfaction.

In practice, organizations which deal with greater amounts of change in the industry/economic environment may wish to better understand the temporal focus of employees. (cf. Cullen et al., 2014) to improve employee commitment levels and job satisfaction. For example, efforts to enact changes within the organization could be hampered by individuals with a high past focus. Therefore, leaders of companies in technology, energy, healthcare, education,

and other industries facing change should consider this dispositional characteristic when selecting employees to serve in specific roles within the organization (cf. Judge et al., 1999).

Furthermore, leaders should be aware that deep-level diversity exists among individuals employed by the organization (cf. Jansen& Searle, 2021). Such diversity can have a significant impact on a broad range of outcomes within the organization, and temporal focus is a variable which cannot be assessed at the surface-level. Therefore, when interviewing prospective employees, managers should pay attention to the interviewees' specific references to various points of time. During interviews and other pre-employment discussions, managers should pay close attention to the timeframes mentioned by individuals. For instance, individuals might focus on lessons learned from past jobs, instead of expressing opinions about their current roles or future aspirations (Shipp et al., 2022). Notably, individuals who struggle to articulate past experiences, current interests, or future goals may exhibit an overall weak temporal focus profile, potentially indicating lower levels of organizational commitment.

Emphasis on high performance work systems (HPWS) may benefit organizations, as HPWS are related to improving human capital (Jiang et al., 2012). HPWS includes skill-enhancing HRM practices (i.e., recruitment, selection, and training), motivation-enhancing HRM practices (i.e., performance appraisal, compensation, incentives, benefits, promotions, career development, and job security), and opportunity enhancing HRM practices (i.e., improved job design, work teams, employee involvement, formal grievance and complaint processes, and information sharing). Therefore, organizations should strive to utilize the best possible HRM practices with regard to enhancing the skills, motivation, and opportunities of all organizational members.

Managers should be aware that customer-facing employees are often motivated by the ability (and opportunity) to meet customers' needs. Thus, satisfaction with job training may improve employee job satisfaction, and ultimately, overall customer satisfaction levels. Organizations which take advantage of the JTJSS in assessing training programs will obtain better trained, more satisfied employees who are more valuable to the organization (Barney, 1991; Schmidt, 2004). This dissertation has found that training has a positive influence on organizational commitment and related aspects of job satisfaction.

In practice, organizational leaders should emphasize coaching and mentoring programs (as a form of ongoing training and development), in conjunction with more formalized performance appraisal systems. As managers often determine the amount of job training provided to their employees, leadership should encourage the usage of training and development programs as much as possible to improve job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Specifically, managers are encouraged to prioritize positive job coaching, as well as training and development coaching (Schmidt, 2004) to improve employees' temporal focus. The results will benefit the employees, managers, and the broader organization.

Ideally, employees will perceive such feedback positively, instead of a form of criticism or discipline. In line with Affective Events Theory (AET), managers will be able to make such 'teachable moments' to be positive affective events (instead of negative affective events). In turn, gains in organizational commitment of the employee should increase, as the number of positive affective events outweigh negative experiences within the work setting. This may be associated with a positive change in the employee's past temporal focus.

In sum, results of this study show that satisfaction with training is associated with higher levels of affective commitment and continuance commitment. Likewise, satisfaction with

compensation (pay and benefits) was found to be associated with affective commitment and continuance commitment. The hypothesized moderating effect of past temporal focus was partially validated. Specifically, past temporal focus was found to negatively moderate the positive relationship between compensation satisfaction and affective commitment.

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Appendix A: Institutional Review Board Approval Letters

MARSHALL UNIVERSITY
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Office of Research Integrity
Institutional Review Board
One John Marshall Drive
Huntington, WV 25755

FWA 00002704

IRB1 #00002205
IRB2 #00003206

July 31, 2023

Ralph McKinney, DBA
Managment & Health Care Administration

RE: IRBNet ID# 2083717-1
At: Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral)

Dear Dr. McKinney:

Protocol Title:	[2083717-1] Assessing the Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Organizational Commitment	
Site Location:	MU	
Submission Type:	New Project	APPROVED
Review Type:	Exempt Review	

In accordance with 45CFR46.104(d)(2), the above study was granted Exempted approval today by the Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral) Designee. No further submission (or closure) is required for an Exempt study **unless** there is an amendment to the study. All amendments must be submitted and approved by the IRB Chair/Designee.

This study is for student Clint Taylor.

If you have any questions, please contact the Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral) Coordinator Lindsey Taylor at (304) 696-6322 or l.taylor@marshall.edu. Please include your study title and reference number in all correspondence with this office.

Sincerely,

Bruce F. Day, ThD, CIP
Director, Office of Research Integrity

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IRB1 #00002205
IRB2 #00003206

December 11, 2023

Ralph McKinney, DBA
Management & Health Care Administration

RE: IRBNet ID# 2083717-2
At: Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral)

Dear Dr. McKinney:

Protocol Title:	[2083717-2] Assessing the Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Organizational Commitment
Site Location:	MU
Submission Type:	Amendment/Modification APPROVED
Review Type:	Exempt Review

The amendment to the above listed study was approved today by the Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral) Designee. This amendment is the addition of $5 compensation for completion of the survey. The consent form has been updated to reflect this change.

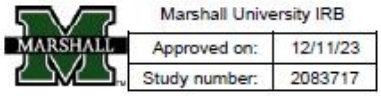
This study is for student Clint Taylor.

If you have any questions, please contact the Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral) Coordinator Lindsey Taylor at (304) 696-6322 or l.taylor@marshall.edu. Please include your study title and reference number in all correspondence with this office.

Sincerely,

Bruce F. Day, ThD, CIP
Director, Office of Research Integrity

Appendix B: Survey Consent form



Anonymous Survey Consent

You are invited to participate in a research project entitled "Assessing the Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Organizational Commitment" designed to analyze elements of job satisfaction. The study is being conducted by Principal Investigator Dr. Ralph E. McKinney, Jr. DBA and Clint Taylor, MBA from The Brad D. Smith Schools of Business at the Lewis College of Business at Marshall University and has been approved by the Marshall University Institutional Review Board (IRB). This research is being conducted as part of the DBA Dissertation for Clint Taylor.

This survey is comprised of a series of multiple choice questions concerning your feelings about your employer followed by some demographic questions and open-ended questions. Participation will be compensated at $5 and should take not more than 20 minutes to complete. Your replies will be anonymous, so do not type your name anywhere on the form. There are no known risks involved with this study. Participation is completely voluntary and there will be no penalty or loss of benefits if you choose to not participate in this research study or to withdraw. If you choose not to participate you can leave the survey site. You may choose to not answer any question by simply leaving it blank. Once you complete the survey you can delete your browsing history for added security. Completing the on-line survey indicates your consent for use of the answers you supply. If you have any questions about the study you may contact Dr. Ralph E. McKinney, Jr. at (304) 539-3162, Clint Taylor at (731) 332-1858.

If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research participant you may contact the Marshall University Office of Research Integrity at (304) 696-4303.

By completing this survey you are also confirming that you are **18** years of age or older.

Please print this page for your records.

If you choose to participate in the study you will find the survey at www.xxxxxxx.com

Appendix C: List of Terms

The terms and definitions listed below are relevant to this study:

Affective Commitment. An employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Affective Events Theory (AET). A theory which attempts to explain how the moods and emotions of employees impact their workplace behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Compensation. All forms of financial returns and tangible services and benefits employees receive as part of an employment relationship (Newman & Gerhart, 2020).

Continuance Commitment. An employee's awareness of the costs associated with leaving an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Development. Training as well as formal education, job experiences, relationships, and assessments of personality, skills, and abilities that help employees prepare for future jobs or positions (Noe, 2020).

Labor force participation (LPF) rate. The number of people aged 16 and older who are employed or actively seeking employment, divided by the total civilian (non-institutionalized) population of working age.

Organizational Commitment. The strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization.

Temporal Focus. The attention individuals devote to thinking about the past, present, and future, thereby affecting how people incorporate perceptions about past experiences, current situations, and future expectations into their attitudes, cognitions, and behavior (Shipp et al., 2009).

Training. A planned effort by a company to facilitate learning of job-related competencies, knowledge, skills, and behaviors by employees (Noe, 2020).

Unemployment rate: The ratio of unemployed individuals to the civilian labor force expressed as a percent [i.e., 100 times (unemployed total/labor force total)].

Appendix D: Original Scales and Survey Items

Organizational Commitment Scales by Meyer and Allen (1997); Allen and Meyer (1996); Allen and Meyer (1990). NOTE: Some items have been slightly revised for this study.

Affective Commitment Scale items
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (R)
5. I feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.
6. I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)

Continuance Commitment Scale items
1. I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now. (R)
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
6. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.
9. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.

Normative Commitment Scale items
1. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)
2. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
3. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
4. This organization deserves my loyalty.
5. I would not leave my organization now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
6. I owe a great deal to my organization.

Note: The scale uses a 7-point Likert scale, which asks participants to rate the extent to which they (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) somewhat disagree, (4) neither agree nor disagree, (5) somewhat agree, (6) agree, (7) strongly agree.

(R) indicates a reverse-scored item

Job Training and Job Satisfaction Survey (JTJSS) by Schmidt (2007)

1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.
2. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.
3. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.
4. I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.
5. When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.
6. Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.
7. My department provides learning/training opportunities to meet the changing needs of my workplace
8. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.
9. Raises are too few and far between.
10. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.
11. I view my education on-the-job as a continuous, lifelong endeavor.
12. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.
13. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.
14. My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.
15. I like doing the things I do at work.
16. In my department, learning is planned and purposeful rather than accidental.
17. I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.
18. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.
19. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.
20. The benefit package we have is equitable.
21. There are few rewards for those who work here.
22. I have too much to do at work.
23. I enjoy my coworkers.
24. Overall, the on-the-job training I receive is applicable to my job.
25. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.
26. Overall, the training I receive on the job meets my needs.
27. There are benefits we do not have which we should have.
28. In my department, people are interested in both personal and professional development.
29. I have too much paperwork.
30. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.
31. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.
32. I am proactive in seeking ways to improve what I do.
33. My job is enjoyable.
34. I like the people I work with.
35. Training and development are encouraged and rewarded in my department.
36. I like my supervisor.
37. I deliberately seek out learning opportunities rather than waiting to be sent to training.
38. My supervisor is unfair to me.
39. I have learning goals designed to enhance my current work assignment and to prepare me for future positions.
40. There is too much bickering and fighting at work.
41. Overall, I am satisfied with the amount of training I receive on the job.
42. I am generally able to use what I learn in on-the-job training in my job.
43. I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.

Note: This scale uses a 6-point Likert scale, which asks participants to rate the extent to which they: "Disagree Very Much"; "Disagree Moderately"; "Disagree Slightly"; "Agree Slightly"; "Agree Moderately"; "Agree Very Much".

Temporal Focus Scale - TFS (Shipp et al., 2009)

Past Focus:

1. I replay memories of the past in my mind.
2. I reflect on what has happened in my life.
3. I think about things from my past.
4. I think back to my earlier days.

Present Focus:

5. I focus on what is currently happening in my life.
6. My mind is on the here and now.
7. I think about where I am today.
8. I live my life in the present.

Future Focus:

9. I think about what my future has in store.
10. I think about times to come.
11. I focus on my future.
12. I imagine what tomorrow will bring for me.

The possible responses for this scale show a 7-point Likert scale, presented alongside the following guide words: never, sometimes, frequently, constantly.

Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory - ZTPI (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999)

Time Perspective Inventory Items

1. I believe that getting together with one's friends to party is one of life's important pleasures.
2. Familiar childhood sights, sounds, and smells often bring back a flood of wonderful memories.
3. Fate determines much in my life.
4. I often think of what I should have done differently in my life.
5. My decisions are mostly influenced by people and things around me.
6. I believe that a person's day should be planned ahead each morning.
7. It gives me pleasure to think about my past.
8. I do things impulsively.
9. If things don't get done on time, I don't worry about it.
10. When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.
11. On balance, there is much more good to recall than bad in my past.
12. When listening to my favorite music, I often lose all track of time.
13. Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work comes before tonight's play.
14. Since whatever will be will be, it doesn't really matter what I do.
15. I enjoy stories about how things used to be in the "good old times."
16. Painful past experiences keep being replayed in my mind.
17. I try to live my life as fully as possible, one day at a time.

18. It upsets me to be late for appointments.
19. Ideally, I would live each day as if it were my last.
20. Happy memories of good times spring readily to mind.
21. I meet my obligations to friends and authorities on time.
22. I've taken my share of abuse and rejection in the past.
23. I make decisions on the spur of the moment.
24. I take each day as it is rather than try to plan it out.
25. The past has too many unpleasant memories that I prefer not to think about.
26. It is important to put excitement in my life.
27. I've made mistakes in the past that I wish I could undo.
28. I feel that it's more important to enjoy what you're doing than to get work done on time.
29. I get nostalgic about my childhood.
30. Before making a decision, I weigh the costs against the benefits.
31. Taking risks keeps my life from becoming boring.
32. It is more important for me to enjoy life's journey than to focus only on the destination.
33. Things rarely work out as I expected.
34. It's hard for me to forget unpleasant images of my youth.
35. It takes joy out of the process and flow of my activities, if I have to think about goals, outcomes, and products.
36. Even when I am enjoying the present, I am drawn back to comparisons with similar past experiences.
37. You can't really plan for the future because things change so much.
38. My life path is controlled by forces I cannot influence.
39. It doesn't make sense to worry about the future, since there is nothing that I can do about it anyway.
40. I complete projects on time by making steady progress.
41. I find myself tuning out when family members talk about the way things used to be.
42. I take risks to put excitement in my life.
43. I make lists of things to do.
44. I often follow my heart more than my head.
45. I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is work to be done.
46. I find myself getting swept up in the excitement of the moment.
47. Life today is too complicated; I would prefer the simpler life of the past.
48. I prefer friends who are spontaneous rather than predictable.
49. I like family rituals and traditions that are regularly repeated.
50. I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.
51. I keep working at difficult, uninteresting tasks if they will help me get ahead.
52. Spending what I earn on pleasures today is better than saving for tomorrow's security.
53. Often luck pays off better than hard work.
54. I think about the good things that I have missed out on in my life.
55. I like my close relationships to be passionate.
56. There will always be time to catch up on my work.

Survey Instrument

Demographic questions

How long have you been employed at your current organization? ____ years

Have you received a promotion while working there? Yes or No

How long have you been working at your present position? ____ years

Please indicate your age category:
Under 24 years; 25-34 years; 35-44 years; 45-54 years; 55-64 years; 65 years or older

Please indicate your marital status: _____ married; _____ single; _____other

How many dependents do you have? ___ (not including oneself)

Which category best describes your current living situation? ___rent; __own; ___other

Over the past six months, approximately what percentage of your work duties for the organization have been done as part of a flexible work arrangement? (i.e. work from home, other remote location, etc.) _____

Please indicate your current job level:
Front line employee; Supervisor/team leader; Mid-level manager; Senior/executive manager

In your current full-time position, what is your salary range (annually)?
Choose one: Under $20,000; Between $20,000 and 39,999; Between $40,000 and 59,999; Between $60K and 79K; Between $80K and 99K; $100K or higher.

With regard to financial obligations, how much total debt do you have? (Include total outstanding balance on credit cards, total owed on vehicle, personal loans, etc. Please do <u>not</u> include home mortgage amounts for this calculation.)
Choose one: Under $20,000; Between $20K and 39K; Between $40K and 59K; Between $60K and 79K; Between $80K and 99K; $100K or higher.

Based on the categories below, please indicate which one best fits your current organization:
Healthcare; Manufacturing; Financial; Education; Service; Government; Professional; Retail; Leisure and Hospitality; Nonprofit; Other

Please indicate the size of your workplace/organization:
Note: If you work for a branch location (e.g. national retail store, chain restaurant, bank, etc.) of a large company, please indicate the number of employees at your <u>local</u> workplace:

Under 10 employees; 11 to 40 employees; 41 to 99 employees; 100 to 299 employees; 300 to 499 employees; 500 or more employees.

Please indicate the highest level of education you have completed:

High School Diploma/GED
Some college
Associate's Degree
Bachelor's Degree
Some Graduate-level coursework
Master's Degree
Professional Degree (PhD, MD, EdD, JD, etc.)

In which state do you currently reside? _____

General questions related to affective events in the workplace:

1. Over the past 12 months or so, have you experienced any workplace events that you would consider to be very **positive**? If so, please describe:
   _____
   _____
   _____

2. Over the past 12 months or so, have you experienced any workplace events that you would consider to be very **negative**?
   _____
   _____
   _____

Is there anything else you would like to share? If so, please do so here.
_____
_____