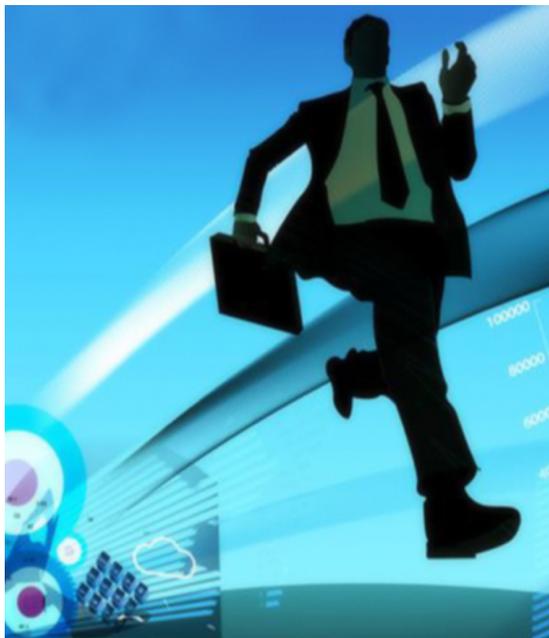


The Effect of Internal Career Orientations on Organizational Commitment

*Pachsiry Chompukum**



บทคัดย่อ

พนักงานมีความแตกต่างกันในแง่ของการมองความสำเร็จของอาชีพ ซึ่งเป็นสิ่งที่ถูกอธิบายไว้ในแนวคิดของแนวทางอาชีพภายใน (internal career orientations) การศึกษานี้ได้ศึกษาผลของแนวทางอาชีพภายในที่มีต่อ

ความผูกพันต่อองค์กร (organizational commitment) โดยเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลมาจากผู้ที่กำลังศึกษาระดับปริญญาโท ในสาขาบริหารธุรกิจ (MBA) ภาคนอกเวลาราชการในประเทศไทย ผลการศึกษาแสดงให้เห็นว่าแนวทางอาชีพภายในไม่เพียงแต่แสดงถึงคุณค่าพื้นฐานที่แต่ละคนมีในการทำงานเท่านั้น แต่ยังมีผลต่อความผูกพันขององค์กรอีกด้วย กล่าวคือ คนที่มีแนวทางอาชีพภายในที่ต่างกันจะมีระดับของความผูกพันต่อองค์กรแตกต่างกันออกไป โดยคนที่มีแนวทางอาชีพภายในที่เน้นความมั่นคง (Getting Secure) จะมีระดับความผูกพันต่อองค์กรสูงสุด สำหรับคนที่มีแนวทางอาชีพภายในที่เน้นความท้าทาย (Getting High) และเน้นความอิสระ (Getting Free) จะมีความผูกพันต่อองค์กรในระดับกลาง ในขณะที่คนที่มีแนวทางอาชีพภายในที่เน้นความก้าวหน้า (Getting Ahead) และเน้นความสมดุล (Getting Balanced) จะมีระดับความผูกพันต่อองค์กรต่ำสุด นอกจากนี้ ในการศึกษา ยังได้แสดงการนำไปใช้ในการจัดการและการวิจัยในอนาคตไว้ด้วย

คำสำคัญ: แนวทางอาชีพภายใน ความผูกพันต่อองค์กร และการพัฒนาอาชีพ

* Assistance Professor, Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy, Chulalongkorn University.

Abstract

Employees are different in terms of their views of career success, which is described as internal career orientations. The study explores the effect of internal career orientations on organizational commitment. Data was collected from part-time MBA students in Thailand. Results reveal that internal career orientations do not only represent an individual's work basic values but also influence organizational commitment. Individuals with different internal career orientations hold different levels of organizational commitment. Specifically, individuals with Getting Secure orientations show the highest levels of organizational commitment, individuals with Getting High or Getting Free orientations show the moderate levels of organizational commitment, and individuals with Getting Ahead and Getting Balanced show the lowest levels of organizational commitment. Implications for management and future research are discussed.

Key words: Internal Career Orientations, Organizational Commitment, and Career Development

Introduction

The view of career development is changing in the 21st Century; to gaining competitive advantages through lean organizational structure, the hierarchical career progression has demised and a career path is neither automatic nor line anymore (Arthur & Rosseau, 1996). Not everyone wants to be in the management position. Some would rather move up to be specialists in their areas while some may want to explore and do different kinds of work in order to learn about themselves and to express their values. The definitions of career success or career orientation among young talents are diversified. As a result, it is likely to affect employees' attitude toward organizations such as organizational commitment.

Organizational commitment is a construct potentially useful for understanding employee behavior in organizations. Meta-analyses have demonstrated that organizational commitment is consistently related to variables associated with withdrawal from the organization, to include perceived job alternatives, intention to leave, lateness, absenteeism, and turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) However, the factors that cause individual's organizational commitment and how this construct develop over time are less clear. Numerous studies explore antecedents of organizational commitment (i.e., personal characteristics, role states, job characteristics) and find that their relationships are fairly small (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Although, there has been considerable interest in organizational

commitment by using career perspective (Adler & Aranya, 1984; Allen & Meyer, 1993; Cohen, 1991; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Jans, 1989; Reilly & Orsak, 1991), the focus has been only on using career stages to predict organizational commitment and the results are mixed. For example, Jans (1989) found that there is little variation in the respective influence on organizational commitment across career stages, while Lynn, Cao, and Horn (1996) found that organizational commitment is significantly related to career stages. One possible explanation for these conflicting findings could be individual difference (i.e., career orientations).

Thus, the purpose of this research is to explore the effects of internal career orientations on organizational commitment.

Following Figure 1 below, the research will begin with the discussions of how individuals are different in terms of internal career orientations (Getting ahead, Getting secure, Getting high, Getting free, and Getting balance). Next, the concept of organizational commitment will be addressed. A model of how an internal career orientation, age and organizational tenure affect organizational commitment will be then explored. Then, data will be collected and analyzed. Finally, discussions, strengths, limitation, and future research will also be included.

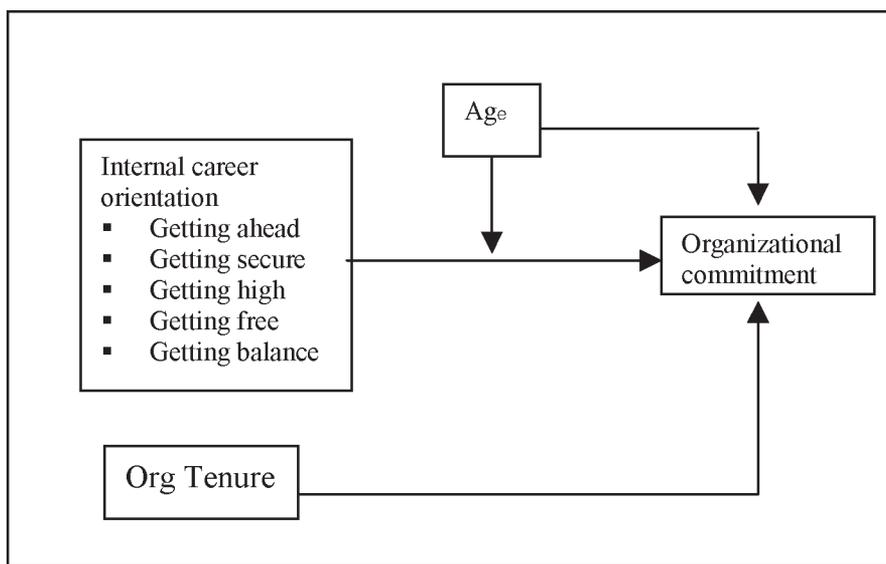


Figure 1: The effect of internal career orientation on organizational commitment.

Literature review

Internal Career Orientations

The internal career is an individual's self-concept and personal career definition; it is subjective idea about work life and his or her role within it (Derr & Laurent, 1989). The concept of internal career tries to focus not only on what the person wants or thinks is important, but also on what the individual feels he or she can do the best as well as his or her limitations (Delong, 1982; Derr, 1986b; Schein, 1971; Schein, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). In his study of diverse professional groups, Derr (1986) discovered that there are different internal career orientations: getting-ahead, getting-secure, getting-free, getting-high, and getting-balanced. Following are the details of each internal career.

Getting Ahead

Individuals with getting ahead as their internal career orientation aim to be at the top of hierarchies, status systems, and professional societies as quickly as possible. They need options for moving up and if they do not get them, they will make advancement opportunities and start looking for them. In other words, they are ready to make a career move when they sense new opportunities that match their aspirations.

Getting Secure

The definition of career success for this group is lifetime employment, the rewards of money, status, good health, being seen as loyal and hardworking, good relations with colleagues and peers, and organizational respect. Although security is

comprised of both economical and psychological factors, getting secure is the essence of their career successes, so these careerists are sometimes labeled as "organization men" or "solid citizens."

Getting Free

Getting-free people desire maximum control over their work lives. They are primarily concerned with their personal freedom and autonomy. While prone to work hard, their goal is to become experts in a valued specialty and then negotiate for their freedom. In addition, individuals with Getting Free orientations are more loyal to their profession than to their employers and use their peers as a primary reference groups. They are also known as "invisible person" since given any plausible reason; they may not show up for meetings. They may be both creative and interesting, but they are sometimes hard to get to know because of their marginality.

Getting High

Getting High people are turned on by their jobs; they are happy to work harder and finish projects. They like to initiate new projects, sell their ideas to their superiors, and develop projects to a more concrete stage. Once everything is finished, however, this careerist tends to get bored, is impatient and begins to look for new projects. Getting-high people love difficult projects; they are talented, and they feel the need to test their talents. Their objective is to get challenging and exciting work, stay at the cutting edge, maintain high standards, be perceived as a master craftsman, and be willing to seize exciting new opportunities.

Getting Balanced

People with the getting balanced orientation have three major domains in life: career, self-development, and relationships. They view their work as very important, but they will not sacrifice it in the long-term for the other dimensions of their lives. Their career has to remain in balance with self-development and relationships. Generally speaking, they want it all, need it all, and are willing to work hard to have it all (work, relationships, self-development).

To sum up, people vary in terms of their internal careers. All five orientations exist among talent in organizations. Therefore, it is important that organizations and supervisors must understand what employee's internal career orientations are to capture the hearts and minds of their employees and to maximize their performance.

Organization commitment

Organizational commitment has been defined and measured in several ways. For example, Luthans states that organizational commitment is a willingness of social actors to give energy and loyalty to the organization, a high degree of belonging, and an unwillingness to leave the organization for increments of pay, status, professional freedom, or greater collegial friendship (Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987). Mowday, Steers, and Porter's (1979) defines organizational commitment as strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al., 1979). It can be further described by listing three related factors:

1. a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values
2. a willingness to exert considerable effort on the behalf of the organization
3. a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization

Therefore, an individual with high organizational commitment tends to exercise a high level of personal and task-related effort in their work and exemplifies the prototypical corporate citizen of the organization

In addition, organizational commitment should be somewhat more stable over time than job satisfaction. Although day-to-day events in the work place may affect an employee's level of job satisfaction, such transitory events should not cause an employee to seriously reevaluate his or her attachment to the overall organization. (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, p.226)

Hypotheses

Previous research proposed that work values are related to organizational commitment. For example, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that Protestant work ethic was positively correlated to organizational commitment. In addition, Angel and Lawson (1994) found the relationship between motivation (Motive), organizational commitment and performance. There is also a study that shows Maslow's need hierarchy served as guides to organizational commitment (Cook & Wall, 1980).

Therefore, internal career, which comprises of motives, values, talents, and perceived constraints, is expected to affect organizational commitment. That is, individuals with different career orientation should show different levels of organizational commitment.

Getting Secure types highly value organizational loyalty, and they are seen as “organization men.” They are willing to put enormous efforts into keeping organizational activities moving forward (Derr & Chilton, 1983). They feel that there is an open giving and receiving of contractual relationships between them and employers, and therefore, they tend to develop covenantal relationship with organizations, which is positively connected to organizational commitment (e.g., Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). Moreover, they completely identify with the organization’s interests (Derr, 1986). Strong identification with an organization (Simon, 1976) also relates to attitudes toward organization. When employees identify with the organization, they come to consider the consequences of their actions in relationship to the organization’s well being. Therefore, a Getting Secure type, who has a strong identification with the organization, is likely to show a high level of organizational commitment.

However, individuals with Getting High or Getting Free orientations may engage in less organizational commitment than Getting Secure types because they highly value exciting work and autonomy, respectively (DeLong 1982). Unlike Getting Secure type who is solid citizen in

an organization, individuals with Getting High and Getting Free orientations tend to focus on their in-role jobs to meet their psychological needs (e.g., getting exciting work and gaining freedom at work). Their objective is to getting challenging and self-directed work, staying at cutting edge, maintaining a grade A reputation among colleagues, having powerful senior sponsors and being perceived as a master craftsperson. Therefore, they still want to be parts of organizations. Individuals with a Getting High orientation focus a lot of energy on work projects that are exciting and challenging for them because they enjoy their work and hope that if their supervisors also like their work, they will be assigned to more exciting assignments. Whereas, Getting Free people strives for personal freedom and autonomy (Derr, 1986). Furthermore, reviews of the literature on organizational commitment identified a range of possible antecedents to commitment to an organization. These included job characteristics, such as variety and autonomy at work (Jans, 1989), Therefore, they tend to retain some degree of organizational commitment and sustain a sense of belonging to the organization and to keep good relationships with peers and supervisors. Relatively to the other types of internal career orientations, individuals with Getting High and Getting Free orientations are expected to moderately show organizational citizenship behavior.

Unlike the above internal career orientations, the Getting Ahead and Getting Balanced orientations are likely to show the lowest level of organizational commitment, if any. Getting Ahead

career orientation tend to devote their time and efforts on in-role behavior because it directly relates to performance evaluations, promotion, and salary. They have career plans and want to move up quickly. They are also ready to make geographical company and career moves when they sense new opportunities that match their aspirations. While, Getting balanced people want it all: work, family, and self-development (Derr & Chilton, 1983). Due to time-constraint, they try to do the best they can with their in-role jobs while spending the rest of time and energy on nonwork agendas. Carlson, Derr, and Wadsworth (2000) found that individuals with Getting Balanced career orientations experienced a high level of time-based work and family conflict. Therefore, they are unlikely to attach and commitment to organizations. Therefore, this leads to the following hypothesis:

H1: Internal career orientations will influence levels of organizational commitment such that individuals with Getting Secure orientations will tend to show the highest levels of organizational commitment, individuals with Getting High or Getting Free orientations will tend to show the moderate levels of organizational commitment, and individuals with Getting Ahead and Getting Balance will tend to show the lowest levels of organizational commitment.

Given that older people cannot easily find high level jobs, employees have a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. Normally, individuals identify with the organizations, therefore, commit to maintain membership to

pursue their goals. The older they are, the more they develop congruent between their goals and organization. More specifically, older workers become more attitudinally committed to an organization for a variety of reasons, including greater satisfaction with their jobs, having received better positions, and having cognitively justified their remaining in an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Furthermore, older individuals are likely to realize that they have less career choices. In study of various types of organizations, age have generally been reported to be positively associated with commitment (Hrebiniak, 1974; Sheldon, 1971). This leads to:

H2: Age will be positively related to organizational commitment.

Additionally, age can represent career span or career stages. Individuals work and grow throughout their lives. The older they get, the more steps they have taken in their career span. According to career development models (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Super, 1957) the development and maintenance of organizational commitment will differ across career stages as represented by age. There are several studies that employ career span to predict the level of organizational commitment. However, the results are mixed and few have obtained any substantial correlations (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). For example, Fox (1989) found that employees with longer tenure tended to exhibit higher loyalty and commitment toward their institution. Whereas, Ornstein and Isabella (1990) suggests that

organizational commitment is a function of age rather than psychological stage such as tenure in organizations. Furthermore, Allen and Meyer (1993) and Lynn, Cao, and Horn (1996) found that organizational commitment is different across career stages. While, Ornstein, Cron, and Slocum (1989) and Jans (1989) found that there is very little variation in the influences on organizational commitment across career stages. Consequently, age alone may not be enough to predict organizational commitment. One possible explanation for conflicting findings in previous studies is that no study has considered how the process linking organizational commitment with other variables change over various career stages (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990.) To gain more understanding, a moderation effect should be added to the process. As stated earlier, internal careers reflect how individuals view the meaning of their lives and works. It is more likely that an internal career will affect the level of organizational commitment during their ages.

H3: Age will moderate relationship between internal career orientation and organizational commitment.

Although age and tenure are both time-related variables, they are not the same. Age can reflect career stage while tenure signifies individual's experience in the organization. According to side-bet model, the longer individuals work in organizations, the more oriented they settling down and are less willing to leave the organizations. Moreover, increased investments in the form of time and energy make it increasingly

difficult for individuals to leave with job voluntarily. Past research (Lee, 1971; Sheldon, 1971) found the relations between time individuals work in the organizations and levels of organizational commitment. Therefore, it is proposed:

H4: Organizational tenure will be positively related to organizational commitment.

Sample and Data Collection Procedure

To obtain subjects from various organizations and industries, data were collected from part-time MBA students in three large universities in Bangkok. The reason to focus on collecting data in Bangkok is that most organizations employing white-collar workers are located in this area. This sample should be able to guarantee for both external and internal validity. Full-time MBA students were not included in this study because they generally had only one year working experiences and currently did not work. Therefore, they were likely not to develop their internal career orientations nor organizational commitment yet. Unlike full-time MBA students, part-time MBA students who had working experiences at least 3 years as well as were currently employed and belonged to certain organizations. Therefore, they should well developed their internal career orientations and had proved satisfactory to them. In term of internal validity, Respondents were asked to complete the survey, return the survey to instructors or MBA officers after classes. When subjects have more time to think about questions thoroughly, the validity of their answer will be

strengthened. In addition, they were also assured in the covered letter that their responses were completely confidential; no one will ever see or review their responses except the researcher. Moreover, their response will definitely not affect their grade. The intention of collecting data is for academic purposes and to contribute to Thai business study. The information they provided was coded and accessible only to the researcher and the survey had an identification number for research control purposes only. The results were interpreted in aggregation, not based on any individual respondent. In addition, respondents were given phone numbers of the researcher that they could contact if they had any questions or concerns about the study.

Of the 210 surveys distribute to part-time MBA students, 186 questionnaires were returned for a response rate of 88.57%. The data received from 48 respondents were unusable because their surveys were incomplete; they did not answer all thirty questions in the section about their internal career orientations, it resulted in a useable sample of 138 respondents. The final response rate was 65.71%

Measures

Internal career orientations

The forced-choice scale used to measure the five internal career orientations (Getting Ahead, Getting Secure, Getting High, Getting Free and Getting Balance) identified by Derr (1986) consists of 30 items. Both supervisor and subordinates were ask to select between one of two choices in each item that they felt more accurately

reflected them or was more true of them. For example, a respondent was asked to choose between “I would like to work independently” and “I like to be part of a stable organization and to have my own place in it”. In the result, an individual can have a combination of internal career types but the highest scores indicate his or her primary internal career orientation. For example, an individual who had 10, 5, 4, 5, 6 on Getting Ahead, Getting Secure, Getting High, Getting Free, and Getting Balance, respectively, was classified as Getting Ahead person.

Organizational commitment

A Shortened version of Meyer and Allen (1991)’s levels of organizational commitment was used. Respondents were asked to show the level to which they agreed with each item. In addition, the five items measuring organizational commitment were: (1) “I feel strongly belong to my organization,”(2) “I am reluctant to leave a company once I have been working here,”(3) “leaving my job would entail great personal sacrifice,” (4) “my employer would be very disappointed if I left my job,” and (5) “I feel like I am part of the family at the company in which I work”. Alpha was .88.

Data Analysis and Results

Respondent Characteristics

The age of respondents ranged from 23 to 52 years. The average age was 31.62 years (s.d. = 6.73); 44 percent were men. Table 1 shows that more than a half of all the respondents (59%)

were single; Table 2 indicates that 6.6 percent were married without children; 15.1 percent were married with children and 1.6 percent were divorced. The majority of the respondents (62.7%) had a bachelor's degree while 19.9% had a master's degree as shown in Table 3. Table 4 summarizes that respondents came from various functions such as administration/human resource (10.8%), advertising/sale (3.6%), finance/accounting

(17.5%), purchasing (2.4%), information (2.4%), marketing (15.7%), production (4.2%) and product management (1.2%). As shown in Table 5, more than a half of all the respondents (65.6%) were in supervisor level or above. The average organizational tenure was 5.69 years and the average length of time working at the current position is 3.62 years.

Gender	Number of Respondent	Percent
Male	73	44.0
Female	64	38.6
Total	137	82.5
Missing	29	17.5
Total	166	100.0

Table 1: Numbers of respondents classified by gender

Marital Status	Number of Respondent	Percent
Single	98	59.0
Married without children	11	6.6
Married with children	25	15.1
Divorced	3	1.8
Total	137	82.5
Missing	29	17.5
Total	166	100.0

Table 2: Numbers of respondents classified by marital status

Level of Education	Number of Respondent	Percent
College Graduate	104	62.7
Master Degree	33	19.9
Total	137	82.5
Missing	29	17.5
Total	166	100.0

Table 3: Numbers of respondents classified by levels of education

Job Function	Number of Respondent	Percent
Administration/ Human Resource	18	10.8
Advertising/ Sales	6	3.6
Finance/ Accounting	29	17.5
Customer Service	4	2.4
Data	4	2.4
Marketing	26	15.7
Operations	7	4.2
Product Management	2	1.2
Other	39	23.5
Total	135	81.3
Missing	31	18.7
Total	166	100.0

Table 4: Numbers of respondents classified by job function

	Number of Respondent	Percent
Manager/Assist.	55	33.1
Head of Division	5	3.0
Head of Department/Assist.	19	11.4
Supervisor/Assist	1	.6
Operating worker	37	22.3
Other	19	11.4
Missing	30	18.1
Total	166	100.0

Table 5: Numbers of respondents classified by position

Results

Hypothesis 1 posits that Internal career orientations will influence levels of organizational commitment such that individuals with Getting Secure orientations will tend to show the highest levels of organizational commitment, individuals with Getting High or Getting Free orientations will tend to show the moderate levels of organizational commitment, and individuals with Getting Ahead and Getting Balance will tend to show the lowest levels of organizational commitment. As predicted, the statistical results revealed that individuals with a Getting Secure

orientation showed the highest levels of organizational commitment (mean = 3.84), whereas individuals with Getting Ahead and Getting Balanced showed the lowest levels of organizational commitment (mean = 3.34). Individuals with Getting High and Getting Free orientations showed moderate levels of organizational commitment with mean of 3.79 ($F_{2,132} = 3.8, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 2 asserts that age will be positively related to organizational commitment. As shown in Table 6, age is positively related to organizational commitment ($r's = .352, p < .01$).

	n	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1 Age	136	31.62	6.73				
2 Org. tenure	134	68.28	64.65	.648**			
3 Position tenure	135	43.43	46.84	.514**	.668**		
4 Time work with sup.	122	40.30	43.96	.374**	.501**	.524**	
5 OC.	131	3.65	.983	.352**	.237**	.188*	.288**

Table 6: Correlations among variables

Notes

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis 3 holds that age will moderate relationship between internal career orientation and organizational commitment. In the other words, the effects of internal career orientations on organizational commitment will be stronger for older workers than younger workers. The result of ANCOVA did not find statistically significantly support for this hypothesis ($F_{2,131} = .15$, n.s.).

However, hypothesis 4 was supported. That is organizational tenure is positively related to organizational commitment ($r's = .237$, $p < .05$).

Discussion

The current study is unique in that it explores extended dispositional factors in organizational commitment study. Past research has studied

different antecedents of organizational commitment but none has studied how internal career orientation, that is an individual's self-concept and personal career definition, affects organizational commitment. The study uncovers that internal career orientations do not only represent an individual's work basic values but also influence an individual's attitudinal outcome, namely organizational commitment. Individuals with different internal career orientations hold different levels of organizational commitment. Specifically, individuals with Getting Secure orientations show the highest levels of organizational commitment, individuals with Getting High or Getting Free orientations show the moderate levels of organizational commitment, and individuals with Getting Ahead and Getting Balanced show the lowest levels of

organizational commitment. The study supports Derr's concept (1986) that of the five internal career orientations, Getting Secure type is the most loyal and identifies himself/herself completely with the organization while Getting Ahead or Getting Balanced type sticks with what they want (i.e., fast career move up and balancing acts) rather than with organizations.

In addition, the study consists with the past research that show that age and organizational tenure are positively related to organizational commitment. Intuitively, organizational tenure should be a better surrogate measure of side bets and more related to organizational commitment than age. However, results of the study does not confirm the belief. Results of the study indicates that the degree of correlations between age and organizational commitment is stronger than the degree of correlations between organizational tenure and organizational commitment. More interestingly, the correlations between time working with a current supervisor is moderately strong ($r's = .288, p < .01$). It is stronger than the relationships between organizational tenure and organizational commitment. It is possible that individuals attach to their supervisors, and in turn, affect their organizational commitment.

Implications, Limitations and Future Research

Implications

Results of this study lead to several conclusions for implications. Since individuals with

different internal career orientations tend to have different levels of organizational commitment, managers should pay more attention to people who are Getting Ahead and Getting Balance to build up their organizational commitment which can lead to positive outcome to organizations. For instance, managers can enhance levels of organizational commitment by creating with their subordinates a sense of trust and fairness. Moreover, organizations should be flexible in providing what employees need and value to motivate and retain the valuable asset, human resources. More specially, Thai organization should focus on provide a sense of security and opportunities to balance between works and personal lives. This can be done by innovative human resource management such as flexible rewards, flexible employee benefits/cafeteria approach, long-term benefits for employees through alternative insurance and health management schemes, giving benefits directed at employees' families, and humanizing work environment.

Limitations

The findings and conclusions of this study should be interpreted keeping in mind the following limitations. The data presented are based on self-completed questionnaires and may suffer from common method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). In particular, any potential constraints due to shared method variance need to be taken into consideration. However, up to now self-reporting seems to be only way in the study of individuals' attitudinal outcome.

Moreover, the study was conducted in Thailand, it might not be generalizable to other cultural settings. Culture and environment can affect the tests conducted and the relationships of the variables may vary from culture to culture. Theories seem to have both etic (universal) and emic (specific for some cultures) sides. Therefore, generalizing findings should be done carefully.

Future Research

Future research should further explore the explanations offered in this study. The study of relationships between commitment to a direct supervisor and commitment to an organization should be explored. It is possible that commitment or attachment to a person can lead to commitment to

an organization. Although, there were studies finding relationships between leadership style and organizational commitment, none has studies the effects of attachment to a person and organizational commitment. In addition, it might be worthwhile to study the moderation effects of these factors. Another avenue for research could be a longitudinal study of internal career orientation. Especially, future research should try to provide a more solid framework of how internal career orientation may change over time. This study demonstrates the need to develop such a conceptual framework and apply some of the career development and organizational commitment models. The arguments proposed in this study may well be a good starting point for such research.

References

- Adler, S., & Aranya, N. 1984. A Comparison of the Work Needs, Attitudes, and Preferences of Professional Accountants at Different Career Stages. **Journal of Vocational Behavior**, 25: 45-57.
- Allen, N., & Meyer, J. 1993. Organizational Commitment: Evidence of Career Stage Effects. **Journal of Business Research**, 26(1): 49-61.
- Arthur, M., & Rosseau, D. 1996. A Career Lexicon for the 21st Century. **The Academy of Management Executive**, 10(4): 28-39.
- Carlson, D., Derr, B., & Wadsworth, L. (2000). The Effects of Career Dynamics on Multiple Forms of Work-Family Conflict. Unpublished manuscript.
- Cohen, A. 1991. Career Stage as a Moderator of the Relationships Between Organizational Commitment and Its Outcomes: A Meta-Analysis. **Journal of Occupational Psychology**, 64: 253-268.
- Cook, J., & Wall, T. 1980. New Work Attitude Measures of Trust, Organizational Commitment and Personal Need Non-Fulfillment. **Journal of Occupational Psychology**, 53(1): 39-52.

- Cskiszentmihalyi, M., & Rathunde, K. 1993. The Measurement of Flow in Everyday Life: Toward a Theory of Emergent Motivation. In J. Janis, & R. Dienstbier (Eds.), **Developmental Perspectives on Motivation: Current Theory and Research in Motivation**, Vol. 40: 57-97. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Delong, T. (1982). **The Career Orientations of MBA Alumni: A Multidimensional Model**. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Derr, B., & Chilton, S. (1983). The Career Directionality of High School Principals. **The High School Journal**, 67(1), 11-19.
- Derr, B., & Laurent, A. (1989). The Internal and External Careers: A Theoretical and Cross-cultural Perspective. In M. B. Arthur, D. T. Hall, & B. S. Lawrence (Eds.), **Handbook of career theory**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Derr, B. 1986. **Managing the New Careerists: The Diverse Career Success Orientations of Today's Workers**. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Fox, S. F. 1989. Intergenerational Differences, Merit Pay, and Loyalty in State and Local Government. **Review of Public Personnel Administration**, 9(2): 15-27.
- Griffeth, R., Hom, P., & Gaertner, S. 2000. A Meta-Analysis of Antecedents and Correlates of Employee Turnover: Update, Moderator Tests, and Research Implications for the Next Millennium. **Journal of Management**, 26: 463-488.
- Hall, D. T., & Schneider, B. 1972. Correlates of Organizational Identification as a Function of Career Pattern and Organizational Type. **Administrative Science Quarterly**, 17: 340-350.
- Hrebiniak, L. 1974. Effects of Job Level and Participation on Employee Attitudes and Perception of Influence. **Academy of Management Journal**, 17: 649-662.
- Jans, N. A. 1989. Organizational Commitment, Career Factors and Career/Life Stage. **Journal of Organizational Behavior**, 10(3): 247-266.
- Lee, S. 1971. An Empirical Analysis of Organizational Identification. **Academy of Management Journal**, 14: 213-226.
- Levinson, D., Darrow, C., Klein, E., Levinson, M., & McKee, B. 1978. **The Seasons of a Man's Life**. New York: Knopf.

- Luthans, F., Baack, D., & Taylor, L. 1987. Organizational Commitment: Analysis of Antecedents. **Human Relations**, 40(4): 219-236.
- Lynn, S., Cao, L., & Horn, B. 1996. The Influence of Career Stage on the Work Attitudes of Male and Female Accounting Professionals. **Journal of Organizational Behavior**, 17: 135-149.
- Mathieu, J., & Zajac, D. 1990. A Review and Meta-Analysis of the Antecedents, Correlates, and Consequences of Organizational Commitment. **Psychological Bulletin**, 108(2): 171-194.
- Meyer, J., & Allen, N. 1984. Testing the “Side-Bet Theory” of Organizational Commitment : Some Methodological Considerations. **Journal of Applied Psychology**, 69(3): 372-378.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. 1991. A Three-Component Conceptization of Organizational Commitment. **Human Resource Management Review**, 1: 61-98.
- Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. 1979. The Measurement of Organizational Commitment. **Journal of Vocational Behavior**, 14: 224-247.
- Ornstein, S., Cron, W. L., & Slocum, J. 1989. Life Stage Versus Career Stage: A Comparative Test of the Theories of Levinson and Super. **Journal of Organizational Behavior**, 10(2): 117-133.
- Podsakoff, P., & Organ, D. 1986. Self-reports in Organizational Research : Problems and Prospects. **Journal of Management**, 12(4): 531-544.
- Reilly, N. P., & Orsak, C. L. 1991. A Career Stage Analysis of Career and Organizational Commitment in Nursing. **Journal of Vocational Behavior**, 39: 311-330.
- Schein, E. (1971). The individual, the organization, and the career: A conceptual scheme. **Journal of Applied Behavioral Science**, 7, 401-426.
- Schein, E. 1978. **Career Dynamics**. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley. Schein, E. 1996. Career Anchors Revised: Implications for Career Development in the 21st Century. **The Academy of Management Executive**, 10(4): 80-88.
- Sheldon, M. 1971. Investments and Involvements as Mechanisms Producing Commitment to the Organization. **Administrative Science Quarterly**, 16: 142-150.
- Simon. 1976. **Administrative Behavior**. New York: Free Press. Stewart, T., & McGowan, J. 1995. Planning a Career in a World without Managers, **Fortune**, Vol. 131: 72-77.
- Super, D. E. 1957. **The Psychology of Careers**. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Van Dyne, L., Graham, J., & Dienesch, R. 1994. Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Construct Redefinition, Measurement, and Validation. **Academy of Management Journal**, 37(4): 765-802.

Van Maanen, J., & Schein, E. (1977). Improving the Quality of Work Life: Career Development. In J. R. Hackman, E.E. Lawler, & L. W. Porter (Eds.), **Perspectives on behavior in organizations**. New York: McGraw-Hill.