Antecedents of Turnover, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, and Workplace Deviance

Empirical Evidence from Indonesia

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Antecedenten van verloop, prosociaal en contraproductief werkgedrag: Empirische evidentie uit Indonesië

Proefschrift

ter verkrijging van de graad van doctor aan de Erasmus Universiteit Rotterdam

op gezag van de rector magnificus

Prof.dr. H.A.P. Pols

en volgens besluit van het College voor Promoties.

De openbare verdediging zal plaatsvinden op

donderdag 15 december 2016 om **13:30 uur**

door

Debora Eflina Purba
geboren te Sungai Pakning, Indonesië

Erasmus University Rotterdam

PROMOTIECOMMISSIE

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Two employee behaviors of utmost importance to organizations are employee performance and retention (i.e., turnover behavior). This dissertation focuses on employee turnover behavior and two specific aspects of employee performance, i.e., Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and Workplace Deviance (WD) in an Indonesian context. Turnover, OCB, and WD can have far-reaching consequences for a number of important organizational outcomes. For example, Park and Shaw (2013) concluded from their meta-analysis that turnover rates of any type could damage organizational performance. A meta-analysis of consequences of OCB indicated that OCB is related to numerous individual as well as organizational outcomes, including managerial ratings of employee performance, absenteeism, organizational efficiency, customer satisfaction, and reduced costs (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Finally, the estimates of the organizational annual costs of workplace deviance (such as theft, sabotage, acting rudely toward others, and making fun of others) are tremendous (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). In the U.S., organizational costs of workplace deviance vary between $6 to $200 billion (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), and U.S. retailers suffer around $ 15.1 billion per year due to employee theft (Hollinger & Davis, 2003).

Researchers have for long investigated the relative importance of individual and situational factors influencing turnover, OCB, and WD. For example, Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, and Gardner (2011) reviewed 87 independent studies on OCB and found small to moderate positive correlations between the Big Five personality traits and OCB. An important next step, and also the overarching research question that we try to answer in this dissertation is how individual factors (such as personality and work orientations) are related to employee behaviors (in our case, turnover, OCB, and WD). To better understand the underlying processes that explain how individual factors translate to employee behaviors we draw upon organizational theories such as organizational commitment theory in Chapter 2 and job embeddedness theory in Chapter 3. Before discussing the specific research

questions of this dissertation, we will introduce the central theory underlying most of the relationships examined in this dissertation, namely job embeddedness theory.

Job Embeddedness Theory

Job embeddedness is defined as the combined forces from inside the organization (on-the-job embeddedness) and from the community (off-the-job embeddedness) that keep individuals from leaving their job (Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Sablynski, 2004). Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, and Erez (2001) proposed three dimensions of job embeddedness: fit, links, and sacrifice. Fit refers to the perceived compatibility between an employee's personal values, career goals, and future plans and the values and goals of the organization or the community. Links refer to the connections or friendships between the employee and other people at work or in the community. Sacrifice refers to the perceived material or immaterial costs an employee would incur if he or she had to leave the organization or the community.

Since the first published study on job embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001), the construct has been conceptualized in two different ways, namely as a formative and as a reflective construct. Mitchell et al. (2001) conceptualized job embeddedness as a formative construct, in which the indicators (scale items) cause the construct (Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). A reflective scale is conceptualized by viewing observed indicators as reflections of their lateant variable, and changes in the latent variable are reflected in changes in observed indicators (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006). In contrast, a formative scale is conceptualized by viewing observed indicators as causes of the latent variables, and changes in the observed indicators determine the changes in the latent variable. Therefore, formative scales may omit some aspects that are important to individuals and may also include some irrelevant aspects (Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007). For example, leadership could be an important aspect of work that can attach employees to the organization. However, leadership is not included in Lee et al.'s (2004) formative scale. For this reason, Crossley et al. (2007) created a more traditional reflective scale to measure the construct of job embeddedness. However, their global scale does not

separate on-the job embeddedness from off-the-job embeddedness, while previous studies found on- and off-the-job embeddedness to be distinct constructs (e.g., Allen, 2006; Dawley & Andrews, 2012; Feldman, Ng, & Vogel, 2012; Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004). In this dissertation, we therefore decided to adapt Mitchell et al.'s (2001) scale and turned their formative scale into a reflective scale. In addition, due to the potential influence of family on employee decisions at work (Lee & Maurer, 1999; Posthuma, Joplin, & Maertz, 2005), we also created a family embeddedness scale (Chapter 4).

Previously, job embeddedness has been associated with turnover variables across a variety of contexts (e.g., Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012; Mitchell et al., 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Lately, research has found job embeddedness to also predict other important work outcomes, including OCB and WD (e.g., Lee et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2004; Ng & Feldman, 2009). In this dissertation, we will first look at the relationships between personality traits and OCB, and the mediating role of affective commitment. Then, we focus on the relationships between job embeddedness and turnover, OCB, and WD. In particular, we argue that job embeddedness mediates the relationship between employees' perception of trust and turnover (Chapter 3), between community and family embeddedness and turnover intentions (Chapter 4), and between work orientations and OCB and WD (Chapter 5).

Job embeddedness versus Organizational Commitment

Crossley et al. (2007) compared job embeddedness with other well-known work attitudes, including organizational commitment. They concluded that organizational commitment differs from job embeddedness for two reasons. First, whereas organizational commitment represents specific reasons for being attached (e.g., affective, calculative, or normative), job embeddedness represents a more general feeling of attachment. Second, organizational commitment solely focuses on job-related factors, while job embeddedness includes community-related factors as well (Crossley et al., 2007). Furthermore, Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) found that job

embeddedness is able to explain turnover variables (turnover intentions and behavior) above and beyond job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job search behavior, and perceived job alternatives. Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) also found job embeddedness to predict turnover variables both in the U.S. (representing individualist cultures) and in India (representing collectivist cultures). Specifically, they found that the fit dimension was more important in the U.S. than in India, and the links dimension was more important in India than in the U.S. Thus, relationships with others seem to be more important to collectivists than to individualists.

Cultural Context

The data presented in this dissertation were collected in Indonesia. Similar to India, Indonesia is a collectivist country (Hofstede, 1991). Therefore, we assumed that job embeddedness, particularly the links dimension, is prevalent in Indonesia. Moreover, for collectivists, the family's opinion about the job affects their work decisions (Orthner & Pittman, 1986; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Wasti, 2002). Indeed, Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) found that for employees in India, family embeddedness in the organization (i.e., family on-the-job embeddedness, such as the family's opinion about the organization, and the family's interactions with coworkers) was able to explain additional variance in turnover behavior over and above traditional turnover predictors, namely job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job alternatives, and job search behaviors, as well as on-the-job embeddedness and community embeddedness.

Non-Western studies on attitudes and behaviors at work in general, and job embeddedness in particular, are still lacking (Jiang et al., 2012). In their meta-analysis of antecedents and consequences of job embeddedness among individualist and collectivist cultures, Jiang et al. (2012) found that the relationship between off-the-job embeddedness and turnover intentions was stronger in collectivist countries than in individualist countries, but they did not find a significant moderating effect of culture on the relationship between on-the-job

embeddedness and turnover intentions. Although this dissertation does not provide a cross-cultural comparison between individualist and collectivist cultures, we aim to investigate relationships between individual differences and employee behavior by drawing on theories related to collectivist cultures, such as paternalistic leadership whereby leaders who are seen as a "bapak" (father) are much respected by subordinates (Suryani et al., 2012).

Specific Research Questions and Overview of Chapters

The present dissertation examined antecedents of employee turnover and work performance (i.e., OCB and WD) in a non-Western country where published research on employee behaviors is still scarce. To achieve this goal, we conducted four separate empirical studies on the antecedents of employee turnover and performance, drawing from theories representing non-Western cultures, such as social identity theory and covenantal relationship theory. These four studies will be briefly outlined below based on three overarching research questions.

Research Question 1: How do personality traits affect OCB?

In **Chapter 2**, a survey study is presented that examined the underlying mechanism of the relationship between personality traits and OCB in a cement industry in Indonesia, a country where relationships are highly valued. In particular, we looked at the mediating effect of affective commitment in the relationships between extraversion, emotional stability, and OCB directed at individuals (OCB-I) and at the organization (OCB-O).

Research Question 2: In what way do organizational and non-organizational factors affect turnover intentions?

This question is answered in **Chapter 3** and **Chapter 4.** In **Chapter 3**, a survey study is conducted in a restaurant industry in Indonesia to investigate the mediating role of on-the-job embeddedness in the relationship between trust in supervisor and turnover variables (i.e., turnover intentions and voluntary turnover). The study presented in **Chapter 4** served two goals: to develop a new scale to measure job

embeddedness scales (i.e., on-the-job embeddedness, off-the-job embeddedness, and family embeddedness), and to investigate the indirect effects of off-the-job embeddedness and family embeddedness on turnover intentions via on-the-job embeddedness in a sample of nurses in Indonesian hospitals.

Research Question 3: To what extent does job embeddedness affect the relationship between individual work orientations and employee behaviors (i.e., OCB and WD)?

Chapter 5 presents a study investigating the effects of job embeddedness on the relationships between work orientations (Job, Career, and Calling orientations) and OCB and WD. The study was conducted among lecturers and professors in government-owned higher education institutions in Indonesia.

Lastly, **Chapter 6** summarizes the research findings in the previous chapters and discusses theoretical, methodological, and practical implications of the studies. The chapter presents a general discussion in which research findings, strengths, weaknesses, and implications are integrated with future research directions.

PERSONALITY AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR IN INDONESIA: THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

This chapter is published as:

Abstract

This study aims to investigate the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between personality and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in a non-Western culture. We attempt to increase understanding of how personality and work attitudes affect OCB in a culture where relationships are highly valued. Data collected among employees in an Indonesian cement factory indicate that affective commitment partially mediates the relationship between extraversion and OCB directed at individuals (OCB-I) and at the organization (OCB-O), and also partially mediates the relationship between emotional stability and OCB-O. We confirm the importance of examining work attitudes in personality-OCB relationships in collective cultures.

Introduction

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is defined as "an individual's behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988: p.3). The concept of OCB has been extensively studied (e.g. Chen, Hui, & Sego, 1998; Organ, 1988; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Some of the studies have been devoted to the antecedents of OCB (e.g., Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000), whereas others have focused on OCB as a predictor of other variables, such as organizational competitiveness (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997) or turnover (Chen et al., 1998). From these studies, it has been concluded that job satisfaction and other work-relevant attitudes are stronger predictors of OCB than personality traits (Organ & Ryan, 1995) and that cognitive appraisals of job outcomes are stronger predictors of OCB than dispositions such as positive and negative affectivity (Organ & Konovsky, 1989).

In general, organizations tend to value employees who exhibit OCB. Managers are expected to show certain leadership skills and to give good examples of OCB to their subordinates, who will in turn show OCB themselves (Krishnan & Arora, 2008; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). The present study was conducted among managers in a cement factory in Indonesia. Although a European group has owned the majority of shares in this factory for several years, the managers still apply Indonesian style, which places importance on hierarchy and collectivism (Heuer, Cummings, & Hutabarat, 1999). Most OCB literature originates from Western cultures, and much of it has focused on the direct effect of personality on OCB (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Most Western studies on the relationship between personality and OCB have found conscientiousness and agreeableness to be the best predictor of OCB (see Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller, & Johnson, 2009; Organ & Ryan, 1995). A few Western studies also found moderate correlations between extraversion and

emotional stability and OCB (e.g., Oh & Berry, 2009; Richards & Schat, 2011), while others found only extraversion and not emotional stability to correlate with OCB (e.g., Cote & Miners, 2006; King, George, & Hebl, 2005). Meanwhile, a handful of studies on the personality-OCB relationship have been carried out in Asia, including Indonesia (Ariani, 2010; Kumar, Bakhsi, & Rani, 2009; Lin & Ho, 2010; Tang & Ibrahim, 1998; Raja, 2004; Singh & Singh, 2009; Suresh & Venkatammal, 2010). Singh and Singh, (2009) and Kumar et al. (2009), using samples from India, found that four of the Big Five personality traits, namely conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability, were positively correlated with OCB. On the contrary, Raja (2004) found in a Pakistani sample that openness to experience, conscientiousness, and emotional stability were correlated with OCB. Raja also suggested that intervening variables existed that could explain the personality–OCB relationships.

Based on their meta-analysis of 87 independent studies on OCB, Chiaburu et al. (2011) suggested small to moderate correlations between the 'Big Five' personality traits and OCB, indicating that there are possible intervening variables affecting the personality–OCB relationship. Organ and Ryan (1995) suggested that work attitudes might explain the relationship between personality and OCB. So far, only a few studies have tried to explain the psychological mechanisms of the personality–OCB relationship. For example, Ilies et al., Fulmer, Spitzmuller, and Johnson (2009) found that job satisfaction mediated relationships between personality traits (specifically agreeableness and conscientiousness) and OCB.

In an attempt to add to the literature on the role of work attitudes in the personality–OCB relationship, especially in a non-Western culture, the present study will focus on the role of affective commitment as the mediator of the relationship between two specific personality traits (extraversion and emotional stability) and OCB. We focus on extraversion and emotional stability for two reasons. Firstly, in social psychological studies on altruism, extraversion and emotional stability were found to be the most important predictors of pro-social behaviors (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Secondly, these two traits have consistently

been found to be positively correlated with OCB in non-Western studies (e.g. Kumar et al., 2009; Singh & Singh, 2009).

The study was conducted in Indonesia, a developing country with a population of approximately 240 million people, with more than 300 ethnic groups. As reported by Zewail (2004), 70-80 per cent of the world population lives in developing countries. Yet articles by scientists from such countries constitute less than 7 per cent. Therefore, it is important to understand OCB within a developing country like Indonesia.

Indonesia is diverse in its cultures and traditions. Nevertheless, all Indonesian people are regarded as having a highly collectivistic culture (Hofstede, 1991) that respects togetherness and helping values (Koentjaraningrat, 1990). Since collectivistic individuals value membership in a group and look out for the wellbeing of the group even at the expense of their own personal interests (Wagner, 1995), we assume that Indonesian employees will show high levels of OCB (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). Research has shown that people in collectivistic cultures tend to exhibit more OCB than people in individualistic cultures (Cohen & Avrahami, 2006; Hui, Lee, & Wang, 2014). Furthermore, cultural differences in social norms, attitudes, and values have been found to affect personality scores (e.g., Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001; Huang, Church, & Katigbak, 1997). Therefore, we expect different correlations between personality traits and OCB in individualistic and collectivistic cultures. More specifically, we expect the personality–OCB relationship to be stronger in collectivistic than in individualistic cultures.

Personality and OCB

There are many OCB frameworks introduced by OCB researchers. For example, Smith et al. (1983) suggested two factors of OCB, namely altruism (behaviors directed at individuals) and generalized compliance (behaviors directed at the organization at large). Organ (1988) proposed a taxonomy of OCB that included (1) altruism: behaviors aiming to help a specific other with organizationally relevant

problems; (2) conscientiousness: behaviors that go beyond the minimum job requirements; (3) sportsmanship: willingness of the employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaint; (4) courtesy: discretionary behavior of the individual aimed at preventing work-related problems with others; and (5) civic virtue: behaviors that indicate that one responsibly participates in, is involved in, or is concerned about the sustainability of the organization.

Williams and Anderson (1991) proposed two dimensions of OCB. The first dimension is OCB directed toward individuals (OCB-I). This dimension fits Organ's altruism and courtesy dimensions. Examples of OCB-I behaviors include helping co-workers to finish their tasks, sharing the latest information about new methods of work with co-workers, and helping new employees to socialize with other employees. The second dimension is OCB directed toward the organization (OCB-O). This dimension fits Organ's other three dimensions. Examples of OCB-O behaviors are keeping abreast of changes in the environment that may affect the company, expressing positive things about the company to people outside the company, and refraining from complaining about trivial matters at work.

Organ's dimensions have been found to overlap considerably (e.g., LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Therefore, most recent studies on OCB have used Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCB dimensions, i.e. OCB-I and OCB-O (e.g. Ariani, 2010; Ilies et al., 2009; Kumar et al., 2009). These are considered to be related yet distinct (Dalal, 2005; Ilies et al., 2009; Paine && Organ, 2000). Ilies et al. (2009) found that agreeableness is more closely related to OCB-I, while conscientiousness is more closely related to OCB-O. They contended that agreeableness reflects the ability to engage in interpersonal interaction between individuals at work, because these individuals enjoy rewarding relationships (OCB-I). Furthermore, they argued that conscientiousness reflects the tendency to work dedicatedly and precisely; people scoring high on this trait enjoy organizational rewards and recognitions (OCB-O) more than people scoring low on this trait.

Several other researchers have found different correlates of OCB-I and OCB-O (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). For

example, Halbesleben and Bowler (2007) found that emotional exhaustion was positively related to OCB-I through communion striving, and negatively related to OCB-O through striving for status. Ilies et al. (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of studies on leader-member exchange (LMX) and OCB, and found that LMX was more strongly related to OCB-I than to OCB-O. These studies provide evidence for the distinctiveness of the two types of OCB.

The present study focuses on extraversion and emotional stability, as these traits have been found to be important predictors of helping behaviors (Smith et al., 1983) in non-Western contexts also (Kumar et al., 2009; Singh & Singh, 2009). Extraversion has been associated with positive affect (George & Brief, 1992). People with high positive affect are friendly and pleasant to interact with. Extraverts are good at initiating and maintaining close interpersonal relationships, including with colleagues. Therefore, extraverts are expected to perform OCB-I by helping co-workers. Extraverts are also likely to exhibit OCB-O (e.g. making constructive suggestions to improve work functions and spreading the company's goodwill to other parties), because they tend to enjoy being the center of attention (Ashton, Lee, & Paunonen, 2002).

Individuals low on emotional stability are usually anxious, depressed, angry, self-conscious, impulsive, and vulnerable (Costa & McCrae, 1992). They are usually preoccupied with their own problems, are often in a negative mood that results in negative feelings toward others, and they therefore may not have the energy to attend to others' problems. On the other hand, people high on emotional stability are usually calm and less likely to feel tense. Therefore, emotionally stable people are able to help other individuals at work (i.e., OCB-I) and to attend to organizational problems (i.e., OCB-O) better than emotionally unstable people. This leads to our first hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 1a:* Extraversion and emotional stability will be positively related to OCB-I.

> *Hypothesis 1b:* Extraversion and emotional stability will be positively related to OCB-O.

Affective Commitment and OCB

There are many forms of work commitment, such as commitment to the work itself, the career, the occupation, the organization, and the union (Morrow, 1983). Of the five major foci of commitment, organizational commitment is the most extensively studied (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Because our focus is on the devotion or loyalty of employees to the organization, we chose organizational commitment as one of our study variables.

Allen and Meyer (1990) introduced three components of organizational commitment, *viz.* affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Affective commitment is defined as the emotional attachment, identification, and involvement that an employee has with the organization and the organizational goals, and their willingness to remain in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Antecedent variables pertaining to affective commitment are personal characteristics and individual differences (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Griffin & Bateman, 1986; Steers, 1977), organizational structure (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Podsakoff, William, & Todor, 1986), and work experience (Blau, 1988; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective commitment is suggested to predict turnover, in-role performance, OCB, and employee health and well-being (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002).

Continuance commitment is defined as the attachment to the organization because of perceived costs associated with leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Antecedent variables of continuance commitments are related to side-bets such as an excellent pension plan or friendship ties built up over years (Ferris & Aranya, 1983; Parasuraman & Alutto, 1984), and other investments and alternatives (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). Continuance commitment is suggested to be positively related to turnover variables, and not to behaviors beyond one's job description, such as OCB (Meyer et al., 2002).

Normative commitment is defined as perceived obligation to remain in the organization, and has similar antecedents to affective commitment (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). Normative commitment has not received as much attention in

the literature as the other components, perhaps due to the overlapping correlates between affective and normative commitment (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). Like affective commitment, normative commitment also predicts turnover variables, in-role performance, OCB, and employee health and well-being (Meyer et al., 2002). However, according to Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) normative commitment has 'two faces', i.e. 'moral imperative' (the desire to do the right thing) and 'indebted obligation' (the need to do something to prevent future social costs). As a consequence, normative commitment may have contradictive consequences. For example, individuals high on moral imperative may exhibit OCB, whereas individuals high on indebted obligation may not be expected to perform OCB.

In this study we will focus on affective commitment, as affective commitment has been recognized as one of the most important predictors of OCB, and as the strongest correlate of OCB compared to continuance commitment and normative commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Employees who stay in the organization based on affective commitment will be more likely to show high levels of OCB, because they identify themselves with the organization and because they have a strong desire to help the organization to achieving its goals (Chen & Francesco, 2003; Rifai, 2005; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998). Employees committed to the organization because *they want to*, are more likely to voluntarily help others (OCB-I) and the organization (OCB-O) alike. Affective commitment has been confirmed to be one of the most important predictors of OCB in both Western and non-Western cultures (e.g., Meyer et al., 2002; Ng & Feldman, 2011; Rifai, 2005; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998; Wiener, 1982). Therefore, we expect that:

Hypothesis 2a: Affective commitment will be positively related to OCB-I.

Hypothesis 2b: Affective commitment will be positively related to OCB-O.

Affective Commitment as a Mediator

Organ et al. (2006) conceptualized OCB as a discretionary characteristic that occurs in 'weak' situations. In 'weak' situations, cues about desirable behaviors are vague and the situations do not provide clear incentives and normative expectations of

behavior. Thus, in such situations individuals have considerable discretion in determining which behaviors to exhibit. In contrast, 'strong' situations are those in which there are considerable demands or pressures for everybody to behave in the same manner. In such situations, individuals are restricted in the range of behaviors that they are willing and able to exhibit. According to Mischel (1977), 'strong' situations suppress the expression of personality traits because of the clarity in reward and punishment for desirable behaviors. Therefore, an individual's personality may be more strongly expressed and more strongly related to OCB in 'weak' than in 'strong' situations. In a cement factory, where work rules are strict and the demand for security is high because of the potential environmental risks, task performance cues are 'strong'. However, contextual performance (OCB) cues are 'weak', since there are no clear incentives, support, or normative expectations of types of behavior.

Only a few studies have attempted to explain the underlying mechanism of the relationship personality–OCB relationship (Ilies et al., 2009), and to our knowledge there are no studies that posit affective commitment as the mediator between personality and OCB. Indonesian management style is prevalent in this company, in which managers create a sort of 'surrogate' family for their employees (Wasti, 2002). This means that managers are seen as a kind of 'father' who is expected to look after his employees. This type of manager-subordinate relationship is likely to increase affective commitment between both the 'father' and the employees, who feel the need to be loyal to their 'fathers' (Key, 2000; Wang, Bishop, Chen, & Scott, 2002). Graham and Organ (1993) identified this type of relationship as a covenantal relationship, whereby two parties agree to support and involve themselves holistically for each other's welfare. Covenantal relationships go beyond reciprocal social exchange and involve stronger affective commitment (Jiao, Richards, & Hackett, 2013), which in turn will influence OCB.

On the other hand, Johnson, Morgeson, and Hekman (2012) argued for a dispositional motivational basis of social identification by examining extraversion and emotional stability and their relationships with social identification. Across three studies, they found extraversion to be related to affective identification, and

emotional stability to be related to cognitive identification. In the same manner, we also expect that extraversion and emotional stability will be related to affective commitment. Extraversion can be seen as a representation of positive affect and emotional instability as a representation of negative affect (e.g., Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000; Templer, 2012; Watson & Clark, 1984). George and Brief (1992) found that positive affect and negative affect are related to OCB indirectly through affective states. Following this line of reasoning, we consider affective commitment, which involves affective feelings as a result of identification with the organization, to be a mediator of relationships between these two personality traits and OCB. Extraverts are predisposed to be sociable, assertive, talkative, and active (Barrick & Mount, 1991), and consequently tend to experience positive feelings and have more friends than those who are introverted; in doing so, their level of affective commitment will increase (Brown, 1996). Emotional stability, on the other hand, is associated with being calm and relaxed, and having low negative affect (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). As a consequence, like extraverts, emotionally stable individuals tend to experience positive feelings which increase their positive experience in the organization, and in turn will increase their level of affective commitment (Brown, 1996). For both extraverted and emotionally stable individuals, this high level of affective commitment may in turn lead to increased OCB. Based on cultural norms (covenantal relationships) and the dispositional motivational basis, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 3a: Affective commitment will mediate the relationships between personality and OCB-I.

Hypothesis 3b: Affective commitment will mediate the relationships between personality and OCB-O.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Data were collected among 300 employees of an Indonesian foreign-invested cement factory with seven plants located in West Java. Data collection was done by means of questionnaires. Participants were top, middle, and line managers who had been employed at the company for at least one year. All the participants were Indonesian. The company organizes their work system into work teams. At the time of data collection, the organization was facing downsizing. At the plant sites, 90% of the employees were male and 10% female. This gender distribution is very common in cement factories in Indonesia. Hence, there was a low percentage of women involved in the present study (3.34%). Because of the skewed gender distribution, we did not include gender as a demographic study variable. The number of questionnaires returned was 222, representing a response rate of 74%. Because of incomplete data, thirteen cases were deleted from the dataset; hence, the total number of participants was 209. The mean age of the participants was 35.97 (*SD* = 7.54). Of the participants, 64.11% were high school to college graduates, and 35.89% were bachelor to doctoral graduates. Table 1 provides an overview of the demographic characteristics of the participants. All participants completed the questionnaires on a voluntary basis and in a group setting. The survey was completed during workdays within a time period of two weeks. Before the participants completed the survey, we asked their immediate supervisor to assure them that the survey was anonymous and that the results would only be used for research purposes. After filling out the questionnaire, each participant was given a small gift as compensation. Completion of the self-report questionnaires took approximately thirty minutes.

Table 1.

Demographic Characteristics of Study Participants

	N	%
Age		
< 26 years	10	4.78%
26 – 35 years	114	54.54%
36 – 55 years	85	40.67%
Gender		
Male	202	97.67%
Female	7	3.34%
Tenure		
< 2 years	1	0.47%
2 – 10 years	77	36.84%
> 10 years	131	62.67%
Educational level		
High school to college graduates	134	64.11%
Bachelor to doctoral graduates	75	35.89%
Job level		
Echelon 1 – 2 (top managers)	15	7.17%
Echelon 3 – 4 (middle managers)	84	40.19%
Echelon 5 – 6 (line managers)	110	52.64%

Note. *N* = 209

Measures

     Extraversion and emotional stability. The 12-item extraversion and 12-item emotional stability scales were taken from the 60-item NEO-FFI of Costa and McCrae (1992). The scale in Indonesian language was adopted from Ali-Nina's (2002) translation of the Big-Five Personality items. Items were rated on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). Coefficient alphas were

.72 for extraversion, and .80 for emotional stability. The correlation between the scales is .52.

Affective commitment. We used the 9-item affective commitment scale from the organizational commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) and adapted by Ali-Nina (2002) to fit Indonesian culture. Items were rated on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). An example item is: '*I like to develop my career in this company*'. Coefficient alpha of the affective commitment scale is .77.

OCB. In the present study OCB was measured with 41 items, adapted to fit Indonesian culture, that were based on Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCB-I and OCB-O questionnaire and Konovsky and Organ's (1996) questionnaire. The measure consisted of two subscales (OCB-I – 18 items, and OCB-O – 23 items). Items were rated on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). Examples of items are: '*I am willing to help my colleagues doing their work while they are absent*', '*My colleagues usually consult me when they have problems*', and '*I am not keen to pay for self-development trainings'*. Coefficient alphas were .77 for OCB-I and .77 for OCB-O. The correlation between OCB-I and OCB-O was .64. This coefficient resembles Dalal's (2005) meta-analytical finding that OCB-I and OCB-O correlate .64. Ilies et al. (2009: p.947) argued that a coefficient of .64 is not big enough to conceptualize them as one latent construct, because "60% of the variance in one dimension is unexplained by the other, even after accounting for imperfect measurement". Therefore, in this study we distinguish between OCB-I and OCB-O.

Control variables. In this study we controlled for age, tenure, educational level, and job level, since these variables were expected to influence OCB. In their meta-analysis of 350 empirical studies on tenure and job performance, Ng and Feldman (2010) found that tenure explained OCB above and beyond age. The educational level-OCB relationship has long been studied by OCB scholars (e.g., Konovsky & Organ, 1996), showing that college-educated individuals have greater interest in protecting company resources than lower-educated individuals. People acquire work values during their educational years. As education level increases,

their work values (i.e., responsibility, integrity, concern for others, and social relationships) also increase, which promotes OCB (Ng & Feldman, 2009). Job level is defined as the hierarchical position within management (Porter, 1962), and has been found to be positively related to perceived need satisfaction using Maslow's (1954) categorization of needs. Individuals whose needs are fulfilled (i.e., feeling secure with their current management position, having the opportunity to give help to others, having prestige because of the management position inside and outside the organization, and feeling self-fulfillment in their career) tend to give back by giving more attention to others' needs and protecting the organization from harm. Therefore, we also expect a positive relationship between job level and OCB.

Test of Common Method Variance

All the variables in this study were collected from the same source (self-report) using the same method, raising the issue of common method variance. We used Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff & and Organ, 1986) to address this issue, by performing an exploratory factor analysis on all the variables. By examining the unrotated factor structure of the variables, we found no single factor that accounted for the majority of the variance. There were 23 factors that emerged with eigenvalues greater than one, accounting for 67.10% of the variance in the independent and dependent variables. The first factor accounted for only 15.45% of the variance. We also used the latent variable approach by controlling for the effects of an unmeasured latent method factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). By using confirmatory factor analyses, we added a first-order factor with all our measures as indicators. We then compared the standardized regression weights of the factor structures with and without the latent method factor. We did not find significant differences in factor loadings (all well below the threshold of .20; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Hence, it is unlikely that our findings can be explained by common method variance.

Results

Table 2 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations of all study variables. Before we tested the hypotheses, we first looked at significant correlations between the demographic variables and dependent variables. Age was not significantly related to OCB-I and OCB-O (r = -.08, p = .277 and r = .10, p = .134, respectively). Tenure was also not significantly related to OCB-I and OCB-O (r = -.09, p = .189 and r = .04, p = .525, respectively). Educational level was not significantly related to OCB-I (r = .11, p = .109), but was positively related to OCB-O (r = .24, p < .001). Job level was not significantly related to OCB-I (r = -.01, p = .924), but negatively related to OCB-O (r = -.24, p < .001).

We conducted two sets of multiple regression analyses, one with OCB-I as the dependent variable and one with OCB-O as the dependent variable. As Table 3 shows, controlling for age, tenure, educational level, and job level, extraversion was found to be positively associated with OCB-I (β = .33, p < .001) and OCB-O (β = .22, p < .001). Emotional stability was found to be positively associated with OCB-O (β = .14, p = .002), but not with OCB-I (β = .01, p = .499). These results largely support Hypotheses 1a and 1b, which stated that extraversion and emotional stability would be positively related to OCB-I and OCB-O, respectively.

Controlled for age, tenure, educational level, job level, and the two personality traits, affective commitment was found to be positively associated with both OCB-I (β = .36, p < .001) and OCB-O (β = .37, p < .001), supporting Hypotheses 2a and 2b, which stated that affective commitment would be positively related to OCB-I and to OCB-O.

Hypothesis 3, which stated that affective commitment would mediate the relationships between personality and OCB-I and OCB-O, was tested using the bootstrapping method with bias-corrected confidence estimates (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). Hayes' (2013) macro called PROCESS was used to test the indirect effects. Hayes' PROCESS macro is among the 'macros' and 'packages' developed to accommodate simple to complicated models using the latest techniques (Hayes, 2012). For mediation models, the macro provides various measures of the effect size

Table 2.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Study Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Demographic variables											
1. Age	35.97	7.54	NA								
2. Tenure	13.26	6.70	.81**	NA							
3. Educational level	1.84	.99	.02	-.23**	NA						
4. Job level	2.45	.63	-.38**	-.12	-.62**	NA					
5. Extraversion	4.38	.51	-.10	-.15*	.21**	-.13	(.72)				
6. Emotional stability	4.20	.65	.12	.07	.14*	-.19**	.52**	(.80)			
7. Affective commitment	4.66	.58	.10	.10	.05	.12	.29**	.31**	(.77)		
8. OCB-I	4.58	.38	-.08	-.09	.11	-.01	.45**	.26**	.44**	(.77)	
9. OCB-O	4.46	.39	.10	.04	.24**	-.24**	.45**	.43**	.50**	.64**	(.77)

Note. N = 209. NA: not applicable. Age and tenure were measure in years. Educational level was dummy-coded (1 = high school to college, 2 = bachelor to post-grad). Job level was dummy-coded (1 = line managers, 2 = middle managers, 3 = top managers). All other scales were measured on a 6-point scale. Alpha reliability estimates are reported on the diagonal.

* $p < .05$ (two-tailed), ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed)

of indirect effects, together with bootstrap confidence intervals for the inferences of the effect size (Hayes, 2012). Hayes provides a robust technique which is able to test the significance of indirect effects, avoiding the Type II error in mediation analyses likely to occur in Baron and Kenny's (1986) method (Preacher & Hayes, 2004).

In all models we included control variables (age, tenure, educational level, and job level). Yet none was significantly correlated with the study variables. Extraversion and emotional stability were both positively related to affective commitment (b = .23, t = 2.54, p = .012 and b = .17, t = 2.47, p = .014, respectively). Regarding the extraversion–OCB-I relationship, including affective commitment in the analyses resulted in a decrease in the b coefficient of extraversion (b = .27, t = 4.97, p < .001, CI = .161 - .372). The b coefficient was still significant, thus suggesting partial mediation. Results confirmed a significant indirect effect of extraversion on OCB-I via affective commitment (b = .05, Z = 2.29, p = .022). Figure 1 displays the result for the extraversion–OCB-I relationship. Although the path from emotional stability to OCB-I was not significant (b = .03, t = .69, p = .489), the indirect effect of emotional stability on OCB-I via affective commitment was significant (b = .04, Z = 2.23, p = .026). Figure 1 displays the results for the emotional stability–OCB-I relationship.

A similar pattern was found for the personality–OCB-O relationships (see Figure 2). Results confirmed the indirect effects of extraversion (b = .06, Z = 2.33, p = .020) and emotional stability (b = .04, Z = 2.27, p = .023) on OCB-O via affective commitment. In addition, results indicated that the effects of extraversion (b = .18, t = 3.50, p < .001, CI = .078 - .282) and emotional stability (b = .10, t = 2.45, p = .015, CI = .019 - .177) on OCB-O were still significant when controlling for affective commitment, again suggesting partial mediation. These results largely support our third hypothesis.

Table 3.

Results of hierarchical regression analyses for OCB-I and OCB-O (standardized (Beta) regression coefficients)

	Affective commitment		OCB-I			OCB-O		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Control variables								
Age	.02	.01	-.04	-.03	-.03	.01	0	0
Tenure	.06	.08	.01	.05	.02	.08	.12	.08
Educational level	-.04	-.07	.18	.13	.15	.08*	.06	.11
Job level	-.15	-.10	.11	.15	.18	-.06	-.04	-.09
Independent variables								
Extraversion		.19*		.40**	.33**		.29**	.22**
Emotional stability		.19*		.06	.01		.21**	.14*
Mediator								
Affective Commitment					.36**			.37**
F	1.36	11.70**	1.12	8.11**	12.46	4.64**	11.91**	17.46**
R²	.03	.10	.02	.20	.31	.09	.27	.38
ΔR²	.03	.13	.02	.18	.11	.09	.18	.12

Note. N = 209. *F*-ratios for R^2, R^2 and ΔR^2 may appear inconsistent due to rounding. * p < .05, ** p < .01
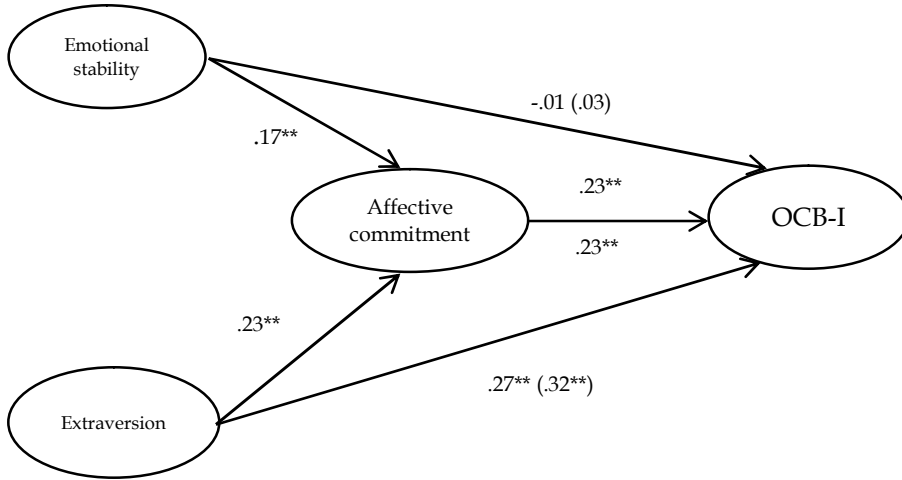
Note: *N* = 209. Control variables: age, tenure, educational level and job level. Number of bootstrap samples for bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000 (confidence level 95%). * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01. Direct coefficients before mediator included are shown in brackets.

Figure 1. Effects of extraversion and emotional stability on OCB-I through affective commitment.
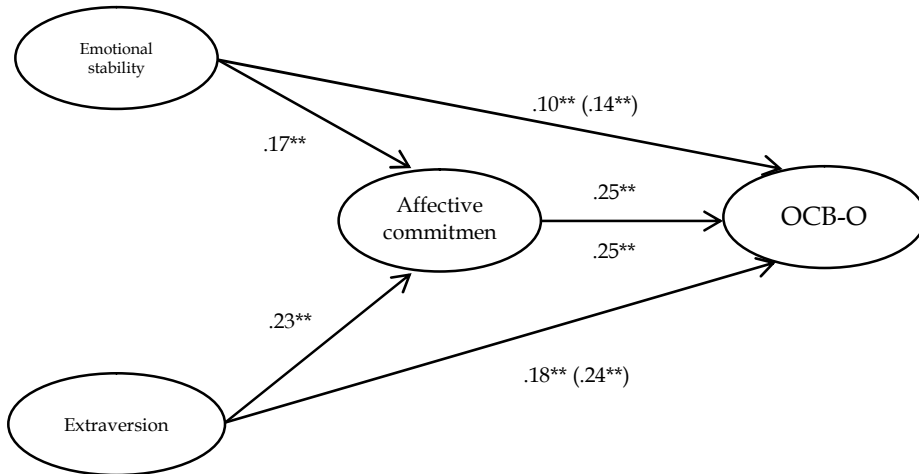
Note: *N* = 209. Control variables: age, tenure, educational level and job level. Number of bootstrap samples for bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000 (confidence level 95%). * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01. Direct coefficients before mediator included are shown in brackets.

Figure 2. Effects of extraversion and emotional stability on OCB-O through affective commitment.

2

Discussion

This study is among the first to consider work attitude (i.e., affective commitment) as a mediator in the personality–OCB relationship. An important contribution of the study is that it was conducted in a collectivistic society, namely Indonesia. Indonesia in particular and Asia in general are considered under-represented in terms of publications in social sciences, especially management. Therefore, this study will help to understand the mechanism of how employees perform OCB, especially in a collectivistic culture where social relationships are considered important. Knowledge about the antecedents of OCB is important, as previous research provided evidence that OCB improves organizational performance by enhancing the organization's ability to attract and retain the best people, by reducing performance variation among employees, and by increasing the organization's capability to face changes in its environment (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). In the next section we will summarize the findings and discuss theoretical and practical implications of the study.

Summary of findings

Before discussing the hypotheses, we first look at the correlations between the control variables and our study variables. Of the control variables, only educational level and job level were significantly related to OCB-O. In line with a previous study (Konovsky & and Organ, 1996), employees with a high educational level tend to show more OCB-O. However, contrary to our expectations, employees with a higher job level tend to show less OCB-O. The prestige of having a high management position may not have increased the managers' concern regarding their company's reputation, perhaps because a higher position is regarded as a given because of their longer tenure, not because of their work achievements.

In line with Hypotheses 1a and 1b, we found relationships between extraversion, OCB-I, and OCB-O. These suggest that extraverted employees are more likely than introverted employees to help others at work and to attend to organizational problems. Helping others probably reinforces their positive mood

and positive feelings toward others (George & Brief, 1992). In contrast with our hypothesis, we did not find a relationship between emotional stability and OCB-I over and above extraversion. This result is in line with past studies that revealed weak correlations between emotional stability and OCB (see Organ & Ryan, 1995). Le, Oh, Robbins, Ilies, Holland, and Westrick (2011) also found that as emotional stability increases, the relationship between emotional stability and OCB becomes weaker and even disappears at some point. Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie, and Reiser (2000) explained that emotional stability allows individuals to better regulate their emotions and hence better cope with workplace stressors, thereby increasing OCB. However, at a certain point this emotional regulation leads to extreme self-control and behavioral inhibition, thereby decreasing OCB. Although in general we expected no differential results for OCB-I and OCB-O, we found a differential effect of emotional stability on OCB-I and OCB-O: the direct effect of emotional stability on OCB-O was relatively larger than the direct effect of emotional stability on OCB-I. This may mean that individuals who experience increased emotional stability tend to be more comfortable performing OCB toward the organization than toward other individuals, because of their increased self-control (Eisenberg et al., 2000).

In line with our second hypothesis and previous studies (Meyer et al., 2002; Ng & Feldman, 2011), affective commitment was positively correlated with both OCB-I and OCB-O, even after controlling for age, tenure, educational level, job level, extraversion, and emotional stability. Affective commitment has been proven to be a robust predictor of OCB; the more emotionally involved employees are in an organization, the more willing they are to do things beyond their job requirements, such as voluntarily help others (OCB-I) and protect the organization (OCB-O).

Finally, largely confirming our third hypothesis and Organ and Ryan's (1995) suggestion about the mediating role of attitudinal variables, we found affective commitment to mediate the relationships between extraversion and emotional stability and OCB (with the relationship between emotional stability and OCB-I after controlling for extraversion as the only exception). Our findings are in line with George and Brief's (1992) work on affective states, suggesting that

affective commitment, which involves affective feelings as a result of the employee's identification with the organization, plays an important role in OCB.

Theoretical implications

As previous studies have suggested, personality–OCB relationships are influenced by other underlying factors (Chiaburu et al., 2011; Ilies et al., 2009; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Previous studies on OCB have focused on social exchange theory. For example, Ilies et al. (2009) explored job satisfaction as an explanation for the personality–OCB relationship, by arguing that employees who are satisfied will reciprocate by exhibiting OCB. The present study contributes to the literature by demonstrating the mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationships between personality (i.e., extraversion and emotional stability) and OCB in Indonesia. We believe that, unlike job satisfaction, affective commitment goes beyond merely social exchange. We believe affective commitment is an important mediating variable for two reasons. First, covenantal relationships between managers and subordinates, prevalent in collectivistic cultures like Indonesia, develop strong affective commitment, which in turn will influence OCB. Bakar, Jian, and Fairhurst (2014), in their Malaysian study, found that LMX quality agreements are related to OCB, confirming covenantal relationships between leaders and employees in Malay culture. Second, extraverted and emotionally stable individuals are predisposed to experience positive emotions toward their organization regardless of social and group dynamics, which will increase their affective commitment and OBC. The interplay of covenantal relationships and dispositional motivation explains why personality affects OCB through affective commitment. The present study has increased understanding of the personality–OCB relationship, as previous studies have been limited to non-Western cultures, despite the evidence that non-Western people have been found to exhibit more OCB than Western people.

We also examined alternative models with extraversion and emotional stability as the mediators of the relationship between affective commitment and

OCB, using the same technique as the proposed model. Results showed that including extraversion and emotional stability reduced the b coefficient between affective commitment and OCB-I ($b = .25$, $t = 6.33$, $p < .001$ and $b = .25$, $t = 6.33$, $p < .001$, respectively). The indirect effect of affective commitment on OCB-I through extraversion after controlling for age, tenure, education, job level, and emotional stability was significant ($b = .04$, $Z = 2.22$, $p = .026$), but the indirect effect of affective commitment and OCB-I through emotional stability after controlling for age, tenure, education, job level, and extraversion was not significant ($b = -.002$, $Z = -0.21$, $p = .830$). Regarding OCB-O, results indicated that extraversion mediated relationships, but not emotional stability ($b = .02$, $Z = 2.00$, $p = .045$ and $b = .02$, $Z = 1.67$, $p = .095$, respectively). Therefore, we consider extraversion as a mediator between affective commitment and OCB to be a viable alternative to the proposed model. Future studies could further explore this interesting result. Extraversion could be a mediator of affective commitment and OCB because extraversion, like affective commitment, consists of affective feelings, which are an important element of prosocial behaviors such as OCB.

We still consider affective commitment as a mediator in personality–OCB relationships. Unlike personality, attitudes include an evaluative component and target specific objects, which makes attitudes more changeable than personality (Ajzen, 2005). Because OCB includes specific objects (e.g. co-worker, supervisor, and department) that allow individuals to evaluate their favorability over the objects, affective commitment is more proximal to OCB than personality is. However, longitudinal research is still needed to examine the exact nature of the relationships between personality, affective commitment, and OCB.

Practical implications

This study offers some practical implications for human resource management and personnel-selection consultants, especially in an Asian context. First, the results provide useful information when using top-down personnel selection systems, which relies on the selection of employees who fit the job description based on the

outcomes of various tests, including personality tests. When organizations value OCB among their employees, applicants should be hired based on their scores on emotional stability and extraversion. Second, although the direct effects between extraversion and emotional stability and OCB are significant (except for the direct effect between emotional stability and OCB-I), affective commitment is also proven to be a good mediator of the relationships between extraversion and emotional stability and OCB. For human resource management, this means that to increase employees' levels of OCB, organizations should also focus on increasing employees' affective commitment, for example by providing flexible working hours for employees who need it, and creating an environment that makes employees feel at home while working. Another powerful way to increase employee's affective commitment (especially for managers) is to include employees in the decision-making process, as previous research has suggested that increasing participation creates a stronger sense of ownership and identification with the job and in turn higher affective commitment (Benkhoff, 1997).

Limitations

The study has several limitations that need to be addressed. The first is the common method variance (CMV) originating from the self-report technique used to measure all variables. In order to reduce the potential CMV bias, we assured respondents of the anonymity and confidentiality of the study and explained that there were no wrong or right answers. Items in the scales were also fact-based and provided in random order. Although the Harman's test and the latent variable approach suggested that CMV was not a substantial problem, future studies need to consider a multi-source rating approach, such as using self-ratings in combination with peer ratings or supervisor ratings. For example, LePine et al. (2002) recommend the use of peer ratings to examine OCB directed toward individuals.

The second limitation relates to the generalizability of the findings, because the study was conducted in one company only and almost all participants were male. Studies on the relationship between OCB and gender have showed that males

are more likely to perform civic virtue than females (Kidder, 2002), and females are more likely to perform altruism than males (Van Dyne & and Ang, 1998). Therefore, it is important to replicate this study using diverse samples, including other types of industries, such as creative and service industries. It is also important to compare results from a purely Indonesian-invested company to the current study findings. Studies among employees working in an Indonesian-invested company might reveal stronger relationships between personality, affective commitment, and OCB, since such companies might adopt a higher degree of collectivistic values compared to foreign-invested companies.

In conclusion, the present study has confirmed positive relationships between extraversion, emotional stability, affective commitment, and OCB. Furthermore, the study confirmed the mediating effect of affective commitment in personality–OCB relationships in a non-Western culture where personal relationships in work settings are highly valued.

THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN TRUST IN SUPERVISOR, TURNOVER INTENTIONS, AND VOLUNTARY TURNOVER: TESTING THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF ON-THE-JOB EMBEDDEDNESS

This chapter is published as:

Abstract

This study investigated the mediating effect of on-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between trust in supervisor and turnover. Survey data were collected among 471 employees of a restaurant chain in Indonesia. Results showed that on-the-job embeddedness mediated the relationship between trust in supervisor and turnover intentions. Turnover intentions were positively correlated with actual voluntary turnover 15 months later. The results confirmed that the trustworthiness of supervisors affects the quality of the relationships between supervisor and employees. Hence, low levels of trust must be addressed as soon as possible to maintain a healthy environment in which employees are able to develop their job embeddedness.

Introduction

The costs associated with high voluntary turnover rates are a tremendous burden on organizations. Cascio and Boudreau (2008) estimate that hiring and training a replacement can cost up to 150% of each departing employee's annual salary. There are also intangible costs associated with the knowledge, both generic and context-specific, that the organization loses along with the employees (Somaya & Williamson, 2008). In addition, Hausknecht, Trevor, and Howard (2009) discovered that turnover impairs organizational performance because it redirects employees' attention away from service provision; experienced employees must divide attention between core service tasks and socialization of new members, while new employees must spend time learning the job and gaining experience. Considering these costs, it is important to study the precursors of voluntary turnover. Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner (2000) found that employees' turnover intentions remain one of the best predictors of actual voluntary turnover. Hence, identifying predictors of turnover intentions can allow organizations to correct the conditions that spur thoughts of quitting so that voluntary turnover rates can be better managed. Besides, negative attitudes associated with turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000) can be contagious, which negatively affects the overall morale among an organization's employees. For these reasons, the first purpose of this study is to assess the effects of employees' trust on both turnover intentions and actual voluntary turnover.

Perceptions of trust are considered essential for the long-term stability of organizations and the well-being of their employees (Nienaber, Romeike, Searle, & Schewe, 2015). There are two kinds of organizational trust (i.e., interpersonal trust and trust in organizations), each with its own set of antecedents and outcomes (Searle et al., 2011). The present study focuses on a specific type of interpersonal trust, i.e., trust in supervisor, and its relationship with voluntary turnover in an organization in Indonesia. Trust in supervisor has often been linked to turnover, since supervisors influence employees' daily work-life by making operational decisions and providing socio-emotional support (Costigan, Insinga, Berman,

Kranas, & Kureshov, 2011). Yet, studies conducted in Western countries have found that trust in supervisor has only small to moderate effects on turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000). Although voluntary turnover has been a major problem in Asian organizations, so far only a few empirical studies on turnover have been conducted in Asian countries (e.g., Khatri, Chong, & Budhwar, 2001; Zheng & Lamond, 2010). We believe that trust in supervisor is critical for employees in Indonesia because of the prevalence of paternalistic leadership, a leadership style that combines strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolence and moral integrity (Suryani, Van de Vijver, Poortinga, & Setiadi, 2012).

Recently, job embeddedness theory has examined the psychological reasons why people may choose to leave the organization (e.g., Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Job embeddedness has been shown to serve as a mediator between work attitudes and important organizational outcomes including turnover intentions (e.g., Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004). We believe job embeddedness to be an intervening variable between trust in supervisor and turnover intentions as well. Hence, the second purpose of this study is to test the mediating role of job embeddedness in the relationship between trust in supervisor and turnover intentions.

Job Embeddedness

Job embeddedness represents a broad constellation of forces that make it harder for individuals to leave their current job (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001). Its utility in predicting turnover has been supported in various studies in Western and non-Western countries (e.g., Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Mitchell et al. (2001) define three critical aspects of job embeddedness: (1) links: the extent to which people have links to other people or activities, (2) fit: the extent to which their jobs and communities are similar to or fit with other aspects of their life spaces, and (3) sacrifice: the ease with which links can be broken - what they would give up if they left, especially if they had to physically move to another city. These three aspects can be work-related (on-the-job

embeddedness) as well as non-work-related (off-the-job embeddedness). Together, these two distinctions (on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness) and three aspects (fit, links, and sacrifice) lead to six dimensions of job embeddedness. As on-the-job embeddedness has been found to be a stronger predictor of turnover than off-the-job embeddedness (e.g., Jiang et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2004), the present study will focus on the construct of on-the-job embeddedness.

On-the-job embeddedness has been found to reduce turnover, even after controlling for job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job search behaviors, and job alternatives (Crossley et al., 2007; Jiang et al., 2012; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Previously, Harris, Wheeler, and Kacmar (2011) conducted a study on leader-member exchange (LMX) and job embeddedness in the United States, and found that job embeddedness fully mediated the LMX-turnover relationship. It has been argued that LMX and trust in supervisor have some overlap as they both focus on dyadic relationships in organizations (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008). However, LMX does not differentiate between an employee's and a supervisor's perception of the quality of exchange – it assumes that the quality of the exchange is something that can be objectively established. Trust in supervisor is different from LMX in that it concerns the perception of the employee and this perception does not need to be mutual. In fact, it is likely that the supervisor's trust of the employee is not equal to the employee's trust of the supervisor. Since we were interested in predicting turnover, i.e., the *employee's* thoughts about quitting the organization, we believe the employee's perception of the relationship with the supervisor is a more relevant predictor than the reciprocity in perceptions.

On-the-job Embeddedness as a Mediator of the Relationship between Trust in Supervisor and Turnover Intentions

Our theoretical link from trust in supervisor to job embeddedness to turnover is motivated by two long standing theories: the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1974) and the theory of subjective culture (Triandis, 1989). According to the social identity theory, individuals classify themselves as belonging to specific groups. According to the subjective culture theory, individuals in groups share subjective cultures and

form ingroups to maximize their positive social identity (Triandis, 1989). Social identification leads to positive feelings about the group and to behavior that is congruent with the identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). The present study is conducted in Indonesia, one of the predominantly collectivistic cultures (Hofstede, 1991), with a philosophy of paternalistic leadership (Suryani et al., 2012). Employees expect their immediate leader to act as a "bapak" (father), who provides a secure work environment and a holistic concern over their well-being (Purba, Oostrom, Van der Molen, & Born, 2015; Suryani et al., 2012). For collectivistic workers, supervisors who meet these cultural expectations will be considered ingroup members and will be perceived as nurturing and respectful. On the contrary, supervisors who ignore their duty as a "father" will be regarded as outgroup members and will be perceived as manipulative and exploitative (Triandis, 1989). Thus, for Indonesian employees, trust in one's supervisor is critical for social identification and the development of ingroup relationships at work, which will lead to feelings and behaviors that support the organization, i.e., high job embeddedness and low turnover intentions.

More specifically, we expect trust in supervisor to influence the fit, links, and sacrifice dimensions of on-the-job embeddedness as follows. The direct supervisor is trusted to act like a "father", who provides a secure work environment in which employees are able to learn and adapt. This, in turn, will lead to feelings of comfort and "fit", which attaches employees to the organization. The level of fit increases and stabilizes during the early years of employment (Holtom, Tidd, Mitchell, & Lee, 2013). Unlike the level of fit, the number of links in the organization will develop over time. Initially, relationships between employees and their supervisors are likely to be superficial (Holtom et al., 2013), but over time they will develop into deeper emotional bonds as both parties learn to trust each other and employees begin to identify with their supervisors and to categorize them as one of their ingroup members. Furthermore, a paternalistic leader will facilitate employees to actively form and nurture broader links within the organization. These strong social links will make it more difficult for employees to leave the

organization, as they are faced with the prospect of sacrificing meaningful relationships within the organization.

Thus, we hypothesize that on-the-job embeddedness partly explains the previously reported negative relationship between trust in supervisor and turnover intentions (e.g., Costigan et al., 2011) by creating feelings of comfort and safety, higher quality relationships, and unwillingness to sacrifice these relationships. Our proposed research model (Figure 1) is in line with Mobley's (1977) intermediate linkages model, which posits that work attitudes (i.e., trust in supervisor and job embeddedness in the present study) lead to thinking about quitting, which, in turn, may lead to intentions to quit and, ultimately, those intentions may be translated into turnover behavior.
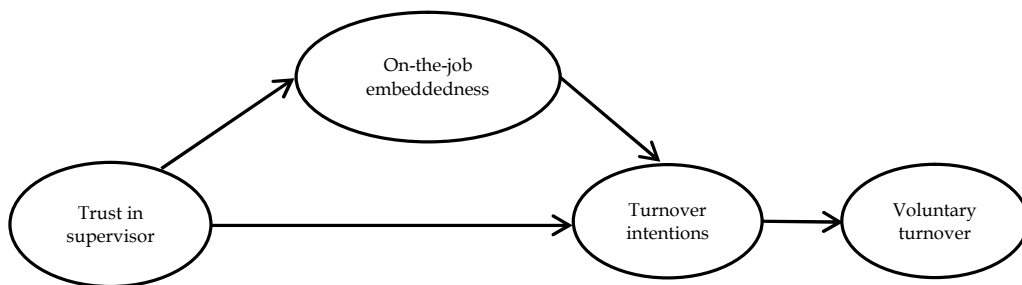

Figure 1. Proposed model.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Data were collected among 600 employees of 12 outlets of an international restaurant chain located in Jakarta, Indonesia. Our participants held a variety of jobs (e.g., cook, driver, waitress, and cashier). When assessing trust in supervisor, employees were asked to rate their immediate supervisor who provides their performance appraisals. All participants completed the questionnaire on a voluntary basis. The human resource department helped us to assure the participants of the confidentiality of the study. Data were collected by means of a

paper-and-pencil survey, which was completed during workdays within a time period of two weeks. Completion of the survey took approximately 20 minutes.

Five hundred thirty-four questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of 89%. Thirty-four participants did not fill out the questionnaire completely (e.g., leaving the demographic data or the items of entire scales blank). These participants were removed from the dataset. Fifteen months later we collected turnover data from company records. The turnover rate was 19.2%, which is a little higher than the average turnover rate of 11.5% across all industries in South-East Asia (Economist Corporate Network, 2015). Twenty-nine participants had left the company involuntarily during that time (e.g., because they were fired due to poor performance). Since our study focused on voluntary turnover, we also removed these participants from the dataset. In the end, we had a complete data set for 471 participants (58.8% males). The mean age of the participants was 24.27 years (*SD* = 3.94). The number of employees that worked less than two years at the restaurant chain was 269 (57.11%).

Measures

All scales were translated into Indonesian by an independent bilingual organizational psychologist, and back translated into English by another independent bilingual organizational psychologist as suggested by Brislin (1970). All items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*), except for the items of the link dimensions of job embeddedness.

Job Embeddedness. We used the 22-item on-the-job embeddedness scale and the 11-item off-the-job embeddedness scale of Mitchell et al. (2001) to measure participants' job embeddedness. Following Lee et al. (2004), we averaged item scores to create an overall on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness score. For the links dimension we standardized all scores before creating a total score (range: -0.58 - 2.25). Examples items are: '*I feel like I am a good match for this organization*' (organization fit), '*How many coworkers do you interact with regularly?*' (organization links), '*The perks on this job are outstanding*' (organization sacrifice), '*I*

really love the place where I live' (community fit), *'Do you own the home you live in*?' (community links), and '*Leaving this community would be very hard*' (community sacrifice). Table 1 presents the factor loadings of our study variables. To improve the discriminant validity of our job embeddedness measure, we removed one item (i.e., "*How many coworkers are highly dependent on you?*") in the organizational links dimension and two items in the organizational sacrifice dimension (i.e., "*I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals*", and "*I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job*"). We suspect that the low factor loadings are the result of low variance among participants; most of the restaurant employees do not have a lot of freedom in decision-making, nor have colleagues depending on them. The composite reliabilities varied between .49 and .74. Since job embeddedness is conceptualized as a formative construct, the reliability coefficients are considered more descriptive than substantive (Felps, Mitchell, Hekman, Lee, Harman, & Holtom, 2009).

Table 1.

Loadings and Cross-loadings for the Measurement (Outer) Model

	Affective trust	Cognitive trust	OFJE links	OFJE fit	OFJE sacrifice	ONJE fit	ONJE links	ONJE sacrifice	Turnover intentions
Aftrust1	*0.735*	0.434	0.066	0.146	0.100	0.321	0.012	0.273	-0.189
Aftrust2	*0.699*	0.491	0.009	0.177	0.079	0.373	0.050	0.277	-0.244
Aftrust3	*0.703*	0.374	0.037	0.140	0.040	0.109	0.047	0.150	-0.067
Aftrust4	*0.648*	0.286	0.012	0.159	0.073	0.124	0.066	0.143	-0.028
Aftrust5	*0.733*	0.591	-0.017	0.111	0.034	0.310	0.055	0.296	-0.255
Cogtrust1	0.460	*0.781*	0.074	0.137	0.046	0.294	0.010	0.301	-0.196
Cogtrust2	0.499	*0.786*	0.079	0.218	0.118	0.345	0.062	0.292	-0.202
Cogtrust3	0.474	*0.682*	0.019	0.118	0.040	0.245	0.001	0.268	-0.098
Cogtrust4	0.522	*0.833*	-0.007	0.164	0.053	0.325	0.027	0.333	-0.246
Cogtrust5	0.498	*0.779*	0.007	0.178	0.080	0.295	0.071	0.320	-0.254
Comlinks1	-0.038	0.004	*0.331*	0.002	-0.039	0.091	-0.304	0.049	-0.065
Comlinks2	0.070	0.077	*0.564*	0.002	0.011	-0.058	-0.050	0.035	0.010
Comlinks3	-0.021	-0.034	*0.680*	0.072	0.043	0.005	-0.160	0.018	0.055
Comlinks4	0.033	0.050	*0.629*	0.112	0.203	0.038	-0.010	0.046	0.119
Comfit1	0.138	0.098	0.011	*0.696*	0.455	0.228	0.031	0.111	-0.087
Comfit2	0.152	0.202	0.076	*0.797*	0.454	0.236	0.052	0.160	-0.043

	Affective trust	Cognitive trust	OFJE links	OFJE fit	OFJE sacrifice	ONJE fit	ONJE links	ONJE sacrifice	Turnover intentions
Comfit3	0.176	0.197	0.058	*0.769*	0.450	0.246	0.018	0.159	-0.066
Comfit4	0.149	0.109	0.104	*0.724*	0.342	0.134	-0.061	0.160	0.062
Comsac1	-0.029	-0.034	0.078	0.387	*0.582*	0.060	0.065	0.020	-0.001
Comsac2	0.132	0.096	0.110	0.457	*0.829*	0.151	0.018	0.096	0.030
Comsac3	0.059	0.097	0.082	0.333	*0.697*	0.142	-0.014	0.028	0.053
Orgfit1	0.171	0.172	0.034	0.096	0.181	*0.386*	-0.076	0.122	-0.041
Orgfit2	0.322	0.355	0.021	0.176	0.139	*0.739*	-0.008	0.428	-0.324
Orgfit3	0.269	0.257	0.009	0.212	0.170	*0.751*	0.111	0.488	-0.285
Orgfit4	0.222	0.240	-0.040	0.191	0.054	*0.614*	0.013	0.347	-0.269
Orgfit5	0.196	0.249	0.057	0.211	0.071	*0.731*	-0.022	0.478	-0.207
Orgfit6	0.271	0.270	-0.004	0.168	0.117	*0.692*	0.048	0.415	-0.301
Orglinks1	-0.049	-0.035	0.182	0.008	0.005	-0.019	*-0.834*	-0.072	0.125
Orglinks2	-0.124	-0.090	0.139	0.011	0.002	-0.019	*-0.834*	-0.100	0.117
Orglinks3	-0.088	-0.020	0.155	0.003	0.027	0.055	*-0.457*	-0.010	0.027
Orglinks4	0.092	0.031	-0.032	-0.016	-0.084	-0.024	*-0.273*	-0.009	-0.014
Orglinks5	-0.012	-0.031	0.002	0.027	0.034	-0.006	*-0.052*	0.013	0.086
Orglinks6	-0.004	-0.012	0.018	-0.102	-0.094	-0.029	*-0.324*	0.006	0.067
Orglinks7	0.064	0.082	0.074	0.014	-0.013	-0.025	*-0.328*	-0.011	0.101
Orgsac1	0.127	0.047	0.060	0.054	0.089	0.031	-0.079	**0.096*	0.148
Orgsac2	0.223	0.232	0.048	0.115	-0.059	0.417	0.014	*0.735*	-0.220
Orgsac3	0.237	0.209	0.047	0.186	0.137	0.424	0.001	*0.472*	-0.148
Orgsac4	0.080	0.024	0.004	0.121	0.116	0.001	-0.011	**0.031*	0.074
Orgsac5	0.063	0.226	0.076	0.051	0.083	0.199	-0.019	*0.320*	-0.153
Orgsac6	0.255	0.339	0.021	0.153	0.096	0.355	0.125	*0.546*	-0.241
Orgsac7	0.178	0.138	0.030	0.119	0.050	0.329	0.068	*0.641*	-0.131
Orgsac8	0.164	0.207	-0.030	0.061	0.017	0.342	0.031	*0.703*	-0.220
Orgsac9	0.242	0.322	0.074	0.166	0.035	0.433	0.129	*0.703*	-0.329
Leaveintent1	-0.187	-0.204	0.074	-0.044	-0.015	-0.331	-0.077	-0.330	*0.819*
Leaveintent2	-0.184	-0.216	0.061	0.005	0.063	-0.339	-0.112	-0.273	*0.886*
Leaveintent3	-0.231	-0.238	0.075	-0.022	0.058	-0.277	-0.200	-0.259	*0.812*

Note. N = 471. OFJE = Off-the-job-embeddedness. ONJE = On-the-job-embeddedness.
*Items removed to improve discriminant validity. Factor loadings above .70 were retained for reflective measures (trust in supervisor and turnover intentions), and above .20 for formative measure (job embeddedness).

Cognitive and Affective Trust in Supervisor. We used the 5-item scale of cognitive trust and the 5-item scale of affective trust from Yang, Mossholder, and Peng (2009). Example items are '*I can depend on my supervisor to meet his/her responsibilities*' (cognitive trust) and '*I am confident that my supervisor will always care about my personal needs at work*' (affective trust). Coefficient alphas were .74 for affective trust and .83 for cognitive trust.

Turnover intentions. We used the 3-item turnover intentions scale from Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978). An example item is: '*I think a lot about leaving this organization*'. Coefficient alpha was .79.

Voluntary turnover. Voluntary turnover was coded 0 for those who resigned and 1 for those who remained active 15 months after the survey. The nature of the turnover (voluntary vs. involuntary) was based on the company records of the exit interviews conducted by the human resource department. In total, 404 participants remained active and 67 participants had voluntarily left the organization.

Structural Equation Modeling with Partial Least Squares (PLS)

Since the research model contained both reflective and formative indicators, PLS is considered the best method to analyze the data (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). We employed SmartPLS version 3.2.0 (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015) to test our model. In order to reduce the potential spurious correlations between the independent variable, the mediator, and the outcomes, we controlled for participant's age (measured in years) and gender (male = 1, female = 2). There are two stages of analyzing and interpreting a PLS model: (1) assessing the reliability and validity of the measurement model, and (2) assessing the structural model. To test the discriminant validity of each construct, we compared the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) with the correlations among constructs (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). Table 2 presents the AVE's and composite reliabilities for all study variables. We also assessed the loading of each item on its intended construct and their cross-loadings. Results showed that the vast majority of items have the highest

loading on the intended construct (Table 1). Henseler and Sarstedt (2013) illustrated that PLS path modeling's goodness-of-fit indices are not suitable for the validation of models that contain formative constructs. They suggested carefully evaluating the path coefficients and particularly their significance in order to decide upon which path to leave in the model and which to discard. SmartPLS 3.2.0 applies a bootstrapping procedure to estimate the precision of means and standard errors of the estimates, which are then tested for significance by the *t*-statistic. The structural model is shown in Figure 2.
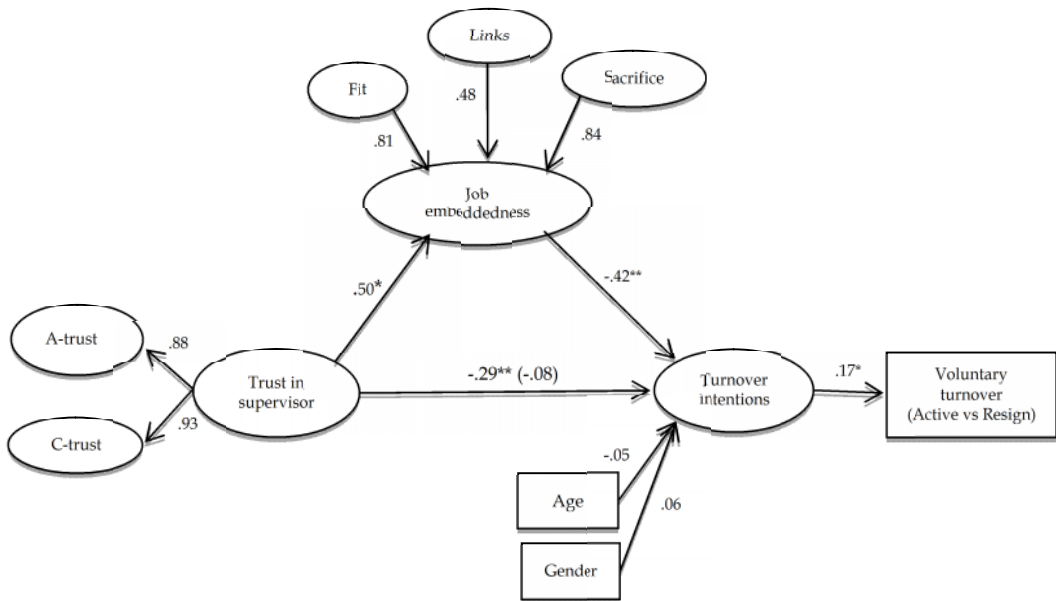
Note. A-trust = Affective trust. C-trust = Cognitive trust. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01. Direct path is shown between brackets.

Figure 2. Path coefficients of our model with job embeddedness as a mediator of the relationship between trust in supervisor and turnover intentions.

Test of Common Method Variance

Almost all study variables were collected from the same source (self-report) using the same method, raising the issue of common method variance. We performed two statistical techniques to address the issue. First, we used a Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) by performing an exploratory factor analysis on all the items. The first factor accounted for only 21.97% of the variance. Second, we

followed Liang, Saraf, Hu, and Xue's (2007) common method factor (CMF) procedure using SmartPLS in which we created a latent variable "CMF" that included all indicators of the substantive constructs and converted each indicator to a single-indicator latent variable. The ratio of the substantive variance to method variance was 29:1 and most factor loadings of the method variance were non-significant. These results showed that common method variance is not a pervasive problem in this study.

Results

Table 2 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations of all study variables. Before testing our hypotheses, we first examined the correlations between demographic variables and the other study variables. Age was positively related to the links dimension of on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness ($r = .32$, $p < .001$ and $r = .30$, $p < .001$) and negatively related to voluntary turnover ($r = -.09$, $p = .040$). Gender was positively related to trust in supervisor ($r = .12$, $p = .007$), indicating a somewhat higher level of trust in their supervisor for male employees compared to female employees.

Table 3 demonstrates the path analyses. Trust in supervisor was positively related to on-the-job embeddedness ($b = .50$, $SE = .05$, $t = 9.97$, $p < .001$). We performed a bias-corrected and accelerated bootstrap procedure and found a significant and negative total effect of trust in supervisor on turnover intentions ($b = -.29$, $SE = .05$, $t = 5.56$, $p < .001$). When on-the-job embeddedness was taken into account, the effect of trust in supervisor on turnover intentions became non-significant ($b = -.08$, $SE = .05$, $t = 1.76$, $p = .079$), indicating full mediation by on-the-job embeddedness.

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Study Variables

	Average Variance Extracted	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Age	1	24.30	3.95	NA												
2. Gender	1	1.59	.49	.25**	NA											
3. ONJE fit	.44	0	.66	.07	.05	.74										
4. ONJE links	.27	0	.49	.32**	-.05	.00	.64									
5. ONJE sacrifice	.29	0	.59	-.02	.06	.58**	-.05	.69								
6. ONJE	NA	0	.40	.16**	.04	.83**	.38**	.79**	.74							
7. OFJE fit	.60	0	.76	.10*	.04	.28**	-.04	.19**	.23**	.72						
8. OFJE links	.32	0	.57	.30**	.04	.04	.18**	.07	.13**	.07	.63					
9. OFJE sacrifice	.50	0	.71	.02	-.01	.18**	-.05	.08	.12*	.57**	.10*	.49				
10. OFJE	NA	0	.49	.18**	.03	.24**	.02	.17**	.22**	.82**	.47**	.81**	.61			
11. Trust in supervisor	.50	3.71	.49	0	.12**	.40**	-.02	.39**	.40**	.22**	.04	.08	.17**	.85		
12. Turnover intentions	.70	2.39	.73	-.03	.02	-.36**	.14**	-.35**	-.31**	-.04	.06	.04	.02	-.26**	.79	
13. Voluntary turnover	1	1.14	.35	-.09*	-.04	-.06	-.08	-.08	-.11*	-.01	-.03	-.02	-.03	-.04	.17**	NA

Note. N = 471. NA = not applicable. Age was measured in years; Gender was dummy coded (1 = male, 2 = female).
Voluntary turnover was dummy coded (0 = resign, 1 = active). All others scales were measured on a 5-point scale.
All items of on-the-job- and off-the-job embeddedness were standardized due to different measurement scales. Composite reliabilities are presented on the diagonal.
In order to present composite reliabilities for job embeddedness scales, we first reversed the arrows from formative to reflective. ONJE = on-the-job embeddedness.
OFJE = off-the-job embeddedness.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

We also examined the indirect effects of trust in supervisor and job embeddedness on voluntary turnover via turnover intentions. Although there was no significant effect of trust in supervisor on voluntary turnover (b = -.05, SE = .05, t = 0.86, p = .387), nor of on-the-job embeddedness on voluntary turnover (b = -.07, SE = .06, t = 1.17, p = .243), the indirect effects of on-the-job embeddedness (*Estimate* = .06, SE = .02, t = 3.73, CI[.030, .099]) and trust in supervisor (*Estimate* = .05, SE = .01, t = 3.31, CI[.025, .084]) on voluntary turnover via turnover intentions were significant.

Table 3 shows that the path coefficient between turnover intention and voluntary turnover is significant (b = .17, SE = .04, t = 4.08, p < .001). The logistic regression analysis showed that the -2 log likelihood function was 371.71 and the Nagelkerke R^2 was .05. Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test demonstrates that our model fits the data well (χ^2 = 6.17, p = .290). Turnover intentions were positively related to voluntary turnover (b = .66, SE = .18; W = 13.24, p < .001, $Exp(\beta)$ = 1.94). Employees with higher turnover intentions were 1.94 times more likely to leave the organization than those with lower turnover intentions.

Table 3.

Results of the PLS Path Model Analysis

	Path coefficient	Standard error	*t*-statistics
Proposed model			
Age – turnover intentions	-.05	.04	1.50
Gender – turnover intentions	.06	.04	1.46
Trust – turnover intentions (total effect)	-.29	.05	5.56**
Trust – on-the-job embeddedness	.50	.05	9.97**
On-the-job embeddedness – turnover intentions	-.42	.06	7.31**
Trust – turnover intentions (after controlling for on-the-job embeddedness, age, and gender)	-.08	.05	1.78
Turnover intentions – voluntary turnover	.17	.04	4.08**
Indirect effect: Estimate = -.08, *SE* = .01, *t* = 5.18, CI[-.158, .024]			

Alternative model 1 (trust in supervisor as mediator between on-the-job embeddedness and turnover intentions)

Age – turnover intentions	-.05	.04	1.45
Gender – turnover intentions	.06	.04	1.46
Trust – turnover intentions	-.07	.05	1.71
On-the-job embeddedness - trust	.50	.05	9.77**
On-the-job embeddedness – turnover intentions (total effect)	-.43	.04	9.59**
On-the-job embeddedness – turnover intentions (after controlling for trust, age, and gender)	-.42	.05	7.36**

Indirect effect: Estimate = -.04, SE = .01, *t* = 1.65, CI[-.079, .018]

Alternative model 2 (trust in supervisor and job embeddedness as related predictors)

Age – turnover intentions	-.05	.04	1.12
Gender – turnover intentions	.07	.04	1.47
Trust – turnover intentions	-.10	.05	2.04*
On-the-job embeddedness – turnover intentions	-.37	.05	6.94**
Turnover intentions – voluntary turnover	.17	.05	4.08**

Alternative model 3 (trust in supervisor and job embeddedness as unrelated predictors)

Age – turnover intentions	-.04	.04	1.19
Gender – turnover intentions	.05	.05	1.25
Trust – turnover intentions	-.29	.05	5.36**
On-the-job embeddedness – turnover intentions	-.42	.05	8.69**
Turnover intentions – voluntary turnover	.17	.04	3.97**

Alternative model 4 (on-the-job embeddedness as moderator)

Age – turnover intentions	-.06	.04	1.47
Gender – turnover intentions	.06	.04	1.35
Trust – turnover intentions	-.10	.05	1.96
On-the-job embeddedness – turnover intentions	-.41	.06	6.99**
Turnover intentions – voluntary turnover	.17	.04	3.86**
Trust X on-the-job embeddedness	.02	.03	0.58

Note. Based on a 500 bootstrap sample.
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

To test the robustness of our model, we examined four possible alternative models depicting different relationships between the study variables. The results of the

alternative models are also provided in Table 3 (for a more detailed explanation of evaluating path coefficients to decide on the best model, see Henseler & Sarstedt, 2013). The first alternative model posited trust in supervisor as a mediator between on-the-job embeddedness and turnover intentions. Table 3 shows a significant and negative total effect of on-the-job embeddedness on turnover intentions (b = -.43, *SE* = .04, t = 9.59, p < .001), and a significant effect of on-the-job embeddedness on trust in supervisor (b = .50, *SE* = .05, t = 9.77, p < .001). However, trust in supervisor had no significant effect on turnover intentions (b = -.07, *SE* = .05, t = 1.71, p = .075). The second alternative model posited trust in supervisor and on-the-job embeddedness as related direct predictors of turnover intentions. On-the-job embeddedness had a negative effect on turnover intentions (b = -.37, *SE* = .05, t = 6.94, p < .001), but trust in supervisor only had a weak effect on turnover intentions (b = -.10, *SE* = .05, t = 2.04, p = .042). The third alternative model posited trust in supervisor and job embeddedness as unrelated predictors of turnover intentions. On-the-job embeddedness had a negative effect on turnover intentions (b = -.42, *SE* = .05, t = 8.69, p < .001), and trust in supervisor had a negative effect on turnover intentions (b = -.29, *SE* = .05, t = 5.36, p < .001). The fourth alternative model posited on-the-job embeddedness as a moderator of the relationship between trust in supervisor and turnover intentions. The interaction effect turned out to be non-significant (*Estimate* = .02, *SE* = .03, t = 0.58, p = .558). Hence, our proposed model seems to be the most viable model.

Discussion

The present study investigated the mediating effect of on-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between trust in supervisor and turnover intentions. In general, our results provided support for our hypotheses. We believe that the findings of our study contribute to the literature in a number of ways.

First, our study is the first study to show a positive relationship between trust in supervisor and job embeddedness. In Indonesia, direct supervisors are trusted to act like a "father", who provides a secure work environment in which

employees are able to learn and adapt. As employees become unwilling to sacrifice the feeling of fit and comfort and the relationships they have developed in the organization, their level of job embeddedness increases. Trust in supervisor is considered critical for employees in Indonesia because of the prevalence of paternalistic leadership (Suryani et al., 2012). Therefore, we expect trust in supervisor to have a stronger influence on job embeddedness in collectivistic societies than in individualistic societies. Since Zhang, Fried, and Griffeth (2012) indicated that so far only three studies related to this topic have been conducted outside of the United States, we encourage more cross-cultural research on job embeddedness.

Second, the present study provides insight into why trust in supervisor is related to turnover intentions. Our results provide evidence for a mediating effect of on-the-job embeddedness on the trust in supervisor-turnover intentions relationship. This finding is consistent with and expands on previous research that has posited job embeddedness as a mediator between leadership-related variables and turnover intentions (e.g., Harris et al., 2011).

The third contribution of the present study is that the results show that on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness have different antecedents and outcomes. Feldman, Ng, and Vogel (2012) suggested separating on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness because this may yield more valid findings regarding the relationship between embeddedness and turnover intentions. Table 2 shows that, in contrast to on-the-job embeddedness, off-the-job embeddedness is not related to turnover intentions and voluntary turnover (r = .02, p = .698, r = -.03, p = .522, respectively). Therefore, it is important to separate work-related and non-work-related job embeddedness when investigating turnover. Our results are in contrast with Jiang et al.'s (2012) meta-analysis that showed off-the-job embeddedness to be negatively related to turnover variables. Mitchell et al. (2001) argued that job embeddedness-turnover relationship might vary according to context and samples. Since previous studies found job alternatives to be positively correlated with turnover variables (e.g., Jiang et al., 2012; Mitchell et al., 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010), we believe that the contrasting findings can be explained by our study's

location, i.e., a big city with many alternative jobs available. We therefore urge future studies to include samples from rural areas to test the influence of context.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This study has several limitations that need to be addressed. First, all measurements were based on self-reports (except for the objective measure of actual voluntary turnover), which may cause common method bias. However, several items in our questionnaire were fact-based (such as the number of connections with colleagues) which may reduce this bias. In addition, CMV tests suggested that common method bias was not a substantial problem in our study. Nonetheless, future studies might consider a multi-source rating approach, such as self-ratings in combination with family member's rating.

The second limitation pertains to the construct of job embeddedness. Job embeddedness was first conceptualized as a so-called formative construct or causal indicator construct (Mitchell et al., 2001). The major concern for such a construct is its limitation to apply standard psychometric tools, such as internal consistency and confirmatory factor analyses. Moreover, from a psychometric point of view, a disadvantage of using formative constructs is that they might include irrelevant items or oversee important items (Zhang et al., 2012). Therefore, we suggest future researchers to consider using reflective construct of job embeddedness, such as Crossley et al.'s (2007) global job embeddedness measure.

Third, the high turnover rates in the restaurant industry are partly due to employees' low salaries and excessive working hours. We did not include these variables in our study because we expected hardly any variance in salaries and working hours in our specific sample. Future studies could examine the explained variance of trust in supervisor and job embeddedness over and above these specific variables that characterize the restaurant industry.

Another interesting avenue for future research might be to investigate perceived supervisor embeddedness, defined as "the extent to which an employee believes his/her supervisor is enmeshed in the organization" (Ng & Feldman, 2013,

p. 651). Job embeddedness of other people, such as co-workers and supervisors, could affect the employee's own embeddedness (Felps et al., 2009; Ng & Feldman, 2013), and in turn lead to low turnover intentions.

Practical Implications

The present study has some practical implications. We found trust in supervisor to be a proximal predictor of on-the-job embeddedness, which in turn leads to low turnover intentions. Research indicates that when employees trust their supervisor, they experience fit and are satisfied with their relationship with their supervisor. If they are unwilling to lose this satisfying relationship, employees will experience low turnover intentions. Considering the negative consequence of turnover, organizations should focus on developing trust among their employees. Previous studies have demonstrated that supervisor attributes (i.e., benevolence, ability, competence, integrity) are predictors of trust in supervisor (e.g., Nienaber et al., 2015). Since in collectivistic cultures supervisors are expected to act like a father, who takes care of the employee both on and off the job, practices that involve the employee's family (e.g., family gatherings) may also increase the employee's trust in supervisor (Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Organizations could create training and development programs to increase their managers' benevolence, ability, competence, and integrity. In addition, organizations should focus on increasing employees' on-the-job embeddedness through deepening social capital, establishing strong ties among employees, and creating a sense of belonging. Specifically, organizations could increase fit by matching employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities with the job's requirements, links through team and long-term projects, and sacrifice by connecting rewards to longevity.

THE INDIRECT EFFECTS OF OFF-THE-JOB EMBEDDEDNESS AND FAMILY EMBEDDEDNESS ON TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Abstract

The goal of this study was to develop a new scale to measure on-the-job embeddedness, off-the-job embeddedness, and family embeddedness and to investigate the indirect effects of off-the-job embeddedness and family embeddedness on turnover intentions via on-the-job embeddedness. We tested our hypotheses on a sample of 334 full-time employed nurses in two hospitals in Jakarta, Indonesia. Results showed that the indirect effects of off-the-job embeddedness and family embeddedness on turnover intentions via on-the-job embeddedness were negative and significant. Thus, employees' families and communities seem to be important for embedding employees in the organization. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

Introduction

Over the years, turnover research has critically examined the roles of job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and job alternatives (i.e., perceived alternatives and job search behaviors) as the primary predictors of turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). This traditional approach of turnover was grounded in March and Simon's (1958) voluntary turnover model, in which turnover was predicted by the perceived desirability (or job attitudes) and perceived ease of movement (perceived alternatives and job search). Recently, however, job embeddedness was found to explain unique variance in turnover over and above these traditional predictors (e.g., Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). The interplay between on- and off-the-job embeddedness in turnover research has flourished since then (e.g., Jiang et al., 2012; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Job embeddedness has been defined as the combined forces from inside the organization (on-the-job embeddedness) and from the community (off-the-job embeddedness) that keep individuals from leaving their job (Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Sablynski, 2004). Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, and Erez (2001) proposed that three broad categories are crucial for keeping individuals from leaving the organization: fit, links, and sacrifice. Fit refers to the perceived compatibility between the values, career goals, and future plans of the employee and the organization or the community. Links refer to the connections or friendships between the employee and other people at work or in the community. Sacrifice refers to the perceived material or immaterial costs an employee would incur if he or she had to leave the organization or the community.

As a relatively new concept, job embeddedness has been measured in different ways. Mitchell et al. (2001) first introduced the concept using a so-called formative conceptualization (or as a causal indicator construct as they labeled it; Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). In this type of conceptualization, a concept is measured with items that do not necessarily correlate, but when combined, constitute or cause the construct (Lee et al., 2014). Conceptualizing the scale in this way leads to a comprehensive scale only when it includes all aspects that contribute to the attachment of individuals to their organization and the community.

However, this type of conceptualization may omit some important aspects or include some irrelevant aspects (Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007). Moreover, it does not allow the application of traditional psychometric tools and standards (e.g., coefficient alpha). To overcome these limitations, Crossley et al. (2007) created a global job embeddedness measure using the traditional reflective conceptualization.

With relatively few items to assess job embeddedness, Crossley et al.'s (2007) measure overcame the statistical limitations of Mitchell et al.'s (2001) scale. However, the short scale does not separate on-the job embeddedness from off-the-job embeddedness. Previous studies found on- and off-the-job embeddedness to be distinct constructs with different relationships with other variables (e.g., Allen, 2006; Dawley & Andrews, 2012; Feldman, Ng, & Vogel, 2012; Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004). Therefore, we opted to adapt and extend Mitchell et al.'s (2001) scale from a causal indicator construct into a reflective construct by retaining, revising, and adding items. Moreover, we developed a family embeddedness scale inspired by job embeddedness aspects.

Although several studies showed the importance of the family on turnover (e.g., Lee & Maurer, 1999; Posthuma, Joplin, & Maertz, 2005), there have been only a few studies that have systematically studied family influence in turnover models (i.e., Feldman et al., 2012; Kiazad, Holtom, Hom, & Newman, 2015; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Kiazad et al. (2015) proposed family embeddedness in the community as "embeddedness by proxy" in which attachment to the community is caused by family rather than the employee. In the present study, we combined the two foci (i.e., family embeddedness in the community and family embeddedness in the organization) and argue that both family embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness indirectly affects turnover intentions by embedding employees in the organization.

Extending the Job Embeddedness Measure

The present study was conducted in Indonesia, a country that is considered to have a so-called collectivistic culture (Hofstede, 1991). In collectivistic cultures, the self is dependent on important others (the in-group), and an individual's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are kept to normative standards of this ingroup (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Therefore, the opinions of the family, i.e., the ingroup, need to be taken into account when predicting an individual's decisions at work. Previous empirical studies have demonstrated the importance of the family for an employee's attitudes and behaviors at work (Kanter, 1977; Orthner & Pittman, 1986; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Wasti, 2002). For example, Ranganathan and Kuruvilla (2008) identified family disapproval as a main reason for turnover among call center employees in India. Wasti (2003) found that family disapproval of the organization was a predictor of turnover intentions over and above job commitment among Turkish employees in various companies. In an exploratory study, Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) found that family embeddedness in the organization (i.e., family on-the-job embeddedness) was able to explain additional variance in turnover over and above traditional turnover predictors, namely job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job alternatives, and job search behaviors, as well as on-the-job embeddedness and community embeddedness.

Following Ramesh and Gelfand (2010), we developed a family embeddedness measure to further investigate the role of the family in turnover decisions. We propose that family embeddedness is important to consider when predicting an individual's turnover decisions, particularly in Asia where collective cultural values are shown to be important. Family embeddedness can affect the intentions of employees to stay in the organization, especially when leaving the organization would mean leaving the community and the connections they have in their organization. Moreover, the desire to stay in a community may not be the result of the individual's attachment, but rather of the family's attachment with the community (Feldman, Ng, & Vogel, 2012; Kiazad et al., 2015). It is thus reasonable to suggest that family's opinions, thoughts, and feelings are expected to play an

important role in an employee's decision to leave the organization and the community especially in collectivistic cultures, (e.g., Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Wasti, 2002).

Accordingly, we conceptualized family embeddedness as the extent to which the family is enmeshed in the organization and the community. Like job embeddedness, family embeddedness also consists of three broad categories, i.e., fit, links, and sacrifice. Family fit refers to the perceived compatibility between the values of the individual's family and the organizational values (family organization fit) and the community values (family community fit). Family links refer to the connections or friendships the family has within the organization (family organization links) and the community (family community links). Family sacrifice refers to the perceived material or immaterial loss the family would incur if the employee leaves the organization (family organization sacrifice) or has to leave the community (family community sacrifice).

The Role of On-the-job Embeddedness

Turnover intentions are defined as the positive attitude toward leaving the organization by thinking about leaving (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978). High turnover intentions impact employees' work behaviors, such as higher absenteeism, tardiness, lower OCB, and lower task performance (Burton, Holtom, Sablynski, Mitchell, & Lee, 2010). Participants of the present study were nurses from two hospitals in Jakarta, Indonesia. Several studies on job embeddedness and nurse turnover found that job embeddedness negatively affects nurse turnover (e.g. Holtom & O'Neill, 2004; Reitz, Anderson, & Hill, 2010; Stroth, 2010). As the present study was conducted in Indonesia, a collective country, we expect family embeddedness to influence employee on-the-job embeddedness (Kiazad et al., 2015; Orthner & Pittman, 1986; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Wasti, 2002). We argue that family's fit to the organization and the community, connections with people in the organization and the community, and the sacrifice they feel when they have to leave the organization and the community they like would enhance employee job

embeddedness, because they value their family's opinion. This in turn, is expected to lead to stronger intentions to stay. We hypothesized the following:

> *Hypothesis 1:* Family embeddedness indirectly affects turnover intentions via on-the-job embeddedness.

Feldman et al. (2012) propose that off-the-job embeddedness mostly has an indirect effect on turnover, i.e., via on-the-job embeddedness. When employees are deeply embedded outside of their work, they are more likely to sink roots into the organizations, for example by reconciling themselves to ''making the best of it'' and becoming more involved in work-related activities (Feldman et al., 2012; Krishnamurthi, 1988). Thus, employees that are highly embedded outside their work will show high on-the-job embeddedness in order to sustain their employment and thereby increase their ability to stay in their present communities. Jiang et al. (2012) found a small effect of off-the-job embeddedness on turnover intentions, supporting this idea of on-the-job embeddedness as an intervening variable between off-the-job embeddedness and turnover intentions. Hence, the individual's fit, links, and sacrifice in the community are expected to lead to the individual's fit, links, and sacrifice in the organization, which in turn affect the individual's turnover intentions. We hypothesized the following:

> *Hypothesis 2:* Off-the-job embeddedness indirectly affects turnover intentions via on-the-job embeddedness.

Method

Study 1: Adaptation of Job Embeddedness and Family Embeddedness Scales

Participants and procedure.

Two samples were recruited. The first sample (*N* = 97, among which 60 females) was used to develop the initial job embeddedness and family embeddedness scales (JEFE scales). Initial data were collected from Alumni of a university via an online

survey in Jakarta, Indonesia in the year 2013. We asked them to complete the questionnaire themselves on a voluntary basis and to forward the survey link to their coworkers. The mean age of this sample was 36.78 years (*SD* = 5.99). The second sample consisted of 334 nurse participants (286 females) from local hospitals in Jakarta and was used to confirm the JEFE scales using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The mean age of the sample was 31.45 years (*SD* = 6.94).

JEFE scales: Development and Exploratory Factor Analysis. We developed job embeddedness measures containing 19 items for on-the-job embeddedness and 18 items for off-the-job embeddedness. We used the employee's job embeddedness scale of Lee et al. (2004) as a starting point. We first translated Mitchell et al.'s (2004) scale from English to Bahasa Indonesia, and back translated from Bahasa Indonesia to English, and revised and added several items that fit the Indonesian culture. The complete and final items are presented in Table 1.

The family embeddedness scale contains 31 items adapted from the employee's job embeddedness scale. The original 19 items from the on-the-job embeddedness scale and 18 items from the off-the-job embeddedness scale and the 31 items of the family embeddedness scales were created in English, translated into Indonesian, and then back translated into English by two independent bilingual organizational psychologists, following the procedure suggested by Brislin (1970).

We conducted an exploratory factor analyses (EFA's) using SPSS version 21 to develop the scales, with the following criteria: (1) minimum eigenvalues of 1; (2) minimum factor loading of 0.4; (3) no cross-loading with other factor(s), and (4) conceptual meaningfulness. We removed 7 items of the on-the-job embeddedness scale, 6 items of the off-the-job embeddedness scale, and 8 items from the family embeddedness scale that did not meet the above criteria. Table 1 shows the EFA results for the JEFE scales. Items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). In the on-the-job embeddedness scale, the EFA showed that of the 19 original items, 12 items loaded on three respective factors (fit, links, and sacrifice). The three factor solution of on-the-job embeddedness explained a total of 62.63% of the variance with factor 1 (fit)

contributing 35.5%, factor 2 (links) contributing 14.5%, and factor 3 (sacrifice) contributing 12.63%. In the off-the-job embeddedness scale, of the original 18 items, 12 items loaded on three respective factors (fit, links, and sacrifice). The three factor solution of off-the-job embeddedness explained a total of 76.98% of the variance with factor 1 (links) contributing 55.15%, factor 2 (fit) contributing 12.78%, and factor 3 (sacrifice) contributing 9.06%. In the family embeddedness scale, of the original 31 items, there were 23 items that loaded on six different factors (organization fit, organization links, organization sacrifice, community fit, community links, community sacrifice). The six factor solution of family embeddedness explained a total of 75.15% of the variance, with factor 1 (organization links) contributing 34.93%, factor 2 (organization fit) contributing 6.42%, factor 3 (organization sacrifice) contributing 4.34%, factor 4 (community links) contributing 10.68%, factor 5 (community fit) contributing 13.45%, and factor 6 (community sacrifice) contributing 5.33%.

Second, we confirmed the factor structure from the previous EFA procedure on the second sample of 334 participants. Table 2 shows the results of the CFA comparing the one factor and three factor solution for on- and off-the-job embeddedness, and the comparison of the one factor, two factor, and six factor solutions for family embeddedness. The CFA showed that the three factor solution for on-the-job embeddedness fits the data well ($\chi^2[40]$ = 93.34, p < .001, CFI = .95, TLI = .93, PCLOSE = .09, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .05). Table 2 also shows that the three factor solution for off-the-job embeddedness fits the data well ($\chi^2[50]$ = 100.28, p < .001, CFI = .98, TLI = .97, PCLOSE = .28, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .04). For family embeddedness, the CFA showed that a six factor solution fits the data well ($\chi^2[194]$ = 450.42, p < .001, CFI = .92, TLI = .91, PCLOSE = .003, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .05).

Table 1.

Factor loadings, communalities, and Cronbach's alpha for on- and off-the-job embeddedness and family embeddedness

On-the-job embeddedness

Item	Fit	Links	Sacrifice	Communalities
1. I feel like I am a good match for this organization[A1]	.91			.61
2. Overall, I fit very well in the organization[A2]	.88			.77
3. The organization provides me with a way of life that suits me[A3]	.76			.63
4. I feel personally valued by this organization[A1]	.76			.54
5. I like the responsibility I have at this organization[A1]	.74			.74
6. I frequently have informal meetings/talks with my colleagues[A3]		.84		.54
7. I discuss non-work related problems with my coworkers[A3]		.83		.61
8. I interact with my colleagues quite frequently on a daily basis[A3]		.69		.65
9. Overall, I have strong ties with people throughout the organization[A3]		.50		.59
10. If I leave the organization, I would lose structure in my life[A3]			.86	.43
11. There would be many things about organizational life that I would sacrifice if I left[A3]			.76	.74
12. I would lose the secure work environment if I left[A3]			.67	.62
Eigenvalues	4.26	1.7	1.52	
Percent of variance	35.5	14.5	12.63	
Coefficient alpha	.81	.62	.79	

Note. N = 97.
[A1] Original Mitchell et al. (2004) item.
[A2] Revised Mitchell et al. (2004) item.
[A3] Suggested by Indonesian scholars.

Off-the-job embeddedness

Item	Links	Fit	Sacrifice	Communalities
1. I have close friend(s) in the community where I live[A3]	.99			.62
2. I interact frequently with people in the community[A3]	.94			.70
3. I have strong ties around the community where I live[A3]	.85			.79
4. Overall, I have strong ties with people in the community[A3]	.83			.82
5. I am actively involved in one or more groups in my community[A2]	.64			.85

	Fit	Sac.	Com
6. Overall, I fit very well in my community[A3]	.92		.84
7. This community is a good match for me[A1]	.87		.75
8. My personal values fit into the values of my community[A3]	.81		.86
9. The area where I live right now is suitable for me[A2]	.75		.81
10. I would sacrifice my friendship with neighbors if I leave the area[A3]		.94	.53
11. I would sacrifice the activities in the community if I leave my neighborhood[A3]		.87	.85
12. Leaving the area where I live now would mean many personal sacrifices[A2]		.43	.82
Eigenvalues	6.62	1.53	1.09
Percent of variance	55.15	12.78	9.05
Coefficient alpha	.94	.86	.81

Note. N = 97.
[A1] Original Mitchell et al. (2004) item. [A2] Revised Mitchell et al. (2004) item.
[A3] Suggested by Indonesian scholars.

Family Embeddedness

	On-the-job			Off-the-job			Com
	Links	Fit	Sac.	Links	Fit	Sac.	
1. My family knows my close friends at work.	.94						.81
2. My family knows my supervisor(s) at work.	.85						.78
3. My family is involved in family gathering events organized by my organization.	.81						.74
4. My family interacts frequently with my colleagues at work.	.76						.61
5. My family usually invites my colleagues to family celebrations.	.69						.64
6. My family believes that I am a good fit with my supervisor .		.90					.74
7.My family believes I have a good future in this organization.		.84					.82
8. My family is proud that I work for this organization.		.64					.55
9. My family thinks this organization is a good fit for me.		.64					.69
10. Leaving this organization would cost my family very much.			.95				.80
11. It would harm my family's reputation if I left the organization.			.79				.79
12. My family has strong ties around the community where we live.				.83			.85

13. My family interacts frequently with people in the community.		.81	.80
14. Member(s) of my family are/is actively involved in one or more groups in my community.		.78	.78
15. Overall, my family has strong ties with people in the community.		.67	.79
16. My family likes the environment of the community.		.97	.87
17. Overall, my family fits very well in the community.		.82	.93
18. This community is a good match for my family.		.76	.79
19. My family values fit into the values of the community.		.64	.69
20. My family would lose the nice environment if we move out from the neighborhood.		.90	.78
21. My family would sacrifice the activities in the community if we leave the neighborhood.		.64	.75
22. Leaving the area where we live now would mean many sacrifices to my family.		.63	.72
23. My family would sacrifice our friendship with neighbors if we leave the area.		.62	.74

Eigenvalues	8.38	1.54	1.04	2.56	3.23	1.28
Percent of variance	34.93	6.42	4.34	10.68	13.45	5.33
Coefficient alpha	.80	.86	.70	.91	.91	.83

Note. N = 97. Sac = Sacrifice. Com = Communalities.

Table 2

Measurement model fits for on-the-job embeddedness, off-the-job embeddedness, and family embeddedness.

	Fit Indices						
	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	PCLOSE	RMSEA	SRMR
On-the-job embeddedness							
One-factor model	423.53	43	.63	.53	< .001	.16	.12
Three-factor model	93.34	40	.95	.93	.09	.06	.05
Off-the-job embeddedness							
One-factor model	796.32	53	.68	.6	< .001	.21	.13
Three-factor model	100.28	50	.98	.97	.28	.05	.04
Family job embeddedness							
One-factor model	2388.55	209	.33	.26	< .001	.18	.17
Two-factor model	1880.48	208	.49	.43	< .001	.15	.14
Six-factor model	450.42	194	.92	.91	.003	.06	.05

Note. N = 334.

Study 2: Hypotheses Testing

In the second study we tested our hypotheses regarding the indirect effects of family embeddedness and community embeddedness on turnover intentions via on-the-job embeddedness.

Participants. The number of nurse participants was 334, which is the same sample as we used for the CFA in Study 1.

Measures. All scales used in the study were in English, translated into Bahasa Indonesian by an independent bilingual organizational psychologist, and back translated into English by another bilingual independent organizational psychologist. All scales were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Turnover intentions. The 3-item turnover intentions scale from Mobley et al. (1978) was used. An example item is: '*I think a lot about leaving this organization*'. Coefficient alpha was .82.

JEFE scales. We used the 12-item on-the-job embeddedness scale, the 12-item off-the-job embeddedness, and the 23-item family embeddedness scales we developed in Study 1. Factor loadings and alpha coefficients are shown in Table 1.

Results

Test of Common Method Variance

Since all study variables were measured using a cross-sectional design, we conducted several common method variance (CMV) tests. First, the Harman single-factor test (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) was performed to identify whether there is a general factor that accounts for the majority of variance in the variables. Results show that the first factor only accounts for 18.68% of the variance. Second, we performed the unmeasured latent methods technique using

the AMOS statistical package (Podsakoff et al., 2003), in which items are allowed to load on their theoretical constructs as well as on a latent common methods variance factor. We compared the standardized regression weights with and without the latent common methods variable. Our results showed there were only two items out of the 47 items that showed a difference (of above .20) in standardized regression weights after the latent common method variable was added. Based on these tests, we can conclude that common method variance is not a pervasive problem in this study.

Table 3.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Study Variables

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Gender	1.86	.35	1						
2. Age	31.45	6.94	-.01	1					
3. Education	2.24	.45	.01	.11	1				
4. ONJE	3.38	.40	.05	.07	-.03	1			
5. OFFJE	3.36	.49	-.17**	.06	.09	.14*	1		
6. FamJE	3.27	.35	-.07	.12*	.06	.37**	.57**	1	
7. Turnover intentions	2.44	.71	-.12*	-.13*	-.06	-.29**	.07	-.20**	1

Note. N = 334. Gender was dummy coded (1 = male, 2 = female). Age was measured in years. Education was dummy coded (1 = high school, 2 = college degree, 3 = university degree). ONJE = on-the-job embeddedness, OFFJE = off-the-job embeddedness. FamJE = family job embeddedness. All scales were measured on a 5-point scale. *p* < .05 (two-tailed), **p* < .01 (two-tailed).

Tests of Hypotheses.

To test the hypotheses, which posited that family embeddedness (H1) and off-the-job embeddedness (H2) indirectly affect turnover intentions via on-the-job embeddedness, we used Hayes' PROCESS macro for SPSS, which is considered to be a powerful technique to identify indirect effects. Our confidence intervals are based on the bias corrected method with 5,000 bootstrap samples. Hypothesis 1 was supported; our test showed that the indirect effect of family embeddedness on turnover intentions was negative and significant (indirect effect = -.19, *SE* = .05, 95% *CI* [-.31, -.10]). The direct effect of family embeddedness on turnover intentions

became non-significant (direct effect = -.17, *SE* = .12, 95% *CI* [-.40, .06]) after on-the-job embeddedness was included in the analysis. We further tested the indirect effect of off-the-job embeddedness on turnover intentions via on-the-job embeddedness. Our test showed that the indirect effect was negative and significant (indirect effect = -.06, *SE* = .03, 95% *CI* [-.14, -.001]). The direct effect of off-the-job embeddedness became significant after on-the-job embeddedness was included in the analysis (direct effect = .17, *SE* = .08, 95% *CI* [.02, .32]). Thus, when both off- and on-the-job embeddedness are included in the model, off-the-job embeddedness explains a significant part of the variance in turnover intentions that is left unexplained by on-the-job embeddedness. These findings support Hypothesis 2 and indicate that off-the-job embeddedness is a more distal predictor of turnover intentions compared to on-the-job embeddedness. The estimates are shown in Figure 1.

Discussion

The main aim of this paper was to test the indirect effects of off-the-job embeddedness and family embeddedness on turnover intentions via on-the-job embeddedness. Results showed that, as expected, both indirect effects were negative and significant. We believe our study has several theoretical implications, which we will outline below.

First, our study reveals that the relationship between family embeddedness and turnover intentions is indirect, i.e., via on-the-job embeddedness. This finding is in line with previous findings showing that family is an important factor to embed individuals at their current job (Kiazad et al., 2015; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). This may be especially important in collectivistic countries such as Indonesia, in which people work mostly for the family's welfare, and work is regarded not as a means to support personal advancement, but as a means to support the family (Yang, Chen, Choi, & Zou, 2000). Therefore, individuals may stay in their current organization not because they fit with the organization but because their family prefers them to stay (Kiazad et al., 2015).

We did not find a significant direct correlation between off-the-job embeddedness and turnover intentions, which is different from previous findings (e.g., Jiang et al., 2012; Mitchell et al., 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Tanova & Holtom, 2008). However, we did find a significant indirect effect of off-the-job embeddedness on turnover intentions via on-the-job embeddedness. Thus, this study confirmed Feldman et al.'s (2012) proposal that off-the-job embeddedness is a distal variable of turnover intentions. Since our study was conducted in Jakarta, the capital of Indonesia, the individuals in our samples had many job alternatives should they need to leave their organization. Therefore, off-the-job embeddedness could be less relevant for them in relation to turnover intentions (Feldman et al., 2012; Kiazad et al., 2015).
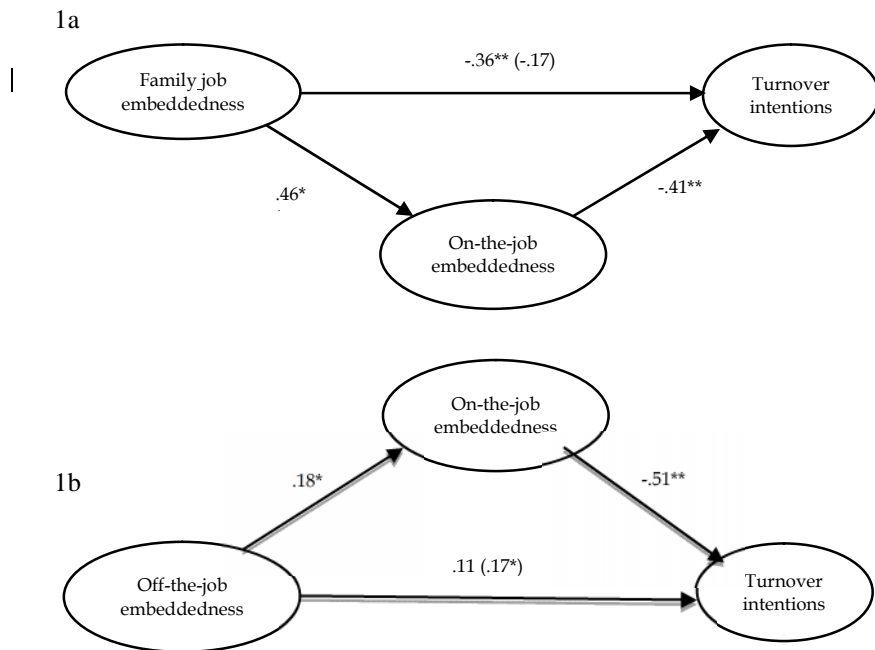
Figure 1. Path of indirect effects of family job embeddedness (1a) and off-the-job embeddedness (1b) on turnover intentions through on-the-job embeddedness. N = 334. Number of bootstrap samples for bias corrected bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000 (confidence level 95%). Direct coefficients after including on-the-job embeddedness are shown between parentheses. * p < .05, ** p < .01

We recommend that future studies test the effects of off-the-job embeddedness on turnover intentions in rural areas where there are only a few job alternatives available and changing jobs would mean relocation.

Moreover, this study has some implications for human resource practitioners. The findings supported our argument that family embeddedness affects employee's embeddedness at work, indicating the family to be important in retaining employees in the organization. Mitchell et al. (2001) have suggested a number of programs to increase job embeddedness, such as an employee development plan, employee gatherings, mentoring programs, sabbaticals, sport teams, etc. In addition, to create a positive attitude about the organization among employees' families, human resource practitioners could make an effort to increase family embeddedness in the organization, for example by involving families at company gatherings (Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Other "family-friendly programs" an organization can adopt are flextime working hours wherein employees can tailor their work hours to fit family schedules, on-site daily-care program for employees having young children, job-sharing arrangements to help employees to spend more time with family especially their children, and providing an information center that families are allowed to use. The effects of such programs are expected to be long-term and to function as an effective retention and motivation-enhancing program. Moreover, managers can encourage employees to participate in corporate social responsibility programs directed to community activities to increase off-the-job embeddedness (Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010).

There are several limitations to our study that should be noted. First, the study used a self-report method, raising the concern of common method bias. Family embeddedness was measured using employee's perception of their family embeddedness because we intended to measure employees' feelings about their family's opinion that affects their work attitudes and behaviors. Although we did not find any evidence for common method bias in the current study, future studies might test how family embeddedness as measured among family members themselves affects employee turnover intentions. Second, the findings of the present study might not generalize to other populations, since our sample or nurses

consisted mainly of females with shift work jobs. Previous research suggested that attitudes about leaving the organization are different between female and male employees (Griffeth et al., 2000). Finally, this has been a cross-sectional study and thus a longitudinal study is needed to examine the causal role of job embeddedness in the relationship between family embeddedness and turnover intentions.

WORK ORIENTATIONS, JOB EMBEDDEDNESS, AND ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Abstract

The present study aimed to investigate the underlying mechanism of the relationships between work orientations (job, career, and calling) and both organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and workplace deviance (WD). We tested our hypotheses on a sample of 188 lecturers and professors from 12 higher education institutions in Indonesia. Drawing on conservation of resource theory, results showed that job and career orientations were significantly related to both OCB and WD, and that calling orientation was not directly related to either OCB or WD. Moreover, all three work orientations indirectly influenced OCB through job embeddedness, and none of the three work orientations indirectly influenced WD. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

Introduction

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and Workplace Deviance (WD) are two important organizational behaviors that "shape the organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as the catalyst for task activities and processes" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 100). Because OCB and WD are considered critical to organizations, academic efforts that explore how to encourage OCB and discourage WD may provide substantial implications for managers and human resource practitioners. Although previous researchers have already identified various antecedents of OCB (Lee & Allen, 2002; Purba, Oostrom, Van der Molen, & Born, 2015) and WD (Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006), so far little attention has been paid to how the experienced meaningfulness of one's work relates to these organizational behaviors and its underlying processes.

The psychological condition of experienced meaningfulness at work has rekindled in recent organizational behavior literature (Elangovan, Pinder, & McLean, 2010). Although there is no consensus on how to conceptualize meaningfulness at work, the existing definitions agree that it refers to a work orientation to fulfill a meaningful purpose in a career domain (Duffy & Dik, 2013; Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997). Inspired by Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, and Tipton (1985), Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) operationalized three different work orientations, i.e., a job orientation, a career orientation, and a calling orientation. Employees with a job orientation see work as a means to earn money and obtain other material benefits; their interests are in things other than work. Employees with a career orientation see their work beyond material benefits; their interest lies in career advancement in order to achieve higher social status, increased power, and higher self-esteem. Individuals with a calling orientation are those that experience their work as meaningful; they are less interested in material benefits and career advancement, but more in the fulfilment of work that is socially valued and contributes to making the world a better place (Bellah et al., 1985; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). The idea of experiencing work as a calling makes work central to one's identity (Dik & Duffy, 2009; Hall & Chandler, 2005) and therefore

could potentially cast a different light on a range of organizational behaviors, including OCB and WD. Indeed, emerging research on the calling orientation has collectively highlighted that the attitudes (e.g., satisfaction and commitment) and productivity of employees with a sense of calling tend to be different from those who view their daily work merely as a job or a career (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Duffy & Dik, 2013; Park, Sohn, & Ha, 2015). Therefore, the purpose of the present study is to examine how work orientations (job, career, and calling) relate to OCB and WD. We argue that employees' work orientations direct the amount of resources employees are willing to invest in their work, which influences their job embeddedness, and in turn their levels of OCB and WD.

Work Orientations and Organizational Behavior

A meta-analysis by Dalal (2005) showed that OCB and WD are only modestly negatively correlated (ρ = -.32), indicating that OCB and WD are two distinct variables that both need to be taken into account when examining organizational behavior. OCB can be defined as "an individual's behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 3). Borman, Penner, Allen, and Motowidlo (2001) distinguished three OCB dimensions: interpersonal facilitation, job dedication, and organizational support. Interpersonal facilitation and organizational support are other-directed, i.e., aimed toward colleagues or the organization as a whole, respectively. In contrast, job dedication is self-directed and refers to behavior such as persistence, initiative in one's job, and self-development (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). WD can be defined as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the wellbeing of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). This definition distinguishes between two facets of workplace deviance; interpersonal and organizational deviance. Interpersonal deviance is directed towards other members of the organization (e.g., insulting a colleague or disobeying the supervisor's instructions). Organizational deviance targets the organization (e.g., coming late to work or stealing from the employer).

There is some evidence that a sense of calling relates to OCB (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Park et al., 2015). However, to our knowledge, this is the first study to examine the relationship between all three work orientations and both OCB and WD. Fox and Spector (2006) contended the need for more research on how personal resources influence organizational behavior such as OCB and WD. Drawing from conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which suggests that the primary goal of individuals is to preserve and protect those resources that they value, we expect a direct relationship between work orientations on the one hand and OCB and WD on the other hand. For job oriented employees the work is not an end in itself. Instead, it serves as a means that allows them to acquire the resources needed to enjoy their time away from the job (Wrzesniewski, 2003). These employees are likely to invest their time, attention, and other personal resources to aspects of life other than work and therefore will show low levels of OCB (e.g., volunteering to take on additional work). Hence, these employees are likely to take as much resources from their work as possible and therefore will show high levels of WD (e.g., coming in late to work and taking an additional or longer break than acceptable). Career oriented employees care more about their career advancement than the work or the organization itself (Bellah et al., 1985; Wrzesniewski, 2003). Because their personal resources are directed to activities that will lead to higher social status and increased power, they are likely to show low levels of OCB (e.g., helping colleagues to reduce their work load) and high levels of WD (i.e., cursing at a colleague). In contrast, calling oriented employees find their work meaningful; they would even continue to work without pay if they would be financially secure (Wrzesniewski, 2003). As a result, such employees are more likely to invest their personal resources (i.e., energy, attention, and time) in their work, and therefore show high levels of OCB (e.g., signing up for business events, such as charity walking events or fundraiser parties) and low levels of WD (e.g., putting little effort into the work). Based on the above argumentation, we formulated the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 1:* Job and career orientations are negatively related to OCB (H1a), and a calling orientation is positively related to OCB (H1b).

> *Hypothesis 2:* Job and career orientations are positively related to WD (H2a), and a calling orientation is negatively related to WD (H2b).

Job Embeddedness as the Mediating Mechanism

Job embeddedness is defined as "a broad constellation of influences on employee retention" (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001, p. 1104) that can be divided into two dimensions, namely, on- and off-the-job embeddedness. In the present study we focus on on-the-job embeddedness (from here on called job embeddedness). Mitchell et al. (2001) proposed three broad categories of job embeddedness: fit, links, and sacrifice. Fit refers to the perceived compatibility between the values, career goals, and future plans of the employee and the organization. Links refer to the connections or friendships between the employee and other people at work. Sacrifice refers to the perceived material or immaterial costs an employee would incur if he or she had to leave the organization. Job embeddedness has been posited as an important predictor of turnover variables (Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). In addition, job embeddedness has been found to predict both OCB (Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004; Lev & Koslowsky, 2012; Wijayanto & Kimono, 2004) and WD (Holtom, Burton, & Crossley, 2012). Work by Hirschi (2009) and Holtom et al. (2012) helps to explain why job embeddedness relates to OCB and WD. Specifically, when employees have a meaningful social bond with the organization they will be motivated to preserve and promote this relationship, potentially by engaging in prosocial extra-role behaviors that promote the wellbeing of the organization and its members. In contrast, when this bond is weak and employees are less embedded, there is less to restrain them from seeking an alternative job, or from engaging in deviant behaviors.

To explain the role of job embeddedness in the relationship between work

orientations and organizational behavior (i.e., OCB and WD), we draw again on the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989). We argue that job and career oriented employees, because they are likely to spend their time and resources on tasks and activities that help them meet their self-focused goals (i.e., goals in their private life or career goals), do not necessarily care about fitting in with the organization, are reluctant to build connections with coworkers, and are willing to sacrifice their job if they would be offered a better job at a different organization. For this reason, both job and career oriented employees are not embedded in their job, which would explain their low levels of OCB and high levels of WD. Conversely, calling oriented employees are passionate about their work, see their work as a vital part of who they are, and would be upset if they had to stop working (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Hence, they will experience high levels of job embeddedness and therefore high levels of OCB and low levels of WD. This leads to the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 3:* Job embeddedness mediates the relationships between work orientations and OCB.

> *Hypothesis 4:* Job embeddedness mediates the relationships between work orientations and WD.

Method

Participants and Procedure

According to Wrzesniewski et al. (1997) one might expect to find a relatively high number of calling oriented employees in certain occupations, including teachers. The present study was therefore conducted among lecturers and professors from 12 government-owned higher education institutions (polytechnic institutes and universities) from several parts of Indonesia (Java, Sumatra, Kalimantan, and Sulawesi). Subjects taught by participants were diverse, ranging from science and engineering to humanities and social sciences. We employed two ways of data collection: via a paper and pencil and via an online survey. We approached lecturers and professors through the institutions and personal contacts. We

distributed 300 paper-and-pencil questionnaires at one polytechnic institution and one university. A total of 134 surveys were returned. Six cases were deleted because of incomplete data. The link to the online survey was sent to our personal contacts at various polytechnic institutes and universities, and they were asked to forward the link to their colleagues. A total of 60 participants completed the online survey. In total, 188 surveys were completed. The mean age of the sample was 48.43 years (*SD* = 9.50), and the mean tenure at the institution was 19.37 (*SD* = 9.20).

Measures

Following Brislin's (1970) suggestion, all scales were translated into the Indonesian language and back translated into English by two Indonesian bilingual organizational psychologists.

      Work orientations. Work orientations refer to the job, career, calling distinction regarding how individuals relate to their work. We measured work orientations using three scenarios developed by Wrzesniewski et al. (1997). All three scenarios are as follows:

> *"A works primary to earn enough money to support his life outside of his job. If he was financially secure, he would no longer continue with his current line of work, but would really rather do something else instead. A's job is basically a necessity of life, a lot like breathing or sleeping. He often wishes the time would pass more quickly at work. He greatly anticipates weekends and vacations. If A lived his life over again, he probably would not go into the same line of work. He would not encourage his friends and children to enter his line of work. A is very eager to retire"* (Job orientation)

> *"B basically enjoys his work, but does not expect to be in his current job five years from now. Instead, he plans to move on to a better, higher level job. He has several goals for his future pertaining to the positions he would eventually like to hold. Sometimes his work seems a waste of time, but he knows that he must do sufficiently well in his current position in order to move on. B can't wait to get a promotion. For him, a promotion means recognition of his good work, and is a sign of his success in competition with his coworkers"* (Career orientation).

> *"C's work is one of the most important parts of his life. He is very pleased that he is in this line of work. Because what he does for a living is a vital part of who he is, it is one of the first things he tells people about himself. He tends to take his work home with him and on vacations, too. The majority of his friends are from his place*

of employment, and he belongs to several organizations and clubs relating to his work. C feels good about his work because he loves it, and because he thinks it makes the world a better place. He would encourage his friends and children to enter his line of work. C would be pretty upset if he were forced to stop working, and he is not particularly looking forward to retirement" (Calling orientation).

Participants were instructed to read all scenarios and to indicate how much they were like A, B, and C on a scale ranging from 1 = *not at all like me*, 2 = *a little like me*, 3 = *somewhat like me*, 4 = *very much like me*. Following a previous study by Peterson, Park, Hall, and Seligman (2009), we treated the three orientations as separate variables. In the present sample, job orientation was positively correlated with career orientation (r = .47, p < .01), whereas calling orientation was not significantly correlated with job and career orientations (r = .08, p = .275; r = .06, p = .425, respectively).

Job Embeddedness. We used the 12-item on-the-job embeddedness scale adapted from Lee et al. (2004), which consisted of three dimensions (i.e., fit, links, and sacrifice). Items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. Item samples for the fit, links, and sacrifice dimension are: *"I feel like I am a good match for this organization"*, *"I discuss non-work related problems with my coworkers"*, and *"If I leave the organization, I would lose structure in my life"*, respectively. Coefficient alpha for the overall job embeddedness scale was .78.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. OCB consists of three dimensions, i.e., interpersonal facilitation, job dedication, and organizational support (Borman et al., 2001; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). The items to measure interpersonal facilitation (7 items) and job dedication (8 items) were adopted from Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996). Interpersonal facilitation refers to helpful, considerate, and cooperative acts to improve morale and encourage cooperation between coworkers. A sample item is: *"I praise colleagues when they are successful"*. Job dedication focuses on self-disciplined behaviors (i.e., effort, persistence, and self-discipline) to promote the organization's best interest. A sample item is: *"I put extra hours to get work done on time"*. The items to measure organizational support (5 items) were adopted from Borman et al. (2001). Organizational support refers to representing the organization

favorably to outsiders, compliance with organizational rules and procedures, and loyalty to stay with the organization despite temporary hardships. A sample item is: *"I comply with organizational rules and procedures"*. All items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. The correlations between the subscales ranged between .66 and .74. Coefficient alphas for interpersonal facilitation, job dedication, organizational support, and OCB total are .71, .64, .75, and .87, respectively.

Workplace deviance. We measured WD using Bennet and Robinson's (2000) Interpersonal (7 items) and Organizational Deviance (12 items) Scales. All items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *never* to 5 = *very frequently*. Sample items are: *"I have made fun of someone at work"* and *"I have taken property from work without permission"* for interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance, respectively. The dimensions were highly correlated (r = .77, p < .001). For this reason, and consistent with previous research (e.g., Judge, Scott & Ilies, 2006; Lee & Allen, 2002), we did not distinguish between the two dimensions. Coefficient alpha for the overall scale was .96.

Results

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations of all study variables. Before we tested the hypotheses, we first looked at significant correlations between demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, and tenure) and our dependent variables. We only found a significant correlation between tenure and WD (r = -.268, p < .001), indicating that as employees get older, they tend to perform lower levels of WD.

To test our hypotheses, we used Hayes' PROCESS macro. The total effect coefficients were used to test Hypotheses 1 and 2. Table 2 shows the results from Hayes' PROCESS macro. H1a and H1b stated that job and career orientations are negatively related to OCB and that calling orientation is positively related to OCB, respectively. In line with Hypothesis 1a, the total effects of job and career orientations on OCB were negative and significant (b = -.184, *SE* = .036, p < .001,

Table 1.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Study Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	1.40	0.49	NA								
2. Age	48.43	9.50	-.38**	NA							
3. Tenure	19.37	9.17	-.30**	.70**	NA						
4. Work orientation - Job	1.53	0.76	-.10	.05	-.02	NA					
5. Work orientation - Career	1.75	0.91	-.16*	.08	.00	.47**	NA				
6. Work orientation - Calling	2.67	0.83	.00	-.10	.02	.08	.06	NA			
7. Job embeddedness	3.49	0.46	.01	.04	.12	-.22**	-.21**	.19**	.78		
8. Organizational Citizenship Behavior	3.77	0.40	.12	-.04	.10	-.35**	-.35**	.07	.45**	.87	
9. Workplace deviance	1.55	0.57	.01	-.05	-.27**	.33**	.36**	-.12	-.19**	-.48**	.96

Note. N = 188. *p < .05, **p < .01. NA = not applicable. Alpha coefficients are reported on the diagonal. Gender was dummy-coded (1 = Male, 2 = Female).
Age and tenure were measured in years.

Table 2.

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary

Antecedent	Dependent Variable								
	Job Embeddedness			Organizational Citizenship Behavior			Workplace deviance		
	Coeff.	*SE*	*p*	Coeff.	*SE*	*p*	Coeff.	*SE*	*p*
Work Orientation - Job	-.134	.043	.002	-.138	.034	< .001	.226	.053	< .001
Job Embeddedness (M)	-	-	-	.339	.056	< .001	-.149	.088	= .091
Constant	3.695	.073	< .001	2.797	.214	< .001	1.726	.336	< .001
	$R^2 = .050$			$R^2 = .270$			$R^2 = 122$		
	$F(1,186) = 9.827, p = .002$			$F(2,185) = 34.228, p < .001$			$F(2,185) = 12.914, p < .001$		
Work Orientation – Career	-.105	.036	= .004	-.116	.028	< .001	.212	.044	< .001
Job Embeddedness (M)	-	-	-	.343	.056	< .001	-.146	.086	= .092
Constant	3.67	.071	< .001	2.775	.212	< .001	1.691	.328	< .001
	$R^2 = .043$			$R^2 = .270$			$R^2 = .145$		
	$F(1,186) = 8.364, p = .004$			$F(2,185) = 34.28, p < .001$			$F(2,185) = 15.64, p < .001$		
Work Orientation – Calling	.106	.039	= .008	-.009	.032	= .763	-.059	.050	= .238
Job Embeddedness (M)	-	-	-	.394	.058	< .001	-.212	.091	= .021
Constant	3.206	.110	< .001	2.418	.205	< .001	2.451	.322	< .001
	$R^2 = .038$			$R^2 = .203$			$R^2 = .043$		
	$F(1,186) = 7.261, p = .008$			$F(2,185) = 23.63, p < .001$			$F(2,185) = 4.111, p = .018$		

Note. N = 188. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01

95% *CI* [-.254, -.113]; *b* = -.152, *SE* = .030, *p* < .001, 95% *CI* [-.212, -.093], respectively). However, in contrast to H1b, the total effect of calling orientation on OCB was not significant (*b* = .032, *SE* = .035, *p* = .354, 95% *CI* [-.036, .101]).

H2a and H2b stated that job and career orientations are positively related to WD and calling orientation is negatively related to WD. Results showed that the total effects of job and career orientations on WD were positive and significant (*b* = .246, *SE* = .052, *p* < .001, 95% *CI* [.144, .347]; *b* = .227, *SE* = .043, *p* < .001, 95% *CI* [.143, .312], respectively). Again, the total effect of calling orientation on WD was not significant (*b* = -.082, *SE* = .050, *p* = .101, 95% *CI* [-.180, .101]). Therefore, H2a was supported, but H2b was not supported.

Simple mediation analyses conducted using ordinary least squares path analysis showed that all three work orientations indirectly influenced OCB through job embeddedness. As can be seen in Table 2, job orientation negatively influenced job embeddedness (*b* = -.134, *SE* = .043, *p* = .002), which in turn influenced OCB (*b* = .339, *SE* = .056, *p* < .001). A 95% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval (CI) for the indirect effect based on 5,000 bootstrap samples did not include zero (*Indirect effect* = -.046, *SE* = .02, 95% *CI* [-.084, -.014]). Similar results were found for career orientation. Career orientation negatively influenced job embeddedness (*b*= -.105, *SE* = .036, *p* = .004), which in turn influenced OCB (*b* = .343, *SE* = .056, *p* < .001). The 95% confidence interval of the indirect effect did not include zero (*Indirect effect* = -.036, *SE* = .01, 95% *CI* [-.065, -.013]). Calling orientation positively influenced job embeddedness (*b* = .106, *SE* = .039, *p* = .008), which in turn influenced OCB (*b* = .394, *SE* = .058, *p* < .001). The 95% confidence interval of the indirect effect did not include zero (*Indirect effect* = .042, *SE* = .02, 95% *CI* [.008, .083]). Therefore, Hypothesis 3, which stated that job embeddedness mediates the relationships between work orientations and OCB, was supported.

Hypothesis 4 stated that job embeddedness mediates the relationships between work orientations and WD. None of the work orientations indirectly influenced WD through job embeddedness; the indirect effects of job orientation (*Indirect effect* = .02, *SE* = .019, 95% *CI* [-.0094, .0667]), career orientation (*Indirect*

effect = .015, *SE* = .014, 95% *CI* [-.0085, .0470]), and calling orientation (*Indirect effect* = -.023, *SE* = .018, 95% *CI* [-.0684, .0029]) all included zero. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Discussion

The present study extends previous research findings by explaining the underlying process of the relationships between work orientations and organizational behavior (i.e., OCB and WD). Our results revealed that job and career orientations are significantly related to both OCB and WD, and that calling orientation is not directly related to either OCB or WD. We believe our study contributes to the literature in a number of ways.

First, previous empirical research studying work orientation has rarely included job and career orientations in their study (e.g., Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Park et al., 2015). Drawing on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), we suggest that job and career oriented individuals tend to deploy their time and resources toward activities that help them meet their goals. Because their goals are not directed at the organization, these employees are more likely to engage in high levels of WD and low levels of OCB. Our results indeed showed positive correlations between job and career orientations and WD and negative correlations between job and career orientations and OCB, indicating that these two work orientations are important predictors to consider when studying organizational behaviors.

Second, the present study did not find support for the previously established relationship between calling orientation and OCB (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Park et al., 2015). In fact, calling orientation did not exert a direct influence on either OCB or WD. A possible explanation could be that calling oriented teachers, who have deep connections with their job (Wrzesniewski, 2003), are mostly focused on their work (their class) and not on the organization (the higher education institution). Previous studies have focused on jobs like correction officers (Holtom et al., 2012) and zookeepers (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009). Compared to these jobs, the job of a higher education teacher offers more autonomy

and independence, which may explain why for teachers the perceived meaningfulness of their job does not translate into OCB or WD.

Third, our results showed that all three work orientations indirectly influence OCB through job embeddedness. Drawing on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), employees with job and career orientations are likely to spend their time and resources on tasks and activities that help them meet their self-focused goals (i.e., goals in their private life or career goals), and therefore may care less about fitting in with the organization, are reluctant to build connections with coworkers, and probably think there are ample higher education institutions where they could teach if they decide to leave the current organization. For this reason, both job and career oriented employees are not embedded in their job, which partially explains their lower levels of OCB and higher levels of WD. Interestingly, although a calling orientation did not have a direct relationship with OCB, it did influence OCB through job embeddedness. Calling oriented employees are always in search of meaning at their work (Wrzesniewski, 2003). In this process, they are likely to develop personal resources such as connections or friendships with other people at work, and therefore show OCB.

Practical Implications

Because OCB and WD are considered critical to organizations, this study provides substantial implications for managers and human resource practitioners. According to Wrzesnieski and Dutton (2001) any job can be crafted into a meaningful job. Therefore, to ensure high levels of OCB and low levels of WD, organizations need to develop a supportive environment to help employees to craft their work patterns such that they align with organizational objectives. For example, managers could influence job and career oriented employees' motivations and interests through transparent decision-making and by including them in strategic conversations. An alternative way to positively influence OCB, is by making employees feel more connected at work, thereby increasing their job embeddedness. For example,

managers could cultivate on-the-job embeddedness by adopting long-term career development plans.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

There are a number of limitations that need to be considered when interpreting the findings of this study. First, our participants were all lecturers and professors from government-owned higher education institutions. Thus, generalizability of the findings needs to be investigated. Second, we cannot claim causality with the cross-sectional data used in this study. Third, the use of self-reports may have impacted the results. Although we ensured all participants that the survey was confidential, common method variance may have occurred, leading to spurious relationships between work orientations and its correlates. Self-reports can also be related to social desirability issues, particularly on the WD scale. Individuals may have underreported their own deviant behaviors since those behaviors are socially undesirable. Lastly, we employed general scales of OCB and WD, which may have impacted the construct validity of the scale. OCB and WD among lecturers and professors may be different from OCB and WD among employees in other organizations, because they are more independent and have irregular working hours compared to other employees.

These limitations suggest several directions for future research. First, it is important to replicate this study in other samples. The nonsignificant path coefficients between calling orientation and organizational behaviors may be due to specific sample characteristics. Second, future research should use longitudinal data whenever possible to be able to claim causality among variables. Third, we leveraged COR theory to explain the relationships between work orientations, job embeddedness, and organizational behaviors. Although we believe that COR theory may improve our understanding of why individuals engage in certain organizational behaviors, we suggest future research to also employ alternative theories, such as attachment theory (Bowlby, 1973), to explain the mediation effect. Based on Bowlby's (1973) theory of attachment, Mikulincer and Shaver (2007)

conceptualized the following attachment styles at work: secure, avoidant, and anxious attachment. According to Mikulincer and Shaver, employees scoring high on secure attachment easily build relationships at work and feel comfortable being dependent on others, employees scoring high on avoidant attachment have difficulty trusting or depending on others, and employees scoring high on anxious attachment rely on others for support. Job and career oriented employees show signs of avoidant or anxious attachment, which could possibly explain their low levels of OCB. Calling oriented employees show signs of secure attachment, leading to high job embeddedness and in turn high levels of OCB. Fourth, job embeddedness failed to mediate the relationship between work orientations and WD probably because job embeddedness is not always affective nor motivational in nature (Crossley et al., 2007) and therefore may be unable to act as a barrier against deviant behaviors. Marcus and Schuler (2004) found that self-control was a strong correlate of WD that could act as a restraint against WD. Thus, we suggest future research to examine the role of self-control in the work orientations-WD relationship.

Conclusion

Our results showed that job and career orientations relate to employees' levels of OCB and WD, with job embeddedness as the mediating mechanism underlying the relationship between work orientations and OCB. Although emerging research on the calling orientation has collectively highlighted that the attitudes (e.g., satisfaction and commitment) and productivity of employees with a sense of calling tends to be different from those who view their daily work merely as a job or a career, the present study shows that when it comes to explaining two often researched organizational behaviors, i.e., OCB and WD, researchers should also focus on the two other work orientations.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY AND GENERAL DISCUSSION

Introduction

The current dissertation aimed to unravel the dynamic relationships between employees' personality and work orientations, their trust in supervisor, their family and community roles, their job embeddedness, and how these affect their behavior in the organization, i.e., turnover, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and workplace deviance (WD). OCB can be defined as "an individual's behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 3). WD can be defined as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the wellbeing of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). The relationships were tested in four empirical studies to answer the following three research questions: (1) How do employees' personality traits affect their OCB; (2) In what way do organizational and non-organizational factors affect employees' turnover intentions; and (3) To what extent does job embeddedness affect the relationship between individual work orientations and employee behaviors (i.e., OCB and WD).

This dissertation contributes to the existing literature on employee behavior in a non-Western country, namely Indonesia, which is considered under-represented in terms of work-related research among employees. The studies presented in this dissertation help to understand the mechanisms of why employees in a collectivistic nation show specific behaviors, such as turnover, OCB, and WD. In the next section we will first summarize our research findings. Then, we will discuss the theoretical and practical implications of the four empirical studies. Finally, we will discuss the limitations of the studies and provide several directions for future research.

Summary of main findings

We will discuss the main findings of the four empirical studies by answering the three research questions formulated in the introduction section.

Research question 1: How do employees' personality traits affect their OCB?

The aim of our first empirical study (**Chapter 2**) was to investigate the mediating role of affective commitment in the relationships between personality traits (i.e., extraversion and emotional stability) and OCB among Indonesian employees. We employed two theories to explain the mediating effect of affective commitment, namely covenantal relationship theory (Graham & Organ, 1993; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994) and dispositional motivational theory (Johnson et al., 2012). Covenantal relationships are characterized by shared cultural values between individuals marked by mutual trust and concern for each other's welfare, which is prevalent in collectivist cultures (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Covenantal relationships between employer and employees are likely to occur in collectivist countries like Indonesia. Covenantal relationship theory goes beyond social exchange theory (Van Dyne et al., 1994): employees are not solely motivated by self-interest, but they have a genuine desire for the organization to be successful, implying a high level of affective commitment (Jiao et al., 2013). On the other hand, dispositional   motivational theory views extraversion and emotional stability as positive traits related to affective and cognitive identifications, respectively (Johnson et al., 2012). Thus, extraverted and emotionally stable individuals were expected to experience positive feelings about their work, which were expected to lead to their affective and cognitive identifications with the organization, and willingness to support others in the organization (i.e., affective commitment), and therefore lead to high levels of OCB.

We tested our hypotheses among a sample of 222 managers in an Indonesian cement industry. We presented two separate models, one for OCB directed at individuals (OCB-I; e.g., willingness to help colleagues doing their work while they are absent) and one for OCB directed at the organization (OCB-O; e.g., protecting company resources). Results showed that extraversion was positively correlated with both OCB-I and OCB-O. This finding suggests that extraverts are more likely than introverts to help others at work, perhaps because helping others

probably reinforces their positive feelings toward others and to their work (George & Brief, 1992). The finding is in line with previous research on the extraversion-OCB relationship (Kumar et al., 2009; Singh & Singh, 2009; Smith et al., 1983). Furthermore, results showed that emotional stability was significantly and positively correlated with OCB-O, but was not correlated with OCB-I. This finding is in line with previous research, which found weak correlations (Organ & Ryan, 1995) between emotional stability and overall OCB. Emotional stability allows individuals to better regulate their emotions and hence better cope with workplace stressors (Eisenberg et al., 2000). Perhaps because of their high self-control, emotionally stable individuals feel especially comfortable when they perform OCB-O (Eisenberg et al., 2000). In addition, we found support for the mediating role of affective commitment in the relationship between personality traits and OCB.

Research Question 2: In what way do organizational and non-organizational factors affect employees' turnover intentions?

This question was answered in **Chapter 3** and **Chapter 4**. In Chapter 3, we dealt with the question of how trust in supervisor relates to turnover variables. Studies on turnover in Asian countries are very scarce (e.g., Khatri et al., 2001; Zheng & Lamond, 2010), thus we believe that this study contributes to the existing literature, particularly in Asian countries, by demonstrating how employees' perceptions of trust translates into turnover intentions in Indonesia. A paternalistic leadership style that combines strong authority, fatherly benevolence, and moral integrity is prevalent in Indonesia (Suryani et al., 2012). Employees expect their leader to act as a "bapak" (father), who provides a secure work environment while at the same time feels responsible for their wellbeing (Purba et al., 2015; Suryani et al., 2012). Failure of the supervisor to meet this expectation will influence their identification with him or her and, in turn, will influence their attitudes and behaviors at work. Thus, trust in supervisor was expected to be important to Indonesian employees and therefore it was expected to influence their work attitudes and behaviors.

Among 471 employees from a restaurant industry in Indonesia, we showed that trust in supervisor, whereby the supervisor is trusted to act as "bapak" by their employees, influenced employees' job embeddedness, which in turn influenced their turnover intentions. Job embeddedness implies that an employee experiences fit and comfort at their job, develops more healthy relationships with others, and is unwilling to sacrifice these positive feelings and relationships by leaving the organization. We presented several alternative models to show the robustness of our proposed model. In Chapter 3, we measured both on-the-job embeddedness (on-the-job factors that influence employee to stay in the organization) and off-the-job embeddedness (community factors that influence employees to stay in the organization, such as living in a good neighborhood), and found that off-the-job embeddedness was not related to turnover intentions and voluntary turnover. Our results are in contrast with Jiang et al.'s (2012) meta-analysis, which showed off-the-job embeddedness to be negatively related to turnover variables. We believe this can be explained by our study's location (Jakarta, the capital of Indonesia), which offered many job alternatives to employees (Feldman et al., 2012; Jiang et al., 2012; Kiazad et al., 2015).

In Chapter 4, we first adapted Lee et al.'s (2004) job embeddedness scales by translating, revising, and adding several items to fit the Indonesian culture. We pilot-tested this new scale among 97 employees from diverse organizations. Using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), we found evidence for a three factor solution. The three factors presented off-the-job, on-the-job, and family embeddedness, respectively. Then, we investigated the indirect effects of off-the-job embeddedness and family embeddedness on turnover intentions through on-the-job embeddedness. Using a sample of 334 full-time employed nurses in two hospitals in Jakarta, Indonesia, we showed that off-the-job embeddedness and family embeddedness were distal predictors of turnover intentions, whereas on-the-job embeddedness was found to be a proximal predictor of turnover intentions. Both Chapter 3 and 4 confirmed Kiazad et al.'s (2015) proposition that off-the-job and community embeddedness are not directly related to turnover variables. Contrary

to our findings, Jiang et al. (2012) found the negative relationships between off-the-job embeddedness and turnover variables in most Western empirical studies.

Research Question 3: To what extent does job embeddedness affect the relationship between individual work orientations and employee behaviors (i.e., OCB and WD)?

This question was dealt with in **Chapter 5**, in which we investigated the underlying mechanisms of the relationships between work orientations and both OCB and WD. Three work orientations can be distinguished (Bellah et al., 1985; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), namely perceiving one's job only as a job, as a career, or as a calling. Employees with a job orientation perceive work as a means to earn money and obtain other material benefits; their interests are in things other than work. Employees with a career orientation are focused on career advancement in order to achieve higher social status, increased power, and higher self-esteem. Employees with a calling orientation experience work as meaningful; they are not interested in material benefits and career advancement, but in the fulfilment of work that is socially valued and contributes to making the world a better place. Using a sample of 188 lecturers and professors from various higher education institutions in Indonesia, we showed that job and career orientations were negatively related to OCB and positively to WD. We also showed that job embeddedness partially mediated the negative relationships between job and career orientations and OCB. Much of previous empirical evidence only assessed calling orientations (e.g., Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Park et al., 2015). We therefore extended previous studies by demonstrating that job and career orientations are also important to consider when studying employees' behaviors.

A calling orientation was not directly related to either OCB or WD, only indirectly to OCB via job embeddedness. These findings did not support the previously established relationship between calling orientation and OCB (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Park et al., 2015), possibly because of our unique sample (i.e., teachers). Calling oriented teachers may be focused more on their class

than on their organization. However, a calling orientation was positively related to OCB through job embeddedness, indicating that calling oriented employees are likely to develop connections and friendships with other people at work, and therefore to show OCB. Job embeddedness did not mediate the relationships between work orientations and workplace deviance behaviors. Thus, job embeddedness may not be able to act as a barrier against deviant behaviors.

Importance of these studies

This dissertation provides several theoretical and methodological contributions. The empirical studies presented in the present dissertation are all conducted in Indonesia, one of the under-represented Asian countries in terms of scientific publications in the area of employee behavior at work. Therefore, all studies will help to better understand why employees in collectivistic cultures perform certain behaviors. For example, in Chapter 2 we used the collectivistic concept of covenantal relationship to explain why affective commitment mediated the relationship between personality and OCB, while previous studies focused on social exchange theory to explain this relationship (e.g., Ilies et al., 2009). Similarly, in Chapter 3 we used the collectivistic concept of paternalistic leadership style to explain why job embeddedness mediated the relationship between trust in supervisor and turnover intentions.

Another valuable contribution of this dissertation is the new job embeddedness measure, provided in Chapter 4. Following the advice from organizational psychologists to always use reflective measures (e.g., Crossley et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2012), we changed the formative conceptualization of job embeddedness (or the so-called causal indicator construct; Lee et al., 2014) to a reflective conceptualization and validated the scale in subsequent studies. In addition, we developed a family embeddedness scale, because we believe that the opinion of families matters when it comes to work-related intentions and decisions.

Finally, in Chapter 5 we extended previous studies by considering all three work orientations instead of only the calling orientation and assessed how these

were translated into employees' behaviors. Previous studies have rarely included job and career orientations (e.g., Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Park et al., 2015). We found that both job and career orientations were negatively correlated with OCB and positively correlated with WD. Contrary to previous research (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Park et al., 2015), we did not find a direct relationship between calling orientation and OCB and WD. However, we did find all work orientations, including calling orientation, to indirectly influence OCB through job embeddedness. These findings show that all work orientations are relevant in predicting work-related behaviors in Indonesia.

Limitations and directions for future research

This dissertation has several limitations that need to be acknowledged and addressed in future research. One of the major limitations of this dissertation is the use of cross-sectional designs, which limits the power to claim causality. Moreover, self-report surveys may raise the potential of common method bias and social desirability issues. Hence, future research needs to employ longitudinal studies and use other-ratings to overcome these issues.

Another limitation of the current dissertation is that all studies were conducted in Indonesia among specific employee samples, which implies the generalizability of the findings to other cultures and samples needs to be investigated. Hence, future research should replicate the present findings using other samples and also consider cross-cultural comparisons.

Practical implications

There are several practical implications of this dissertation. First, the study in Chapter 2 suggests to select employees with high scores on emotional stability and extraversion in order for them to perform high levels of OCB. Increasing employees' levels of affective commitment by creating a good work environment or including employees in the decision making process can also increase OCB, particularly for individuals with high emotional stability and extraversion.

Second, supervisors in collectivistic cultures are expected to act as a father who takes care of employees both on and off the job (Chapter 3). Organizations in collectivistic cultures could therefore consider training and development programs for managers, employee development plans, and other employee mentoring programs to enhance supervisors' benevolence, competence, and integrity. Practices that allow families to recognize the value of the organization, such as family gatherings, flexible working hours, and day-care programs may also increase employees' trust in their supervisor because collectivists value the opinion of their family when making work decisions (Kiazad et al., 2015; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Wasti, 2002). Chapter 4 provides evidence that employees' families are also important for their retention in the organization.

Third, Chapter 5 shows that job and career orientated employees show low levels of OCB and high levels of WD. To stimulate OCB and prevent WD, organizations need to develop a supportive environment to help employees craft their work in such a way that it aligns with organizational objectives. Job and career oriented employees can become more oriented towards organizational objectives by providing them with transparent decision-making, including them in strategic conversations, and adopting long term career development plans (Wrzesnieski & Dutton, 2001).

In conclusion, the studies presented in this dissertation show that job embeddedness can act as an explanatory variable in the relationships between individual difference characteristics (such as work orientations), organizational and non-organizational factors, and employees' behaviors (i.e., turnover, OCB, and WD). Moreover, it was demonstrated that different foci of job embeddedness, namely on-the-job, off-the-job, and family embeddedness, have different consequences for employees' behaviors. Off-the-job and family embeddedness negatively affect turnover intentions indirectly through on-the-job embeddedness, while on-the-job embeddedness consistently and negatively influences turnover intentions across studies.

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SUMMARY AND GENERAL DISCUSSION IN DUTCH

(SAMENVATTING EN ALGEMENE DISCUSSIE)

Summary

Inleiding

Het onderhavige proefschrift was gericht op het ontrafelen van de dynamische relaties tussen de persoonlijkheid van werknemers en hun werkattituden, hun vertrouwen in leidinggevenden, hun rol binnen het gezin en de familie, hun sociale betrokkenheid binnen de gemeenschap, en hun zogenaamde 'job embeddedness', dat is de mate waarin iemand zich ingebed voelt in zijn of haar organisatie. Daarbij ging het vooral om de vraag op welke manier deze aspecten van invloed zijn op het gedrag in de organisatie, dat wil zeggen 'turnover' (het veranderen van baan), prosociaal werkgedrag ('organizational citizenship behavior', OCB), en contraproductief werkgedrag ('workplace deviance', WD). Prosociaal werkgedrag kan worden gedefinieerd als "het gedrag van een individu dat niet direct of expliciet is opgenomen in het formele beloningssysteem en dat de efficiënte en effectieve werking van de organisatie bevordert" (Organ, 1988, blz. 3). Contraproductief werkgedrag kan worden gedefinieerd als "vrijwillig gedrag dat in strijd is met essentiële normen van de organisatie en daarmee een bedreiging vormt voor het welzijn van een organisatie, haar leden, of beide" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, blz. 556). De relaties werden onderzocht in vier empirische studies om antwoord te geven op de volgende drie onderzoeksvragen: (1) Wat is de invloed van persoonlijkheidskenmerken van werknemers op hun prosociaal werkgedrag; (2) Op welke wijze zijn factoren binnen en buiten de organisatie van invloed op 'turnover intentions' (de intenties om van baan te veranderen) van werknemers; en (3) In hoeverre is 'job embeddedness' van invloed op de relatie tussen individuele werkattituden en gedragingen van werknemers (dat wil zeggen, prosociaal werkgedrag en contraproductief werkgedrag).

Dit proefschrift vormt een bijdrage aan de bestaande literatuur over het gedrag van werknemers in een niet-westers land, namelijk Indonesië. De studies, die in dit proefschrift worden gepresenteerd, dragen bij aan een beter begrip van de mechanismen en oorzaken die ertoe leiden dat werknemers in een collectivistisch land bepaald gedrag vertonen, zoals 'turnover', prosociaal werkgedrag en contraproductief werkgedrag. In de volgende paragraaf zullen we eerst een

samenvatting geven van onze onderzoeksresultaten. Vervolgens zullen we ingaan op de theoretische en praktische implicaties van de vier empirische studies. Ten slotte zullen we de beperkingen van de studies bespreken en aanbevelingen doen met betrekking tot de vraag waarop toekomstig onderzoek zich zou kunnen richten.

Samenvatting van de belangrijkste resultaten

We zullen de belangrijkste bevindingen van de vier empirische studies bespreken door het beantwoorden van de drie onderzoeksvragen die in de inleiding van dit proefschrift zijn gepresenteerd.

Onderzoeksvraag 1: Wat is de invloed van persoonlijkheidskenmerken van werknemers op hun prosociaal werkgedrag?

Het doel van onze eerste empirische studie (**Hoofdstuk 2**) was onder Indonesische werknemers de mediërende rol van 'affectieve commitment' in de relatie tussen persoonlijkheidskenmerken (in het bijzonder extraversie en emotionele stabiliteit) en hun prosociaal werkgedrag te onderzoeken. Met andere woorden, zijn extraverte en emotioneel stabiele werknemers meer emotioneel (affectief) gecommitteerd aan hun organisatie, waardoor ze vervolgens meer prosociaal werkgedrag laten zien? We gebruikten twee theorieën om het mediërende effect van 'affectieve commitment' te verklaren, namelijk de 'covenantal relationship theory' (Graham & Organ, 1993; Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994) en de 'dispositional motivation theory' (Johnson et al., 2012). 'Covenantal relationships' worden gekenmerkt door gedeelde culturele waarden tussen individuen, zoals het elkaar vertrouwen en aandacht hebben voor elkaars welzijn, waarden die in collectivistische culturen overheersen (Van Dyne et al., 1994). In collectivistische landen als Indonesië is dan ook te verwachten dat tussen werkgever en werknemers 'covenantal relationships' bestaan. De covenantal relationship theory verschilt van de sociale uitwisselingstheorie ('social exchange theory'; Van Dyne et al., 1994): het idee is dat werknemers niet alleen worden gemotiveerd door eigenbelang, zoals wordt verondersteld door de sociale uitwisselingstheorie, maar dat werknemers oprecht

wensen dat de organisatie succesvol is, wat leidt tot een hoge mate van 'affectieve commitment' (Jiao et al., 2013).

De 'dispositional motivation theory', beschouwt extraversie en emotionele stabiliteit als positieve kenmerken van respectievelijk affectieve en cognitieve identificatie (Johnson et al., 2012). Uitgaande van deze theorie is de verwachting dat extraverte en emotioneel stabiele personen positieve gevoelens hebben over hun werk, die op hun beurt zouden moeten leiden tot affectieve en cognitieve identificatie met de organisatie, en de bereidheid om anderen in de organisatie te ondersteunen (dat wil zeggen, 'affectieve commitment'), en dus tot meer prosociaal gedrag.

We hebben onze hypotheses getest in een steekproef van 222 managers in een Indonesische cementfabriek. We presenteerden twee afzonderlijke modellen: één voor prosociaal gedrag gericht op individuen (OCB-I, bijvoorbeeld de bereidheid om collega's te helpen door tijdens hun afwezigheid hun werk te doen), en één voor prosociaal gedrag gericht op de organisatie (OCB-O, bijvoorbeeld het beschermen van de reputatie van de organisatie). De resultaten toonden aan dat extraversie positief gecorreleerd was met zowel OCB-I als OCB-O. Deze bevinding suggereert dat extraverte mensen eerder dan introverte mensen bereid zijn om anderen te helpen op het werk, waarschijnlijk omdat het helpen van anderen hun positieve gevoelens ten opzichte van anderen en hun werk versterkt (George & Brief, 1992). Dit resultaat komt overeen met de resultaten gevonden in eerder onderzoek naar de relatie tussen extraversie en OCB (Kumar et al., 2009; Singh & Singh, 2009; Smith et al., 1983). Uit onze resultaten bleek ook dat emotionele stabiliteit positief en significant gecorreleerd was met OCB-O, maar niet met OCB-I. Ook deze bevinding sluit aan bij eerder onderzoek dat een zwakke correlatie tussen emotionele stabiliteit en algehele OCB liet zien (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Emotionele stabiliteit stelt personen in staat hun emoties beter te reguleren en daardoor ook beter om te gaan met stressoren op de werkplek (Eisenberg et al., 2000). Mogelijk voelen emotioneel stabiele mensen zich vanwege hun hoge mate van zelfcontrole in het bijzonder prettig als ze OCB-O tonen (Eisenberg et al., 2000). Daarnaast vonden

we ook steun voor de mediërende rol van 'affectieve commitment' in de relatie tussen persoonlijkheidskenmerken en prosociaal werkgedrag.

Onderzoeksvraag 2: Op welke wijze zijn factoren binnen en buiten de organisatie van invloed op de 'turnover intentions' van werknemers?

Deze vraag werd beantwoord in **Hoofdstuk 3** en **Hoofdstuk 4**. In Hoofdstuk 3 hebben we ons gericht op het verband tussen het vertrouwen in leidinggevenden en 'turnover'. Onderzoek naar 'turnover' in Aziatische landen is zeer schaars (bijv. Khatri et al., 2001; Zheng & Lamond, 2010). Wij zijn dan ook van mening dat deze studie een bijdrage levert aan de bestaande literatuur, vooral aan die in Aziatische landen, omdat wij in ons onderzoek laten zien hoe in Indonesië het vertrouwen van werknemers in hun leidinggevende zich vertaalt in hun 'turnover intentions'. In Indonesië overheerst een paternalistische stijl van leidinggeven, die bestaat uit een combinatie van het uitstralen van sterke autoriteit, vaderlijke welwillendheid en morele integriteit (Suryani et al., 2012). Werknemers verwachten dat hun leidinggevende optreedt als een 'bapak' (vader), door ze een veilige werkomgeving te bieden en zich verantwoordelijk te voelen voor hun welzijn (Purba et al., 2015; Suryani et al., 2012). Wanneer de leidinggevende niet aan deze verwachtingen voldoet, kan dit van invloed zijn op hun identificatie met hem of haar, wat vervolgens weer van invloed kan zijn op hun attituden en gedrag op het werk. De verwachting was dus dat vertrouwen in leidinggevenden belangrijk zou zijn voor Indonesische werknemers, en dat dit van invloed zou zijn op hun werkattituden en hun gedrag op het werk.

Op basis van een steekproef van 471 werknemers van een restaurantketen in Indonesië, toonden we aan dat hun vertrouwen in de leidinggevende, waarbij van de leidinggevende wordt verwacht dat hij of zij optreedt als een 'bapak', van invloed was op hun 'job embeddedness', wat vervolgens weer van invloed was op hun 'turnover intentions'. 'Job embeddedness' houdt in dat werknemers het gevoel hebben dat het werk bij hun past ('fit'), dat ze meer gezonde relaties met anderen ontwikkelen ('links') en dat ze deze positieve gevoelens en relaties niet willen opgeven ('sacrifice'). We hebben verschillende alternatieve modellen getoetst om de robuustheid van ons voorgestelde model aan te tonen. In Hoofdstuk 3 hebben we

zowel 'on-the-job embeddedness' ('on-the-job' factoren die eraan bijdragen dat de werknemer in de organisatie blijft, zoals het hebben van een goede band met collega's) en 'off-the-job embeddedness' (maatschappelijke factoren die eraan bijdragen dat de werknemer in de organisatie blijft, zoals in een goede buurt wonen) onderzocht. Daaruit bleek dat 'off-the-job embeddedness' niet gerelateerd was aan 'turnover intentions' en daadwerkelijke 'turnover'. Deze resultaten zijn in strijd met een meta-analyse van Jiang et al. (2012), waaruit naar voren kwam dat 'off-the-job embeddedness' negatief gecorreleerd was met 'turnover'. We denken dat dit verschil voortkomt uit de locatie waar de deelnemers aan ons onderzoek werkten (Jakarta, de hoofdstad van Indonesië). In tegenstelling tot de onderzoeksgroepen van Jiang et al., beschikten onze deelnemers over veel alternatieve werkgelegenheid.

Hoofdstuk 4 beschrijft eerst hoe we de 'job embeddedness'-schalen van Lee et al. (2004) hebben aangepast. Dit deden we door verschillende items te vertalen, ze te herzien en items toe te voegen zodat de schalen aansloten bij de Indonesische cultuur. In een pilotstudie hebben we deze nieuwe schaal getoetst onder 97 werknemers van verschillende organisaties. Met behulp van een confirmatieve factoranalyse (CFA) vonden we bewijs voor een drie-factor-oplossing. De drie factoren waren 'off-the-job embeddedness', 'on-the-job embeddedness' en 'family embeddedness'. 'Family embeddedness' verwijst naar de mate waarin de familie van de werknemer is ingebed in de organisatie en sociaal betrokken is binnen de gemeenschap. Vervolgens hebben we de indirecte effecten van 'off-the-job embeddedness' en 'family embeddedness' via 'on-the-job embeddedness' op 'turnover intentions' onderzocht. Op basis van een steekproef bestaand uit 334 fulltime verpleegkundigen in twee ziekenhuizen in Jakarta, Indonesië, hebben we aangetoond dat 'off-the-job embeddedness' en 'family embeddedness' indirect (via 'on-the-job embeddedness') gerelateerd waren aan 'turnover intentions', terwijl 'on-the-job embeddedness' een directe relatie met 'turnover intentions' bleek te hebben. Hoofdstuk 3 en Hoofdstuk 4 vormden een bevestiging van de suggestie van Kiazad et al. (2015) dat 'off-the-job embeddedness' niet direct gerelateerd is aan 'turnover'. In tegenstelling tot onze bevindingen vonden Jiang et al. (2012) in de meeste

westerse empirische studies negatieve relaties tussen 'off-the-job embeddedness' en 'turnover'.

Onderzoeksvraag 3: In hoeverre is 'job embeddedness' van invloed op de relatie tussen individuele werkattituden en gedragingen van werknemers (dat wil zeggen, prosociaal werkgedrag en contraproductief werkgedrag)?

Deze vraag werd behandeld in **Hoofdstuk 5**. We onderzochten in dit hoofdstuk de onderliggende mechanismen van de relaties tussen de werkattituden van werknemers en hun prosociaal en contraproductief werkgedrag, en of deze relaties gemedieerd worden door 'job embeddedness'. Er kunnen drie werkattituden worden onderscheiden (Bellah et al., 1985; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), namelijk het ervaren van een baan uitsluitend als een baan, als een carrière, of als een roeping. Werknemers met een baan-attitude zien hun werk als een middel om geld te verdienen en andere materiële voordelen te verkrijgen; hun interesses liggen bij andere zaken dan werk. Werknemers met een carrière-attitude zijn gericht op hun loopbaanontwikkeling om een hogere sociale status en meer invloed te kunnen krijgen en hun gevoel van eigenwaarde te vergroten. Werknemers met een roeping-attitude zoeken naar zinvol werk. Zij zijn minder geïnteresseerd in de materiële voordelen en hun loopbaanontwikkeling, maar in het doen van werk dat maatschappelijk wordt gewaardeerd en eraan bijdraagt om van de wereld een betere plek te maken.

Op basis van een steekproef van 188 docenten en hoogleraren van verschillende instellingen voor hoger onderwijs in Indonesië konden we aantonen dat baan- en carrière-attituden negatief gecorreleerd zijn met prosociaal werkgedrag, en positief gecorreleerd zijn met contraproductief werkgedrag. Ook kwam uit de studie naar voren dat de negatieve correlatie tussen baan- en carrière-attituden en prosociaal werkgedrag deels gemedieerd wordt door 'job embeddedness'. Dit laatste betekent dat mensen die een sterke baan- of carrière-attitude hebben, minder ingebed zijn in hun werk, waardoor ze vervolgens minder prosociaal werkgedrag vertonen. Het meeste eerdere onderzoek naar werkattituden heeft alleen roeping-attituden onderzocht, en bovendien alleen in westerse steekproeven (bijv. Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Park et

al., 2015). We hebben daarom een aanvulling kunnen geven op deze eerdere studies door aan te tonen dat in onderzoek naar het gedrag van werknemers ook baan- en carrière-attituden dienen te worden meegenomen, omdat deze eveneens gerelateerd zijn aan positieve en negatieve werkgedragingen.

Uit ons onderzoek bleek dat een roeping-attitude niet direct gerelateerd is aan prosociaal of contraproductief werkgedrag, maar alleen indirect aan prosociaal werkgedrag via 'job embeddedness'. Deze bevindingen vormden geen ondersteuning voor de eerder vastgestelde positieve relatie tussen een roeping-attitude en prosociaal werkgedrag (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Park et al., 2015), mogelijk als gevolg van de samenstelling van onze steekproef (alleen docenten). Leraren met een roeping-attitude zijn wellicht meer op hun klas gericht dan op hun organisatie. Een roeping-attitude was echter wel positief gerelateerd aan prosociaal werkgedrag via 'job embeddedness', wat er wellicht op duidt dat werknemers met een roeping-attitude verbindingen en vriendschappen met andere mensen op het werk ontwikkelen, en daardoor prosociaal werkgedrag laten zien. 'Job embeddedness' was niet van invloed op de relaties tussen werkattituden en contraproductief gedrag op de werkplek, en is dus kennelijk niet een factor die als barrière voor contraproductief gedrag kan fungeren.

Belang van deze studies

Dit proefschrift biedt verschillende theoretische en methodologische bijdragen aan het onderzoek naar werkgedrag. De empirische studies die in het proefschrift worden gepresenteerd, zijn alle uitgevoerd in Indonesië, één van de ondervertegenwoordigde Aziatische landen in termen van wetenschappelijke publicaties op het gebied van het gedrag van werknemers. Daarom leiden deze studies tot een beter inzicht in de wijze waarop werknemers in collectivistische culturen bepaald gedrag vertonen. In Hoofdstuk 2 hebben we bijvoorbeeld het collectivistische concept van 'covenantal relationship' toegepast om te verklaren waarom 'affectieve commitment' van invloed is op de relatie tussen persoonlijkheid en prosociaal werkgedrag, terwijl eerdere studies vooral gericht waren op de sociale uitwisselingstheorie om deze relatie te verklaren (bijv. Ilies et al., 2009). Op

vergelijkbare wijze gebruikten we in Hoofdstuk 3 het collectivistische concept van de paternalistische stijl van leidinggeven om te verklaren waarom 'job embeddedness' van invloed is op de relatie tussen vertrouwen in leidinggevenden en 'turnover intentions'.

Een andere waardevolle bijdrage van dit proefschrift aan de theorievorming is de nieuwe meetmethode voor het begrip 'job embeddedness', dat is gepresenteerd in Hoofdstuk 4. In navolging van het advies van organisatiepsychologen om altijd reflectieve meetmethoden te gebruiken (bijvoorbeeld Crossley et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2012), hebben we de formatieve conceptualisering van 'job embeddedness' (of het zogeheten 'causal indicator construct'; Lee et al., 2014) vervangen door een reflectieve conceptualisering en de hiervoor ontwikkelde schaal in daaropvolgende studies gevalideerd. Ook ontwikkelden we een schaal voor 'family embeddedness', omdat de mening van de familie in collectivistische culturen van belang is als het gaat om werkgerelateerde intenties en beslissingen. Het is de moeite waard om de mogelijke relevantie van gezin en bredere familie in dit verband ook te onderzoeken in meer individualistische culturen.

Ten slotte hebben we in Hoofdstuk 5 een aanvulling op eerder onderzoek geleverd door rekening te houden met alle drie de werk-attituden in plaats van alleen met de roeping-attitude, en na te gaan hoe deze werden vertaald in het gedrag van werknemers. In eerdere studies werden baan- en carrière-attituden zelden meegewogen (bijv. Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Park et al., 2015). In onze studie bleken zowel baan- als carrière-attituden negatief gecorreleerd met prosociaal werkgedrag en positief gecorreleerd met contraproductief werkgedrag. In tegenstelling tot eerder onderzoek (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009; Park et al., 2015) hebben we geen directe relatie gevonden tussen de roeping-attitude en prosociaal en contraproductief werkgedrag. In onze studie kwam echter wel naar voren dat alle werk-attituden, inclusief een roeping-attitude, indirect gerelateerd waren aan prosociaal werkgedrag via 'job embeddedness'. Deze bevindingen tonen aan dat de alle drie de werk-attituden relevant zijn voor het voorspellen van werkgerelateerd gedrag in Indonesië.

Summary

Beperkingen van het onderhavige onderzoek en richtingen voor toekomstig onderzoek

Aan dit proefschrift kleven verschillende beperkingen. Eén van de belangrijkste beperkingen van dit proefschrift is het gebruik van slechts cross-sectionele designs, waardoor de mogelijkheid om oorzakelijke verbanden aan te wijzen wordt beperkt. Bovendien schuilt in zelfrapportagevragenlijsten het gevaar van 'common method bias' en sociale wenselijkheid. Om deze problemen te vermijden zou toekomstig onderzoek gebaseerd moeten zijn op longitudinale studies en beoordelingen van anderen.

Een andere restrictie van dit proefschrift is dat de studies werden uitgevoerd in Indonesië op basis van steekproeven van specifieke groepen werknemers. Dit betekent dat de generaliseerbaarheid van de bevindingen naar andere culturen en steekproeven dient te worden onderzocht. De huidige bevindingen zouden dan ook in toekomstig onderzoek op basis van andere steekproeven gerepliceerd moeten worden. Tevens zouden cross-culturele vergelijkingen moeten worden uitgevoerd.

Praktische implicaties

Dit proefschrift heeft verschillende praktische implicaties. In de eerste plaats vormen de resultaten van de studie in Hoofdstuk 2 een aanbeveling om werknemers te selecteren met hoge scores op emotionele stabiliteit en extraversie, omdat dit leidt tot meer prosociaal werkgedrag. Dit laatste kan ook worden bereikt door het niveau van 'affectieve commitment' van werknemers te bevorderen, bijvoorbeeld door het creëren van een goede werkomgeving of door werknemers te betrekken in het besluitvormingsproces, vooral voor personen met een hoge score op emotionele stabiliteit en extraversie.

In de tweede plaats blijkt uit ons onderzoek dat van leidinggevenden in collectivistische culturen wordt verwacht dat zij optreden als een vader die goed voor zijn werknemers zorgt, zowel tijdens als buiten werktijd (Hoofdstuk 3). Organisaties in collectivistische culturen zouden daarom kunnen overwegen opleidings- en ontwikkelingsprogramma's voor managers te organiseren en

programma's voor ontwikkeling en begeleiding van werknemers tot stand te brengen, om op die manier de welwillendheid, competentie en integriteit van leidinggevenden te bevorderen. Praktijken die ertoe leiden dat gezinnen de waarde erkennen die de organisatie voor hen heeft, zoals familiebijeenkomsten, flexibele werktijden en programma's voor kinderdagopvang, kunnen ook het vertrouwen van de werknemers in hun leidinggevende doen toenemen. Collectivisten hechten immers belang aan de mening van hun familie bij het nemen van beslissingen rondom werk (Kiazad et al., 2015; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Wasti, 2002). In Hoofdstuk 4 wordt bewijs geleverd dat de familie van werknemers ook belangrijk is om te voorkomen dat ze de organisatie verlaten.

In de derde plaats laat de studie in Hoofdstuk 5 zien dat werknemers met een baan- en carrière-attitude relatief weinig prosociaal en veel contraproductief werkgedrag laten zien. Om prosociaal gedrag te stimuleren en contraproductief werkgedrag te voorkomen, dienen organisaties een ondersteunende omgeving te creëren die werknemers helpt hun werk uit te voeren op een wijze die in overeenstemming is met de doelstellingen van de organisatie. Om werknemers met een baan- en carrière-attitude te stimuleren zich meer te richten op de doelstellingen van de organisatie, is het van belang te zorgen voor transparante besluitvormingsprocessen, hen te betrekken bij strategische gesprekken en loopbaanplannen voor de lange termijn te ontwikkelen (Wrzesnieski & Dutton, 2001).

Ter afsluiting kan gesteld worden dat de in dit proefschrift gepresenteerde studies laten zien dat 'job embeddedness' kan fungeren als een verklarende variabele voor de relaties tussen individuele verschillen (zoals werkattituden), factoren binnen en buiten de organisatie en het gedrag van werknemers (dat wil zeggen, 'turnover', prosociaal werkgedrag en contraproductief werkgedrag). Bovendien werd aangetoond dat verschillende aspecten van 'job embeddedness – 'on-the-job', 'off-the-job' en 'family embeddedness' – verschillende gevolgen kunnen hebben voor het gedrag van werknemers. ''Off-the-job embeddedness' en ''family embeddedness'' verminderen de intentie van werknemers om van baan te veranderen, en wel op indirecte wijze via 'on-the-job embeddedness'. 'On-the-job

Summary

embeddedness' heeft systematisch een direct effect op de intentie van werknemers om van baan te veranderen.

SUMMARY IN INDONESIAN
(RINGKASAN DALAM BAHASA INDONESIA)

Summary

Disertasi ini berfokus pada perilaku meninggalkan organisasi (*turnover*), perilaku kewarganegaraan organisasi (*organizational citizenship behavior* – OCB) dan perilaku menyimpang di tempat kerja (*workplace deviance* – WD). Ketiga perilaku tersebut memiliki dampak yang signifikan pada kinerja organisasi, seperti kerugian organisasi dari sisi finansial, kepuasan pelanggan, kecepatan pencapaian target organisasi, dan hilangnya pengetahuan yang dimiliki oleh karyawan (Henle, Giacalone, & Jurkiewicz, 2005; Park & Shaw, 2013; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Untuk menggali lebih dalam penyebab ketiga variabel tersebut di atas, disertasi ini menyajikan empat studi terpisah pada sampel yang berbeda, seperti karyawan di pabrik semen, restoran, perawat di rumah sakit, dan dosen perguruan tinggi negeri. Terdapat tiga pertanyaan penelitian yang dijawab pada empat studi tersebut, yaitu (1) bagaimana mekanisme pengaruh kepribadian pada OCB, (2) bagaimana cara faktor-faktor organisasi dan nonorganisasi berpengaruh pada intensi meninggalkan organisasi, dan (3) sampai sejauh mana *job embeddedness* (JE) berpengaruh pada hubungan antara orientasi kerja (*job, career,* dan *calling*), OCB dan WD.

JE merupakan variabel utama pada sebagian besar studi yang dipaparkan dalam disertasi ini. JE didefinisikan sebagai faktor-faktor yang berasal dari dalam (*on-the-job embeddedness*) maupun dari luar organisasi/lingkungan tempat tinggal (*off-the-job embeddedness*) yang membuat individu bertahan di organisasinya (Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Sablynski, 2004). Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, dan Erez (2001) mengajukan tiga dimensi pembentuk JE: *fit, links,* dan *sacrifice.* Dimensi *fit* mengacu pada kongruensi antara nilai-nilai personal karyawan dengan nilai-nilai organisasi dan lingkungan tempat tinggalnya. Dimensi *links* mengacu pada hubungan persahabatan antara karyawan dengan rekan kerja dan rekan di luar organisasi. Dimensi *sacrifice* mengacu pada hal-hal baik material maupun psikologis yang harus dikorbankan oleh karyawan jika harus meninggalkan organisasi maupun lingkungan tempat tinggalnya.

Konseptualisasi konstruk JE ini masih tergolong baru (Mitchell et al., 2001). Terdapat dua konseptualisasi yang berbeda untuk mendefinisikan JE: konstruk formatif dan konstruk reflektif. Mitchell et al. (2001) mengonseptualisasikan JE

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sebagai konstruk formatif, dimana indikator-indikator JE menyebabkan konstruk tersebut (Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). Konseptualisasi dengan cara ini dapat secara tidak sengaja menghilangkan aspek yang penting dan memasukkan aspek yang tidak relevan (Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007). Oleh karena itu, Crossley et al. (2007) membuat skala reflektif untuk menggantikan skala formatif JE. Skala reflektif merupakan skala yang lebih tradisional dan sering digunakan dalam penelitian psikologi. Salah satu kelebihan dari skala reflektif adalah analisis dapat dilakukan dengan alat psikometrik tradisional, seperti *confirmatory factor analysis* dan *covariance-based structural equation modelling.* Kekurangan dari skala JE yang diciptakan oleh Crossley et al. (2007) adalah skala tersebut tidak membedakan antara *on-the-job-* dan *off-the-job embeddedness,* padahal penelitian sebelumnya membuktikan keduanya merupakan konstruk yang berbeda dan memiliki hubungan yang berbeda dengan variabel-variabel lain (misalnya, Allen, 2006; Dawley & Andrews, 2012; Feldman, Ng, & Vogel, 2012; Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004). Dalam disertasi ini, peneliti mencoba menggunakan skala asli dari Mitchell et al. (2001) dalam salah satu studi, dan kemudian memutuskan untuk mengubah konseptualisasi konstruk formatif menjadi konstruk reflektif pada studi selanjutnya dengan tetap mempertahankan dua foci JE (yaitu: *on-the-job-* dan *off-the-job embeddedness*). Tambahan lagi, peneliti juga membuat alat ukur baru, yaitu *family embeddedness,* karena penelitian terdahulu membuktikan keluarga berperan dalam keputusan karyawan di tempat kerja (Lee & Maurer, 1999; Posthuma, Joplin, & Maertz, 2005).

Penelitian JE sebelumnya membuktikan bahwa JE merupakan prediktor yang kuat dari intensi dan perilaku meninggalkan organisasi (e.g., Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012; Mitchell et al., 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Belakangan, cukup banyak penelitian yang membuktikan bahwa JE juga merupakan prediktor dari variabel-variabel lain, termasuk OCB dan WD (e.g., Lee et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2004; Ng & Feldman, 2009).

Secara konseptual, JE memiliki kemiripan dengan konstruk lain, seperti kepuasan kerja dan komitmen organisasi. Crossley et al. (2007) membandingkan JE dengan komitmen organisasi, dan menyimpulkan kedua konstruk tersebut berbeda

Summary

dalam hal: (1) komitmen organisasi mengacu pada alasan spesifik mengapa karyawan terikat pada organisasi (afektif, kontinuans, atau normatif), sementara JE merupakan perasaan keterikatan yang bersifat umum, dan (2) komitmen organisasi hanya berfokus pada faktor-faktor di dalam organisasi, sementara JE juga melibatkan faktor-faktor di luar organisasi. Ramesh dan Gelfand (2010) dalam penelitian lintas budaya antara USA dan India menemukan JE mampu menjelaskan perilaku meninggalkan organisasi setelah memperhitungkan variabel-variabel lain seperti kepuasan kerja, komitmen organisasi, perilaku pencarian informasi, dan persepsi karyawan tentang alternatif pekerjaan lain.

Empat studi empiris yang disajikan di disertasi ini dilakukan di Indonesia, sebuah negara yang tergolong memiliki budaya kolektif (Hofstede, 1991). Oleh karena itu, peneliti berasumsi bahwa JE, terutama dimensi *links,* cukup membudaya di Indonesia, dimana hubungan interpersonal merupakan hal yang penting yang menentukan sikap dan perilaku individu. Lebih jauh lagi, bagi masyarakat kolektif, pendapat keluarga tentang pekerjaan seorang karyawan dapat mempengaruhi keputusan karyawan di tempat kerja (Orthner & Pittman, 1986; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010; Wasti, 2002). Penelitian terdahulu yang dilakukan di India, sebuah negara dengan budaya kolektif, menemukan bahwa keterikatan keluarga pada organisasi seorang karyawan berpengaruh signifikan pada perilaku meninggalkan organisasi karyawan, bahkan setelah mengontrol variabel-variabel prediktor perilaku meninggalkan organisasi lain, seperti kepuasan kerja, komitmen organisasi, perilaku pencarian kerja, persepsi terhadap alternatif pekerjaan lain, dan JE.

Disertasi ini mencoba menjawab permasalahan tentang sikap dan perilaku kerja, dan kaitannya dengan JE, pada sebuah budaya yang literatur penelitiannya masih sangat sedikit. Peneliti menggunakan teori-teori yang terkait dengan budaya kolektif untuk menjelaskan hubungan antara perbedaan individu dan perilaku kerja karyawan, seperti teori kepemimpinan paternalistik dimana pemimpin yang dipandang mampu bertindak sebagai "bapak" akan dihormati dan dipercaya oleh bawahannya.

Pertanyaan penelitian 1 **"Bagaimana mekanisme pengaruh kepribadian pada OCB"** dijawab pada bab 2 yang khusus melihat bagaimana trait *extraversion* dan *emotional stability* berperan pada OCB. Sampel penelitian pada studi ini adalah 222 karyawan sebuah pabrik semen di Jawa Barat. Ada dua teori yang diajukan untuk menjelaskan bagaimana komitmen afektif (komitmen karyawan untuk bertahan di organisasi karena ikatan emosional dan identifikasi dengan organisasi) menjelaskan hubungan antara *trait* kepribadian *extraversion* dan *emotional stability:* teori hubungan *covenantal* (*covenantal relationship theory*) dan teori disposisi-motivasi (*dispositional motivation theory*).

Teori hubungan *covenantal* merupakan teori tentang nilai budaya bersama di antara individu-individu yang terlibat yang ditandai dengan saling percaya dan saling peduli pada kesejahteraan masing-masing, yang membudaya pada masyarakat kolektif. Teori hubungan *covenantal* ini berbeda dengan teori pertukaran sosial (*social exchange theory*) dimana karyawan akan bekerja dengan baik jika mendapatkan perlakuan baik dari atasan atau organisasinya. Menurut teori hubungan *covenantal*, karyawan tidak mementingkan kepentingan pribadi; mereka memiliki keinginan yang besar untuk memajukan organisasi meskipun perlakuan yang mereka dapatkan tidak setimpal dengan usaha yang mereka keluarkan, yang implikasinya adalah memiliki komitmen afektif yang tinggi.

Sementara itu, teori disposisi-motivasi memandang *trait extraversion* dan *emotional stability* sebagai *trait* positif yang terkait dengan identifikasi afektif dan kognitif, secara berurutan. Oleh karena itu, individu yang *extraverted* dan memiliki tingkat kestabilan emosional yang tinggi diharapkan memiliki perasaan dan pengalaman positif pada pekerjaannya, sehingga meningkatkan identifikasi afektif dan kognitif dengan organisasi dan keinginan yang kuat untuk mendukung organisasi (artinya memiliki komitmen afektif yang tinggi), yang kemudian akan bermuara pada meningkatnya perilaku OCB karyawan.

Hasil penelitian menunjukkan *extraversion* berkorelasi positif baik dengan OCB-I (OCB yang ditujukan pada individu; misalnya, kesediaan menolong rekan kerja yang tidak masuk kerja) dan OCB-O (OCB yang ditujukan pada organisasi;

misalnya, tidak menggunakan sumberdaya organisasi untuk kepentingan pribadi). Hal ini menunjukkan bahwa karyawan *extravert* akan menampilkan perilaku membantu individu lain dan organisasi secara keseluruhan karena menampilkan perilaku tersebut akan memperkuat perasaan positif yang mereka inginkan (George & Brief, 1992).

Selanjutnya, *emotional stability* berkorelasi positif hanya dengan OCB-O tetapi tidak dengan OCB-I. Penelitian sebelumnya menemukan korelasi yang lemah antara *emotional stability* dan OCB. Hal ini mungkin karena *emotional stability* berhubungan dengan kendali diri, dimana orang yang memiliki *emotional stability* tinggi cenderung mampu mengendalikan diri mereka (Eisenberg et al., 2000). Kendali diri yang tinggi akan cenderung membuat individu nyaman melakukan perilaku membantu organisasi secara umum (OCB-O), tetapi belum tentu membuat seorang individu bersedia membantu orang lain (OCB-I). Pada penelitian ini, peneliti menemukan bahwa komitmen afektif berperan sebagai mediator pada hubungan antara kepribadian dan OCB.

Pertanyaan penelitian kedua "**Bagaimana mekanisme pengaruh antara faktor-faktor organisasi dan non-organisasi pada intensi meninggalkan organisasi**" dijawab pada bab 3 dan 4. Pada bab 3, peneliti menemukan sikap percaya pada atasan berpengaruh pada intensi meninggalkan organisasi lewat JE. Menggunakan teori kepemimpinan paternalistik yang menggabungkan otoritas, *benevolence,* dan integritas, peneliti berargumentasi bahwa di Indonesia, seorang pemimpin diharapkan mampu bertindak sebagai "bapak" yang memberikan rasa aman dan nyaman dalam bekerja, dan memperhatikan kesejahteraan karyawannya. Pemimpin yang gagal memenuhi ekspektasi ini akan menyebabkan ketidakpercayaan pada bawahan yang akan berpengaruh pada sikap dan perilaku mereka di tempat kerja.

Menggunakan data 471 karyawan sebuah restoran besar di Indonesia yang memiliki sejumlah cabang, peneliti berargumentasi bahwa sikap percaya kepada atasan, dimana kepercayaan tersebut didasari oleh kemampuan atasan bertindak sebagai seorang "bapak", mempengaruhi perasaan kesesuaian antara nilai pribadi

dan nilai organisasi, kemampuan mengembangkan hubungan yang sehat dengan rekan kerja, dan ketidakinginan karyawan untuk mengorbankan semua hal yang didapatkan di tempat kerja (tingkat JE yang tinggi), dan selanjutnya akan menurunkan intensi meninggalkan organisasi.

Peneliti menggunakan *variance-based structural equation modelling* dengan software SmartPLS untuk menganalisis empat model alternatif di samping model yang diajukan peneliti. Ke-4 model alternatif tersebut adalah: (1) sikap percaya pada atasan dan JE sebagai prediktor yang berhubungan, (2) sikap percaya pada atasan dan JE sebagai prediktor yang tidak berhubungan, (3) sikap percaya pada atasan sebagai mediator pada hubungan antara JE dan intensi meninggalkan organisasi, dan (4) JE sebagai moderator pada hubungan antara sikap percaya pada atasan dan intensi meninggalkan organisasi. SmartPLS digunakan karena JE dikonseptualisasikan sebagai konstruk formatif yang tidak dapat dianalisis menggunakan alat analisis tradisional (*covariance-based structural equation modelling)* seperti LISREL, MPlus atau AMOS. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa model yang diajukan oleh peneliti lebih unggul dibandingkan ke-4 model alternatif lainnya.

Penemuan lain yang dihasilkan oleh studi pada bab 3 adalah, *off-the-job embeddedness* (faktor-faktor di lingkungan tempat tinggal yang mempengaruhi karyawan bertahan di organisasi) tidak berkorelasi signifikan dengan intensi meninggalkan organisasi. Hasil ini berbeda dengan hasil penelitian meta-analisis yang diajukan sebelumnya (Jiang et al., 2012). Peneliti menyimpulkan hal ini disebabkan karena faktor-faktor di lingkungan tempat tinggal tidak relevan pada karyawan yang bekerja di sebuah kota besar (Jakarta) yang menawarkan banyak pekerjaan alternatif yang tidak membutuhkan karyawan pindah tempat tinggal jika harus keluar dari organisasinya (Feldman et al., 2012; Jiang et al., 2012; Kiazad et al., 2015).

Pada bab 4, peneliti melakukan adaptasi alat ukur Lee et al. (2004) dengan cara menerjemahkan, memperbaiki, dan menambahkan beberapa pernyataan yang sesuai dengan budaya Indonesia, dan mengubah konseptualisasi konstruk formatif

menjadi konstruk reflektif. Peneliti melakukan uji coba alat pada 97 karyawan yang berasal dari berbagai organisasi. Menggunakan confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), peneliti menemukan tiga faktor besar JE yang terdiri dari *off-the-job, on-the-job, dan family embeddedness.* Selanjutnya, menggunakan data 334 perawat pada dua rumah sakit besar di Jakarta, peneliti menemukan bahwa faktor *off-the-job* dan *family embeddedness* berpengaruh pada intensi karyawan meninggalkan organisasi secara tidak langsung, lewat *on-the-job embeddedness.* Kedua bukti yang disajikan pada bab 3 dan 4 merupakan konfirmasi dari proposisi Kiazad et al. (2015) bahwa *off-the-job* atau *community embeddedness* tidak berpengaruh langsung pada variabel perilaku meninggalkan organisasi. Akan tetapi, hasil ini berbeda dengan penemuan oleh Jiang et al. 2012) yang menemukan hubungan yang negatif dan signifikan antara *off-the-job embeddedness* dan variabel *turnover* pada study-study di Barat.

Bab 5 ditujukan untuk menjawab pertanyaan penelitian terakhir **"Sampai sejauhmana JE mempengaruhi hubungan antara orientasi kerja individu dan perilaku mereka (yaitu OCB dan WD)."** Variabel orientasi kerja dibedakan atas tiga orientasi: *job* (pekerjaan), *career* (karir), dan *calling* (panggilan). Individu yang memiliki orientasi pekerjaan yang tinggi akan melihat pekerjaan hanya sebagai alat untuk mendapatkan uang dan manfaat material lainnya; minat mereka yang sebenarnya adalah pada hal-hal lain selain pekerjaan mereka. Individu yang berorientasi karir befokus pada pencapaian karir yang lebih tinggi agar status sosial, kekuasaan, dan harga diri mereka meningkat. Sementara itu, individu yang memiliki orientasi panggilan melihat pekerjaan sebagai sesuatu yang bermakna; mereka tidak berminat pada materi, uang dan karir, tetapi pada kepuasan karena pekerjaan mereka telah menyumbang secara signifikan untuk kemajuan dunia.

Sampel pada penelitian ini adalah 188 dosen dari berbagai institusi pendidikan tinggi di Indonesia. Peneliti menemukan bahwa orientasi pekerjaan dan karir berkorelasi negatif dengan OCB dan berkorelasi positif dengan WD. JE secara parsial memediatori hubungan antara orientasi pekerjaan dan karir dengan OCB. Sementara itu, orientasi panggilan hanya berpengaruh pada OCB lewat JE, dan tidak memiliki pengaruh langsung maupun tidak langsung pada WD.

Penelitian sebelumnya jarang memperhitungkan orientasi pekerjaan dan karir dalam penelitian mereka; kebanyakan penelitian hanya menggunakan orientasi panggilan (misalnya, Bullough & Hall-Kenyon, 2012; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Park et al., 2015). Dengan demikian, penelitian ini dapat menyumbangkan saran bahwa orientasi pekerjaan dan karir juga penting untuk diteliti ketika meneliti perilaku karyawan di organisasi.

Sumbangan penelitian

Disertasi ini memberikan beberapa sumbangan teori dan metode. Semua studi yang ditulis pada disertasi ini dilakukan di Indonesia, sebuah negara yang saat ini memiliki publikasi ilmiah yang minim khususnya pada topik sikap dan perilaku kerja. Oleh karena itu, semua studi yang dipaparkan di sini dapat membantu pemahaman pembaca mengapa karyawan pada sebuah budaya kolektif menampilkan perilaku tertentu di tempat kerja. Contohnya, pada bab 2 peneliti menggunakan konsep kolektif *covenantal relationship* untuk menjelaskan mengapa komitmen afektif memediatori hubungan antara kepribadian dan OCB, sementara studi-studi terdahulu lebih banyak menggunakan konsep resiprokal seperti teori pertukaran sosial dalam menjelaskan hubungan antar variabel. Di bab 3, peneliti menggunakan konsep gaya kepemimpinan paternalistik yang membudaya pada masyarakat kolektif untuk menjelaskan mengapa JE berperan sebagai mediator pada hubungan antara sikap percaya pada atasan dan intensi meninggalkan organisasi.

Sumbangan lain dari disertasi ini adalah alat ukur JE yang baru pada bab 4. Peneliti psikologi organisasi pada umumnya menganjurkan untuk menggunakan konstruk reflektif dibandingkan konstruk formatif karena kemudahan menganalisis properti psikometriknya (misalnya, Crossley et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2012). Oleh karena itu, peneliti mengadaptasi alat ukur JE yang ada dan mengubah konseptualisasinya dari konstruk formatif menjadi konstruk reflektif, dan menguji validitasnya pada sampel yang berbeda. Sebagai tambahan, peneliti juga mengembangkan skala *family embeddedness,* karena meyakini bahwa keluarga

berperan besar dalam menentukan sikap dan perilaku karyawan di tempat kerja, khususnya di Indonesia.

Pada bab 5, peneliti memperluas penelitian-penelitian sebelumnya dengan mempertimbangkan ketiga orientasi kerja, tidak hanya pada orientasi *calling* (panggilan). Penelitian sebelumnya jarang mempertimbangkan orientasi pekerjaan dan orientasi karir, padahal kedua orientasi ini juga berpengaruh pada sikap dan perilaku kerja karyawan. Pada studi terakhir yang menggunakan sampel 188 dosen di beberapa perguruan tinggi negeri di Indonesia, peneliti menemukan bahwa orientasi pekerjaan dan orientasi karir berkorelasi negatif dengan OCB, dan berkorelasi positif dengan WD. Berbeda dengan penelitian sebelumnya, peneliti tidak menemukan hubungan yang signifikan antara orientasi panggilan dengan OCB dan WD. Akan tetapi, ketiga orientasi kerja berhubungan dengan OCB secara tidak langsung melalui JE. Dalam hal ini, JE berperan dalam menjelaskan hubungan antara ketiga orientasi kerja dengan perilaku kerja seperti OCB dan WD.

Implikasi praktis

Disertasi ini memberikan beberapa implikasi praktis yang dapat diterapkan oleh organisasi. Pertama, karyawan yang mudah menampilkan OCB adalah karyawan yang memiliki tingkat kestabilan emosi dan *trait extraversion* yang tinggi. Individu dengan kedua kecenderungan tersebut dapat dipertimbangkan untuk diterima sebagai karyawan oleh organisasi yang menghargai OCB. Meningkatkan komitmen afektif dengan cara menciptakan lingkungan kerja yang nyaman dan mengikutsertakan karyawan dalam proses pengambilan keputusan juga dapat meningkatkan OCB, terutama bagi karyawan yang memiliki tingkat kestabilan emosi dan *extraversion* yang tinggi.

Kedua, seorang atasan pada masyarakat yang memiliki budaya kolektif diharapkan dapat bertindak sebagai "bapak" yang memperhatikan kesejahteraan karyawan baik di dalam maupun di luar organisasi. Oleh karena itu, organisasi dapat menciptakan program pelatihan dan pengembangan manajer yang melatih kemampuan para manajer untuk peduli pada bawahan dan bertindak seperti

seorang bapak. Praktik SDM yang melibatkan keluarga karyawan di organisasi, seperti *family gathering,* waktu kerja yang fleksibel, dan program *day-care* juga dapat meningkatkan sikap percaya seorang karyawan pada atasannya, karena individu pada masyarakat kolektif menghargai pendapat keluarganya dalam keputusan-keputusan kerjanya. Salah satu studi pada disertasi ini juga memberikan bukti empiris bahwa keluarga memegang peran penting dalam keputusan karyawan untuk keluar atau bertahan pada organisasinya.

Ketiga, karyawan yang berorientasi pekerjaan dan karir cenderung menampilkan perilaku OCB yang rendah dan perilaku WD yang tinggi. Untuk merangsang perilaku OCB dan mencegah timbulnya perilaku WD, organisasi perlu mengembangkan lingkungan yang mendukung karyawan berkreasi sendiri dalam melakukan pekerjaannya yang selaras dengan tujuan organisasi. Karyawan yang berorientasi pekerjaan dan karir dapat lebih mengarahkan orientasi mereka pada tujuan organisasi dengan cara memberikan kesempatan kepada mereka untuk terlibat dalam formulasi strategis organisasi, penerapan pengambilan keputusan manajemen yang transparan, dan rencana pengembangan karir jangka panjang.

Dari keempat studi yang dilakukan dalam disertasi ini, dapat disimpulkan bahwa JE mampu bertindak sebagai variabel penjelas pada hubungan antara karakteristik individu (seperti orientasi kerja), faktor-faktor organisasi maupun non organisasi, dan perilaku individu di tempat kerja (yaitu *turnober,* OCB, dan WD). Selain itu, aspek-aspek JE, seperti on-the-job, off-the-job, dan *family embeddedness,* memiliki konsekuensi yang berbeda. *On-the-job embeddedness* secara konsisten berpengaruh negatif pada *turnover* pada semua studi, *dan off-the-job* dan *family embeddedness* berpengaruh negatif pada turnover secara tidak langsung lewat *on-the-job embeddedness.*

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

to my paranimfen: Fredrick Dermawan Purba (Jacky) and Punya V. Iyer. I am grateful to have you both as my friends, and I am surely going to count on you to help me through the ceremony. As you both are also PhD students, I wish you all the best during your PhD trajectories.

I was once a member of PPI (Perhimpunan Pelajar Indonesia) Rotterdam, the place where I met many Indonesian students from undergraduate to graduate programs at EUR. I cannot write your names one-by-one, but surely if we meet somewhere, I would recognize you. *Terimakasih teman-teman, untuk kebersamaan yang pernah dilakukan.* When I was in trouble, I always knocked on Ajo's door. *Terimakasih Jo, oom-nya anak-anak yang wajahnya tidak kalah muda dari anak S1 yang baru masuk. Syukur alhamdulillah ya…* I thank all friends from the Ministry of Finance, Hentri, Iska and colleagues, Sagala, Indhira, Putra, Lisa, Pandu, and others for the occasional weekend getaways out of the city and for helping me make my days colorful.

I surely would not forget my Sunday friends, Ranee, Michelle, Joshua, Alfa, Juliet, and Jacky. Thank you guys…for the laughter and happiness we shared during Sunday lunch and Coffee Company that kept me sane while in Rotterdam. Josh my fellow writer; I am sorry for abandoning our paper these past few months. I promise you I will seriously look at it again after the promotion.

I once stayed in a lovely and quiet neighborhood of Rhoon, thanks to Jan Dirk and Shahlla Gil. I really loved staying there, if only Rhoon was not too far from Rotterdam, I would have surely wanted to stay there longer! Thanks for allowing me to stay at your place. I really loved the pear-plucking day we had at a beautiful country house during my stay at your residence. It is too bad that I had to miss the chance to do it again this year. Ully and Elsye, I occasionally came to see you both when I needed time away from my daily routine. *Terimakasih girls…*

During my PhD program, I am grateful to be a part of the family of Sasakawa Young Leaders Fellowship Fund (SYLFF) from Tokyo Foundation, and to be given an opportunity to conduct a research program in Ohio University in the spring of 2013. I thank Prof. Rodger W. Griffeth who has warmly welcomed me at his lab to work with him and his students for almost three months, and to

experience one of biannual department gatherings that was surprisingly warm and very collective!

My friends and colleagues at the Faculty of Psychology Universitas Indonesia in general, and particularly at the Industrial and Organizational Psychology department: Bertina Sjabadhyni, Corina D. Silalahi, Endang Parahyanti, Alice Salendu, Arum Etikariena, Eka Gatari, Farida Haryoko, Tulus B. Radikun, Wustari Mangundjaya, Martina Dwi Mustika, Wilman Dahlan M., Ibu Yanti Graito, Ibu Semiati, Ibu Lieke Waluyo, Ibu Lembana, and Ibu Rully. Thank you all for the friendship we share especially after I cameback from Rotterdam. Thank you for your understanding that I needed to reduce my teaching load in the past semester so that I could concentrate more on my dissertation. Mbak Iwus, thanks for helping me out on the data collection on one of my studies. Mbak Yanti and Mbak Isye, *ayo kita rencanakan liburan selanjutnya.* Arum and Mas Tulus my fellow PhD students, *cepatlah kita selesaikan derita tiada akhir ini dan masuk golongan manusia yang katanya "terpelajar" itu.* Many thanks to Tari for making my life easier especially when it comes to using technology. Sorry for I am a Mac user, I don't do Windows ☺. Thank you to Yosi Umboh, for the beautiful "reaching hands" to illustrate my dissertation.

Last but not least, I am so grateful to have my family in Bandung and Bekasi. Bapak dan mama, it is your encouragements during my early years that enabled me to pursue my dream in the area I love the most: education. I hope I would not be a disappointment for you both. Ison, Aan, sisters in law, Albert my guardian angel, and my beautiful nephew and nieces (Rafa, Sasha, and Annetta). Thanks for just being there. *Untuk kalian semua, disertasi ini aku persembahkan.*

Debby Purba
Rotterdam, 2016.

CURRICULUM VITAE
AND
PUBLICATIONS

Curriculum Vitae

Debora Eflina Purba was born in Sungai Pakning, Riau, Indonesia on March 15th, 1972. After completing secondary school in 1991, she went to the Faculty of Humanities, Universitas Indonesia and afterwards worked at a private school in Jakarta for three years. She went back to the Universitas Indonesia to receive her Masters of Science degree in Industrial and Organizational Psychology in the year 2000. Upon completing her graduate program in 2003, she worked as a consultant and researcher for five years, and decided to work as a lecturer at the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Indonesia in 2008. Besides teaching and researching, she was trusted to serve as a Secretary of Faculty responsible in nonacademic areas (finance and human resources) from 2009 until 2011. She started her PhD program in October 2011 under the supervision of Prof.dr. Henk T. van der Molen, Prof.dr. Marise Ph. Born, and Dr. Janneke Oostrom. During her PhD program, she went back to teach again at the Universitas Indonesia in 2015.

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